Donnie Adams *Editor*

Educational Leadership

Contemporary Theories, Principles, and Practices

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Educational Leadership

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—Professor David Gurr, *University of Melbourne, Australia*

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Preface

The past two decades have witnessed the dramatic growth and interest in educational leadership, particularly its expansion to a global phenomenon from its previous Anglo-Saxon roots. School leadership is now a prominent area of research, and many scholars in the field of educational management and leadership have developed a passion for and an interest in understanding the contribution of school leadership to student achievement. Given that leadership matters for student success, this book provides a rigorous grounding in contemporary educational leadership theories and their application to policy and practice globally across educational contexts.

The book showcases contributions from authors with deeply embedded understanding of educational leadership and in schools' context. It will focus on major aspects of school leadership, including contemporary theories and models in the twenty-first century, the role of the principal, the work of senior and middle leaders, leadership, and student outcomes. Each chapter will engage with theory, policy, and practice and draw on authors' own research and with other empirical and conceptual sources.

Chapter 1 by Donnie Adams offers some explanation on the importance of school leadership by highlighting the principal's role in developing effectual collaborative working conditions for student achievement and school improvement. The chapter also highlights the importance of instructional leadership and its proven impact on school performance and student outcomes. Significantly, this chapter highlights ways to sustain educational excellence in schools in the twenty-first century.

In Chap. 2, Ashley Yoon Mooi Ng describes the original model of instructional leadership and how the subsequent transformational leadership, distributed leadership, and teacher leadership are incorporated into the original instructional leadership theory to produce an integrated leadership for learning. This chapter re-visits the belief and importance placed on school leadership in addition to its crucial role in students' academic achievement and school improvement.

Chapter 3, by Mohammad Noman, discusses the conceptual underpinning of distributed instructional leadership and proposes the SHARE model comprising five components: steward, harmonize, abdicate, reflect, and empower. Each of these five components is discussed in detail with strong research-based grounding. The SHARE

model could potentially provide a more effective and distributed form of instructional leadership within any educational institution.

In Chap. 4, Lokman Mohd Tahir and his colleagues share an overview of two significant models of leadership that are gaining momentum within the educational leadership framework: authentic and moral leadership. They argue that authentic and moral leadership helps educational leaders achieve their educational purpose, vision, and goals.

Although servant leadership in general terms focuses on followers, rather than leaders, much less clarity surrounds how it might be put into practice as observed by Adrian Jarvis in Chap. 5. The chapter considers possible approaches to the operationalization of servant leadership as a school improvement strategy and proposes that professional learning communities, informed by distributed teacher leadership, offer a solid practical basis for leaders of different types to put the servant style into practice.

The next Chap. 6, by Donnie Adams and his colleagues, discusses the critical role of school leadership in promoting equity and providing equal learning opportunities for all students. The chapter argues on inclusive leadership as a vital element in the effective implementation of inclusive education and the characteristics of inclusive school leaders are discussed, from which all children with differing abilities will benefit. The chapter also provides insights on the enactment of inclusive school leadership in the 21st century.

In Chap. 7, Tengku Faekah Tengku Ariffin and Suhaili Mohd Yusoff highlight the key characteristics of contextual leadership as a more robust type of leadership essential for the survival and continuity of educational institutions. The chapter highlights the characteristics of contextual leadership and how contextual intelligence can raise awareness of the unique school contexts among school principals for them to be able to lead more effectively.

There are several strategies for school turnaround that have consistently proven to be successful and impactful across educational contexts and settings. In Chap. 8, Sock Beei Yeap and Donnie Adams break down some of the arguments around school leadership and its role in creating conditions for lasting improvement and change. The chapter also elaborates on the characteristics and practices of turnaround leadership and provides insights on the outcomes of turnaround leadership.

System leaders are agents for change within a system. They represent one pole of a system's duality in terms of internal and external actors. In Chap. 9, Kenny S. L. Cheah provides an overview of system leadership while relating it to the context of educational institutions. The chapter also discusses the underpinning theory, research, and development of system leadership so that readers can understand the evolution, applications, and functionality of this approach toward educational leadership today.

The final Chap. 10, by Yuting Zhang and her colleagues, describes the emergence of technology leadership as an important component in schools and the principal's role to drive the effective implementation of technological transformation in their schools. They further discuss several technology leadership practices and provide insights into the impacts of principals' technology leadership on their followers, schools, environments, and innovative advancements in the twenty-first century.

The chapters in this volume collectively provide a timely overview of contemporary educational leadership theories and models which are regarded as an essential component of education systems' reform agendas. We believe and hope that this book will be a valuable resource, especially for students, academics, policymakers, and school leaders interested in contemporary educational leadership theories and models in the twenty-first century.

Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia/Melbourne, Australia Donnie Adams

Acknowledgements A book is a monumental project, one that requires much assistance and support if it is to reach completion. Therefore, we acknowledge the contributions of all the authors in this book for their continuous efforts and collaboration in bringing the book to its completion.

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About the Editor

Donnie Adams is a lecturer in Educational Leadership at the Faculty of Education, University of Melbourne. He obtained his Ph.D. in Educational Leadership from Universiti Malaya under the Bright Sparks scholarship and was awarded the Universiti Malaya's Excellence Award 2016: Ph.D. Completion in Less than 3 Years. He was recently awarded the Emerald Young Researcher Award 2021 by Emerald Publishing and Universiti Malaya's Excellence Award for Community Engagement in 2019. He is Editor-in-Chief for the *International Online Journal of Educational Leadership* (IOJEL) and Editor for *Cogent Education*. He is actively involved in research and development work toward the area of inclusive school leadership and school-wide reformation of inclusive education agenda in Malaysia. He has led research projects with the British Council, ETH Zürich, the HEAD Foundation, UNICEF, Asian Universities Alliance, and Teach for Malaysia. Recently, he was listed by Britishpedia as one of the "Successful People in Malaysia" in the field of education.

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Chapter 1
Educational Leadership in the Twenty-First Century

Donnie Adams

Introduction

Students today live in a constantly changing, technologically driven, extremely fast-paced, culturally diverse, and media-saturated world. This necessitates a response from education. However, our schools today continue to deliver a twentieth-century, scientific-management, and factory model of education (Martin 2016; Schleicher 2018). Instead, education needs to be redesigned with a focus on student success in schools, their future workplace, and community life in the twenty-first century. While the definitive contents and specifics of a twenty-first-century school curriculum may remain contested for some time, there now appears to be some uniformity among scholars, policymakers, and practitioners on what twenty-first century competencies are required by students to build a more sustainable future (Martin 2016; Schleicher 2018; Tan et al. 2017).These critical competencies typically include critical thinking, problem solving, creativity, technology literacy, information literacy, and collaboration (see Fig. 1.1) (OECD 2009; Schleicher 2018; Trilling and Fadel 2009).

However, there is a growing concern among various stakeholders that schools are not preparing students for the new demands of the twenty-first century (Meyer and Norman 2020). In schools, the school leadership is second only to teaching in its impact on student achievement (Leithwood et al. 2006). However, among the leadership, it is the principals who are the key personnel that can influence school improvement and enable change (Harris et al. 2017), and act as "powerful multipliers of effective teaching and leadership practices in schools" (Manna 2015, p. 7). This is because their influence is not confined to only the teaching and learning in the classroom but is also school wide.

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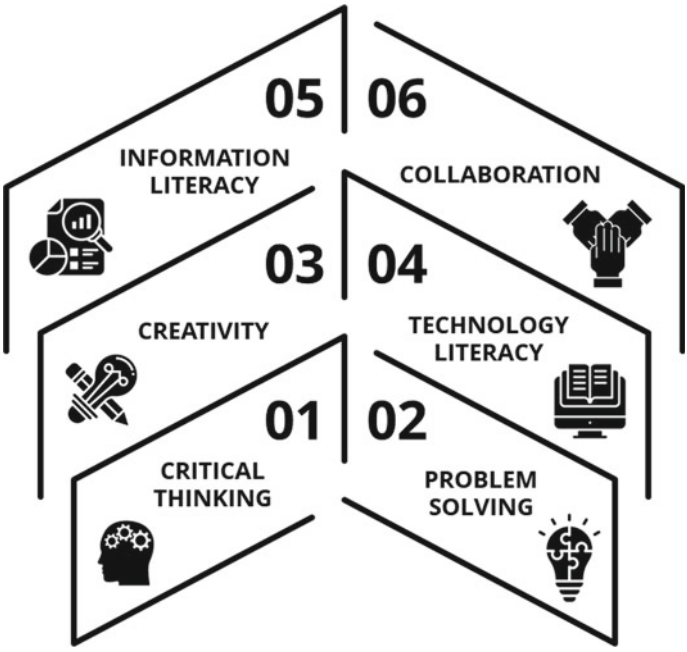

Fig. 1.1 Twenty-first century competencies required by students

This chapter begins with a brief overview on the importance of school leadership by highlighting the principal's role in developing effectual collaborative working conditions for student achievement and school improvement. It then discusses the challenges, areas of concerns, and struggles faced by principals in today's schools such as burnout leading to their wanting to leave the profession. The chapter then highlights the future of leadership such as instructional leadership, and its proven impact on school performance and student outcomes, followed by teacher instructional leadership, a new paradigm shift that enables principals to find ways to include and strengthen teacher participation in instructional decision-making processes as well as on building teacher capacity in schools. Finally, the chapter explores ways to sustain educational excellence in schools in the twenty-first century.

School Leadership Matters

The school principal's role has changed dramatically over the last decade (Adams and Muthiah 2020; Ferrandino 2001; Marsh 1997), particularly after the release of the famous Coleman Report in the United States (Coleman et al. 1966). The report confirmed the obvious that school principalship is much more demanding than it used to be. Nevertheless, principals are still held primarily responsible for

school performance and outcomes (Adams et al. 2021b; Bush 2022; Harris et al. 2017). However, Hallinger and Chen (2015) observed that the field of educational leadership has seen considerable growth in research especially among developing societies over the past 10 years. The combined forces of information technology, globalisation and a knowledge-driven economy have brought forward an age of accelerations, bringing about major changes in schools and societies (Adams et al. 2017), with school leadership standing in the midst as schools are clearly a "result-driven" business.

School leadership has been given increased attention since then, and the aim of educational research has shifted to identifying school-level factors that might impact student achievement (Özdemir et al. 2022). Research evidence has deemed the quality of school principals as the second biggest school-based factor influencing student learning after classroom teaching (Bush 2022; Day et al. 2016). Subsequently, many scholars in the field of educational management were intrigued by the relation of school leadership to student outcome. Findings have shown either a direct (Chen et al. 2022; Gümüş et al. 2021) or indirect (Harris et al. 2017; Leithwood et al. 2020) influence of leadership practices, theories, models, preparations, and qualifications on student achievement, and that such influence is attained through its effects on teacher behaviour, culture, and school organisation along with classroom practices (Adams et al. 2021b; Özdemir et al. 2022).

Consequently, the literature has established that school leadership matters for student achievement and school improvement (Adams 2018; Bush 2022; Özdemir et al. 2022). An outstanding principal that focuses on instructional rather than administrative leadership may raise student outcomes by as much as 20% across schools (Adams 2018; Bush 2022; Harris et al. 2017). This effect may become more powerful when principals utilise instructional leadership and distribute leadership widely within the school to improve student learning (Day et al. 2016; Harris et al. 2017). Additionally, Hallinger's (2010) review of empirical research on school leadership over 30 years highlights that those principals who build collaborative organisational learning, structures, and cultures, create a positive school climate, and build staff leadership capacities will in turn increase students' engagement and motivation in learning.

Thus, principals play an important role in developing effectual collaborative working conditions (Jensen et al. 2012). Other scholars suggest that principals now have a broader set of responsibilities, including towards the teachers, such as creating professional learning communities to improve teaching practices, making them better teachers, and keeping them on track to improve student learning outcomes (Adams et al. 2022). Thus, the role of principals has become increasingly challenging as they are viewed as the key personnel for effective schools (Day et al. 2016; Harris et al. 2017). The next section of this chapter outlines leadership challenges encountered by school principals, and how these subsequently affect their job performance.

Challenges of School Leadership

The roles of principalship have considerably changed in today's educational era causing significant expectations and demands on school principals (Hult et al. 2016). For example, school principals now work longer hours (an average of 44 weeks per year) in most education systems, manage a larger school (an average of 500 students), and oversee more staff (an average of 40 teachers, and other staff members) than school principals in past decades (OECD 2021). In addition, principals are now faced with new expectations, constant change in governmental policies, and accountability pressure (West et al. 2014). Their role is akin to a chief executive officer (CEO) of an organisation, who is responsible for setting goals and directions, capacity building, acquiring resources, budgeting, and managing stakeholders.

Hobson et al.'s (2003) review epitomised the main challenges experienced by school principals in the UK, Europe, and the USA between 1982 and 2002. Among the challenges principals faced were feelings of loneliness and isolation, the need to emulate the successful leadership styles of previous principals, handling ineffective staff, maintaining the infrastructure of the school, managing the school budget, and implementing new government policies, on top of many other tasks (see Fig. 1.2). Though Hobson et al.'s (2003) work encapsulated the many challenges faced by the majority of principals worldwide, there were still significant challenges, particularly those relevant to the twenty-first century, that were not covered.

Tintoré et al.'s (2022) recent attempt to analyse the literature concerning principals' leadership challenges for the past 15 years highlights several areas of concern, such as the lack of preparation for the job, acute shortage of qualified educational leaders, poor leadership practices, increased standards and accountability, and difficulties in juggling the daily demands of the job (e.g., budget and teacher evaluation, dealing with parents' expectations, lack of parental involvement and support,

Fig. 1.2 Hobson et al.'s (2003) review of challenges experienced by school principals

Fig. 1.3 Tintoré et al.'s (2022) review of principals' leadership challenges

managing change, ensuring equity and equality in schools, maintaining good relationships with teachers and staff, handling multiple tasks, dealing with scarce resources, and inappropriate continuous professional development programmes) (see Fig. 1.3).

The struggles and challenges faced by school principals as highlighted above distract principals from focusing on what is the essential, which is improving teaching and learning in the school. Recent empirical studies show that these challenges contribute to a principal's job dissatisfaction (De Jong et al. 2017), and the low attractiveness of the profession (Tintoré et al. 2022). Principals are more likely to experience role ambiguity and work overload on a regular basis. In turn, these experiences cause occupational stress and job burnout, particularly among principals who are new to the profession. In the next section, we outline how principals' increasing accountability for implementing changes impacts their health and well-being, leading to principal burnout.

Burnout

School principals lead human-service organisations; this means that the nature of their work requires them to manage multiple people in the organisation, such as staff, teachers, and students (DeMatthews et al. 2021). Principals also need to deal with people within their school, district, and community, all of whom may have different interests, needs, and requirements. Overall, principals work in a highly social and dynamic environment that requires constant adaptation to policies and expectations at the local, state, and federal levels. Consequently, they are also the mediating agents between the school's district authorities and the community, managing both internal

needs, and external requirements (Reid 2020; Shaked and Schechter 2017). Thus, principals hold a significant, but potentially stress-inducing position.

Burnout has been described as a job stress phenomenon (DeMatthews et al. 2021). The intensity of a principal's job can negatively impact their work performance (Wang et al. 2018), health, and well-being (Chen 2021), causing, for example, fatigue, depression, low energy, and weight gain. As their well-being declines, their ability to influence school improvement initiatives and enable change also declines (Maxwell and Riley 2017), leading them to develop undesirable feelings toward their work, such as low self-efficacy, and a reduced sense of personal achievement (De Jong et al. 2017). This inevitably leads principals to develop negative emotions, such as burnout (Chen 2021).

As principals try to keep up with the increasing pressures and demands from the authorities, parents, and teachers, job burnout becomes an all-too-common occurrence. They are expected to be self-sacrificing, always putting the needs of their students and teachers before their own (DeMatthews et al. 2021). Such views, coupled with high job demands, can contribute to stress and burnout. Additionally, challenging work conditions, such as long hours of work, lack of autonomy, and erratic and unpredictable school conditions, can also contribute to job burnout (DeMatthews et al. 2021; Oplatka 2017). While scholars have identified some of the factors leading to principal burnout, there has been limited guidance in terms of principal self-care and healthy coping strategies (DeMatthews et al. 2021).

If left unchecked, principals could resign and seek employment at better schools, or they could quit the profession altogether. Since burnout has been identified as a main factor that contributes to principal turnover (Yan 2020), this makes principalship a less attractive profession, affecting the recruitment and retention of future principals (De Jong et al. 2017). The following section delineates principal shortage, and clearly articulates the factors contributing to it.

Principal Shortage

According to a survey with over 1000 school principals by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP 2021), 45% of them wanted to leave their position due to the working conditions during the pandemic. Among some of the reasons reported were worsening relations with staff, some of which were irreversible, devastating feelings of failure in keeping their staff or students safe, and mental strain. School principals faced an unprecedented situation over the past three academic years, finding themselves leading their schools on top of responding to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic. They were forced to rely on virtual meetings to communicate with their stakeholders, stay informed about standard operating procedures, and make decisions collaboratively (Gkoros and Bratitsis 2022).

Principals were confronted with tough decisions to make to provide assurance, hope, and transparency to anxious parents who were very concerned about their children's education (Weiner et al. 2021). They were not trained to handle such a

crisis, yet they needed to make decisions, and deal with various levels of anger, anxiety, and frustration from the school community (Adams et al. 2021a). In the United States, 26% of principals reported receiving in-person threats from their school community, with 20% reporting that these threats have made them much less likely to continue as principal (NASSP 2021).

Virella (2022) found that new principals desired guidance from their community and stakeholders while leading through the crisis. The findings further highlighted novice principals' need for interdependence as they lacked leadership skills such as decision making. While schools are reopening, and operating under new norms, principals have to be realistic, and resign to the fact that the old norm may not return, and they must live in times of adaptations, and uncharted systemic reforms (Harris 2020). They may have to evolve alongside the virus and learn to live with the pandemic if it remains a clear and present danger. Principals need to alter the curriculum, teaching and learning materials, oversee pedagogy to overcome learning loss, and readjust learning objectives and priorities. Evidence has shown that without effective leaders who are able to focus on instruction, meeting the needs of all students remains out of reach (Benton et al. 2020).

The Future of Leadership

The future of leadership in education is dynamic and multifaceted. It requires leaders who can adapt to changing instructional paradigms, prioritize well-being, and harness the potential of technology. The following sections delve into these topics, providing insights into how educational leadership will continue to evolve in response to the needs of 21st-century students and teachers.

Instructional Leadership

The social and political pressure on education and school systems in the twenty-first century has led both researchers and policymakers to critically examine inequalities in student outcomes among different social groups in almost every society (OECD 2001). Research has proven that students from low socioeconomic status (SES) backgrounds do not benefit equally from their education as compared to their peers with higher SES (van Ewijk and Sleegers 2010). Despite the alarming circumstances, there is limited evidence on the role of school leadership in overcoming the achievement gaps between students from different SES groups (Steinberg and Yang 2022; Urick et al. 2021). Instructional leadership remains one of the most popular models in school leadership, primarily due to its proven impact on school performance and student outcomes (Harris et al. 2017; Leithwood et al. 2020; Robinson et al. 2008).

While there is emerging research that discloses distributed/shared leadership as the most studied leadership model during the last two decades (Gumus et al. 2018),

a systematic review by Özdemir et al. (2022) indicates that instructional leadership is still the predominant link between school leadership and student achievement. This trend was also validated by previous reviews that confirmed the importance of instructional leadership in influencing student achievement (Hallinger and Heck 1996; Robinson et al. 2008). Empirical evidence from school leadership research also reveals that these instructional leadership practices are needed to raise student achievements in low-SES environments (Heystek and Emekako 2020; Leithwood et al. 2010) as their central purpose is to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in the school. Thus, it is possible for disadvantaged students to benefit from it since they have limited external support (Gümüş et al. 2022).

The nature of instructional leadership is that it emphasises the direct involvement of school principals in the improvement of teaching and learning efforts. Thus, it has now emerged as a prominent model to raise student outcomes in disadvantaged contexts. Principals' instructional leadership could also reduce the negative learning consequences of students from low-SES environments by bringing in external support, protecting instructional time, supporting teacher professional development, and promoting a positive school climate (Gümüş et al. 2022). This is because the literature has underlined that instructional leadership practices are contextually influenced and have to be mediated by certain elements of the school for leadership to have any effects on student learning (Hallinger and Wang 2015). This suggests that "instructional leadership is a process of mutual influence that is both adaptive and responsive to the changing conditions of the school over time" (Hallinger and Wang 2015, p. 14).

The global trend for accountability in education has kept instructional leadership relevant from the 1960s and 70s till today (Gümüş et al. 2022). Pont et al.'s policy analysis of 22 countries' educational systems concluded that "while practices vary across countries, it is clear that school leadership is generally expected to play a more active role in instructional leadership" (2008, p. 26). Effective instructional leaders are those armed with the expertise to observe and evaluate teachers and provide guidance to them in the form of effective, structured feedback, with the goal of motivating teachers, and enabling them to deliver high-quality instructions. In the next section, how school principals involve teachers as partners in instructional leadership to ensure twenty-first century teaching and learning in classrooms is highlighted.

Teacher Instructional Leadership

It is essential for school principals to find ways to include and strengthen teacher participation in instructional decision-making processes (Ezzani 2020). Often, teachers are not included in this. This makes implementing instructional decisions challenging as teachers are the ones who enact the instructional changes made in schools. Principals should empower teachers to make decisions together as this enables them to become part of the process (Marsh and Craven 2006), whereby they now work with the school principal instead of for the school principal. Teachers

are the personnel who are aware of the barriers in student learning and have the ideas or suggestions to improve classroom instruction. This perspective enables the school leadership teams to make better and more informed decisions to improve the teaching and learning processes in classrooms.

Thus, principals have lately begun to engage in a paradigm shift by developing instructional capacity within their schools to serve the diverse needs of students. These principals engage teachers as partners in instructional leadership (Ezzani 2020; Howard 2006). This approach transforms the school culture in a way that focuses the school community on student learning, and benefits all students, particularly for students from low-SES environments (Harris et al. 2017). The approach of teacher instructional leadership helps diffuse the pressures of high-stake assessments, and places added attention on school culture, where both principals and teachers share collective beliefs, attitudes, and actions (Ezzani 2020). A strong culture, coupled with shared decision making in instructional leadership between school principals and their teachers, has proven to lead to student success (Ezzani 2020; Howard 2006).

A study by the National Education Association found that, as principals and teachers share instructional leadership, they demonstrate a "commitment to the student" and to "the profession" in their obligation "to help each student realise his or her potential as a worthy and effective member of society" (see NEA Handbook 2021–2022, p. 451). Teachers within a school climate that emphasises instructional leadership constantly refine lesson plans, set goals, manage curriculum, allocate resources, and involve themselves in continuous professional development (Park and Datnow 2017). A school culture that cherishes student success through quality instruction will inevitably result in student empowerment in their learning (Marsh and Craven 2006). However, recent evidence indicates that teacher quality can also affect student learning (Adams 2018). The next section offers insights into professional learning communities (PLC) as one activity that maximises teacher learning and makes them better educators.

Building Teacher Capacity in Schools

Barber and Mourshed (2007) observed that in high-performing school systems, principals invested heavily in teachers' professional growth. They play a vital role in encouraging teachers' collective learning, and a collaborative culture in schools (Adams et al. 2022). Upon grasping the full benefits and potential of professional learning communities (PLC), principals are now adopting this concept of collective and diverse groups of learning in schools (Adams et al. 2022). However, empirical findings from past studies indicate that supporting structures must be in place before teachers could be encouraged to participate in PLC activities. In addition, teachers' involvement in PLC requires proper planning to allow feedback, profound conversations, reflective practices, and collaborations among teachers.

Current literature from Western societies indicates that PLC processes at schools have successfully changed teaching practices and behaviours as they involve teamwork and collaboration to enhance the effectiveness and efficiency of classroom instruction (Thien et al. 2021). This ultimately improved student achievement (Dogan and Adams 2020). As such, PLC shapes teacher professionalism, transforming them to become better teachers, and producing quality students as a result of their teaching practices (Owen 2017). However, past findings of PLC practices in Asian schools reveal that, although the systems in these countries encourage schools to practise PLC, not all of them are able to adopt it well due to various issues and limitations, such as excessive teacher workload, passive attitudes among teachers, and unsupportive conditions in the school (Thien et al. 2021).

Taking the Bull by the Horns

As principals utilise instructional leadership, and distribute leadership across the school (Day et al. 2016; Harris et al. 2017), school leadership has now shifted from a centralised manner to a decentralised one. Consequently, the old norm can no longer fit its present purpose (Harris and Jones 2020; Thien and Adams 2021). At a system level, it is imperative that schools no longer operate as one entity, but rather operate within the larger ecosystem they are in. Schools should develop networks or collaborate with one another as they have already done with other entities or groups in their communities (e.g., universities, non-governmental organisations, companies, and businesses) to drive a shared agenda for improving standards in the system (OECD 2019).

In order to keep principals in the profession, and to attract new ones, education systems should move away from the traditional function of independent entities, and form a larger ecosystem to which they contribute, and by which they are influenced. In line with this change, shared responsibility and decision making is also required among stakeholders (e.g., parents, teachers, and the school community) for them to work together and be accountable for students' learning. With this change, the traditional way of schools being accountable for student learning will now transform into continuous system improvement through feedback at all levels of the system (OECD 2019).

Apart from trying to reduce the excessive workload of principals, or increase resources, system leaders need to invest in the health and well-being of the school principals by preparing the principals of tomorrow and training them today on engaging in self-care and healthy coping strategies (DeMatthews et al. 2021). Topics such as mental health and well-being should be incorporated into principal preparation programmes, and continuous professional development programmes (NASSP 2021). Additional support and autonomy from educational authorities is also needed if principals' occupational stress and job burnout is to be reduced (Tintoré et al. 2022).

It has been shown that leading schools during the pandemic requires a different form of leadership (Bush 2020; Harris 2020). Schools needed to be managed virtually (Adams et al. 2021a) while simultaneously requiring swift actions and foresight, with careful decision making in consideration of all options and consequences. The COVID-19 pandemic pointed to implications of the evolving role of principals during a crisis, with research showing that crisis management and communications being important areas of expertise for principals (NASSP 2021). Additionally, principals will certainly need to be trained and prepared in integrating educational technology into their schools. Both future and in-service principals will need additional training and support in these areas, thus placing them at high priority for staff development.

Conclusion

This chapter began with a brief overview on the importance of school leadership by highlighting the principal's role in developing effectual collaborative working conditions for student achievement and school improvement. The chapter then discusses the challenges, areas of concern, and the struggles faced by school principals in today's schools such as burnout, and issues such as principals wanting to leave the profession. The chapter then highlighted the future of leadership such as instructional leadership and teacher instructional leadership and building teacher capacity in schools. The chapter then explored sustaining educational excellence in schools in the twenty-first century.

As principals prepare for challenges in the twenty-first century, the continuous and constant changes in education and in society as a whole could present an entire new set of challenges in the years ahead (Ferrandino 2001). Educational leadership in the twenty-first century require more than a compendium of skills—it requires the ability to lead and empower others, and to stand alongside them to execute important ideas and values that make schooling meaningful for students (Marsh and Craven 2006). School leadership in this era requires principals to never lose sight of a vision, even when confronted with tough decisions.

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Chapter 2
Leadership for Learning in Schools in the Twenty-First Century

Ashley Yoon Mooi Ng

Introduction

For the past two decades, with increasing emphasis on accountability, education reforms gathered momentum not only to justify increased government funding (Hallinger and Ko 2015) but also in the quest to provide quality education (Lee et al. 2012; Leithwood 2001; Murphy 2013). Quality education would mean good schools that places emphasis on learning, which invariably means strong student achievement (Hallinger and Heck 2010b; Leithwood 2016). Principals are held accountable with the increasing emphasis on performance, and this leads to a shift of the principal's traditional managerial role to a leadership role in schools (Hallinger 2011b; Walker and Hallinger 2015). Prior to the 1980s, school leadership, which was referred to as 'school management and administration' (Townsend 2019, p. 3) was systematic and hierarchical with decisions made by the Ministry of Education and conveyed to schools by the Education Department. School inspectors monitored school principals to make sure reforms were implemented as instructed. Principals as managers were suited to the industrial era when the emphasis was on stability and standardization, but in the post-industrial era, principals need to be leaders to face unprecedented issues such as taking into account inclusive education, and incorporation of technological advances in education (Ben-David Kolikant 2019). As a result, creative and innovative leaders who think 'out of the box' are needed in order to come up with customized solutions to address problems arising from the increasing complex world of schools. With the emphasis on learning, it calls for principals to lead learning.

Leadership for learning refers to the various strategies that school leaders use to achieve school outcomes, specifically on student learning (Leithwood 2016). This chapter starts with elaboration on the predominant model of instructional leadership

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and its development through the *Effective School Movement* and the *Standards Movement* in the 1980s to the emergence of its offshoots in the form of 'leadership for learning' where school leadership (as opposed to principal leadership) is incorporated into 'leading learning' at the turn of the twenty-first century. Besides instructional leadership, this chapter provides an overview of other main leadership theories, such as transformational leadership, distributed leadership, and teacher leadership and it traces the transformation of instructional leadership to its reincarnated form of 'leadership for learning'. Research on principals' instructional leadership and leadership for learning is predominantly from the West. As a result, policy makers and practitioners from other region, particularly the East, continue to rely on research findings from Western leadership literature (Walker and Hallinger 2015) to conceptualize new leadership roles and policies. As successful leadership practices are shaped by organizational and socio-cultural context, this chapter emphasizes a need to take into account the regional setting that affects leading learning in the schools of different contexts and environment.

School Leadership in an Era of Accountability

When principals are made accountable for their schools' performance, changes are made to education systems, which affect how schools are led (Dolph 2017). Educational reforms are implemented to ensure efficiency, effectiveness, and continual improvement in schools. This requires the provision of greater autonomy and control to schools with the belief that it would provide the flexibility that lead to quality education outcomes (Kelley and Dikkers 2016). This leads to the practice of school-based management and with this, the hierarchical approach changes to accommodate more responsibilities that are shifted from the system to the school level. With this shift, Townsend (2019) provided three changes that are experienced in schools: (1) the school principal is no longer the only person to bear the responsibility of the school, teachers too are involved and participate in addressing the multiple issues that they face in the ever-changing education landscape; (2) there is a shift in the criteria for appointment of principals from seniority to their ability to lead other people. It is increasingly becoming the norm to accept that people other than the principal can also be leaders in their schools, especially for teachers to be leading learning. This means the establishment of leadership teams and professional learning communities where teachers take responsibilities on matters concerning learning and teaching; (3) leadership is context sensitive, and that leadership is purpose-specific, knowing the why and how to lead meaningfully in that specific school context, has gathered consensus among researchers and practitioners.

These changing understandings of leadership happened during the 1980s when researchers questioned whether the instructional leadership model represented a viable model that could be applied broadly to the principalship (Kaparou and Bush 2015). This led researchers and scholars to study a number of different leadership models. Among the more popular ones are transformational leadership (Anderson

2017), distributed leadership (Harris 2014) and teacher leadership (Helterbran 2016; Ng 2022). This has created a corpus of knowledge which not only aimed to define the various constructs of the leadership models but also to examine how the different leadership models impact students' learning (Paletta et al. 2017). Instead of debating which model offers the greatest leverage for understanding how school leaders contributed to learning, there emerged consistent patterns of impact and the term 'leadership for learning' has come to subsume features of instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and distributed leadership (Wieczorek and Lear 2018).

This incorporation of the original instructional leadership model with other leadership models enables it to rejuvenate and stay relevant in leading learning in schools. Such an expansion of the original model of instructional leadership means that the concept of instructional leadership has expanded to suggest a 'broader conceptualization that incorporates a wider range of leadership sources as well as additional foci for action' (Hallinger 2011b, p. 126). As MacBeath (2019) mentioned, this calls forth the questions of leadership by who and leadership for what in the context of leading learning.

Leading Learning

Leadership for learning or leading learning describes the approaches used by school leaders to achieve school learning outcome (Hauge et al. 2014). The following section contains information on the various models of leadership that have been incorporated into instructional leadership, and a chronological timeline to show the evolution of instructional leadership to its current leadership for learning.

Instructional Leadership

The emphasis of principals being responsible for student achievement originated with the study by Edmonds (1979), which led to the influential *Effective School Movement* in the 1980s (Townsend 2019). Principals in their role of instructional leaders were considered experts in instruction and curriculum (Lai and Cheung 2013) and as a result, principals were described as strong and directive with a focus on achieving goals, and work with teachers to improve teaching and learning (Mestry 2017). Based on these attributes, observable practices, and behaviours that principals could put into practice, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) identified three dimensions of instructional leadership in the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). The three dimensions of Instructional Leadership are: (1) defining the school's mission, (2) managing the instructional programme, and (3) promoting a positive school climate (Hallinger and Murphy 1985). Each dimension has its own components as shown in Fig. 2.1.

Dimensions	Components
Define the school's goals	• Frame school's goals • Communicate school's goals
Manage instructional programs	• Coordinate the curriculum • Supervise and evaluate instruction • Monitor students' progress
Develop the school learning climate	• Protect instructional time • Provide incentives for teachers • Provide incentives for learning • Provide professional development • Maintain high visibility

Fig. 2.1 A framework of instructional leadership (adapted from Hallinger and Murphy 1985)

The first dimension concerns the principal's role with that of the teachers in determining the school's vision and mission (Hallinger and Heck 2002). Goals are focused on academic progress and should be clear and measurable as well as achievable. While the principal sets the goals and mission with the staff, it is the principal's responsibility to support and communicate such goals to the school community. However, Hallinger (2009) stressed that the process of goal development is less important than the outcome of the goals.

The second dimension on managing the instructional programme incorporates three dimensions of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. This shows the principal's key role in 'managing the technical core of the school' (Hallinger 2011b, p. 277). The principal is required 'to be deeply engaged in stimulating, supervising and monitoring teaching and learning in the school' (Hallinger 2009, p. 9). To do this, the principal has to have expertise in teaching and learning as well as the skills and commitment to improve the school's performance. This suggests that the key responsibilities of the principal are coordination and control of the academic programme of the school (Hallinger 2011b).

The third dimension bears the most instructional leadership practices compared to the other two dimensions. The principal has to 'align the school's standards and practices with its mission and to create a climate that supports teaching and learning' (Hallinger 2003, p. 333). This dimension of promoting a positive school learning climate is realized through the notion that effective schools create an 'academic press' (Alig-Mielcarek and Hoy 2005; Mitchell et al. 2015) through the development of high expectations, standards, and building a culture of continuous improvement.

From the above description of the construct, it is clear that instructional leadership was mostly principal-centred. Bush (2003) called it 'learning-centred leadership', which became synonymous to 'instructional leadership' and 'learning-centred leaders' that is used interchangeably with 'instructional leaders' (p. 17).

Despite the emergence of research on school effectiveness and school improvement that reinforced the belief that principal leadership 'makes a difference' (Edmonds 1979), there were limitations identified concerning the principal's role as an instructional leader (Bossert et al. 1982; Hallinger 2011b). There were empirical studies showing that most principals did not assume an active role as instructional leaders (Ng et al. 2015a, b). The reason cited was that it was difficult for principals to commit totally to being instructional leaders and it was too much for one person to accomplish effectively (Wieczorek and Manard 2018). The main difficulty faced by principals as instructional leaders was the lack of specific content knowledge (Quebec Fuentes and Jimerson 2020) which believed that school leaders cannot know everything about teaching in the content areas. Besides, it was criticized as directive, hierarchical, and centralized, not to mention that it downplayed the influence of other leaders such as the middle managers and teacher leaders. On top of all these limitations, this model (Hallinger and Murphy 1985) did not account for the school context and socio-cultural norms as well as institutional structures vary from school to school and country to country. This meant that to understand successful school leadership, it must be studied by incorporating the institutional and socio-cultural context of the school in which the leadership is enacted (Walker and Hallinger 2015).

Transformational Leadership

With the criticism on instructional leadership and the restructuring initiatives sweeping through the world in the 1990s, another leadership model was theorized and investigated, which was transformational leadership (Bass 1998). It was contrary to what was advocated in instructional leadership, which was inclined to be hierarchical with top-down relationships (Sun et al. 2017). Bass (1998) identified four main components of transformational leadership: idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and inspirational motivation. Such components provide the framework in which leadership is described as a product of multiple sources instead of one single authority (Hallinger 2003). It was much more in favour over instructional leadership because "transformational leaders motivate followers by raising their consciousness about the importance of the organization" (Marks and Printy 2003, p. 375).

A review of instructional leadership literature between 1992 and 2000 by Hallinger (2005) showed a drop in the number of studies on instructional leadership. Although these two leadership models were presented as competing models, it was found that they contain overlapping and complementary features (e.g., Hallinger 2003; Leithwood et al. 2006, 2010; Marks and Printy 2003) with the similarities more significant than the differences (Hallinger 2007). They include producing a shared sense

of purpose in the school, a focus on teaching and learning, capacity building, and creating a learning-focused instructional environment (Hallinger 2011a). Valentine and Prater (2011) found that both instructional and transformational leadership had a positive relationship with student achievement. Instructional leadership was linked to achievement via instructional and curriculum improvement, while transformational leadership via the identification of a vision and a leader being able to provide an appropriate model follows.

This new information gave rise to 'leadership for learning' (LfL) and it becomes synonymous with instructional leadership (MacBeath 2019). Under leading for learning, the principal as the 'instructional leader' became the central focus in accountability educational reforms (Ng et al. 2015a). This led to instructional leadership regaining its prominence in the leadership discourse in the early 2000s. Studies by various researchers (Robinson et al. 2008; Walker and Ko 2011) demonstrated that instructional leadership has the strongest empirically verified impact on student learning outcomes. Robinson et al. (2008) conducted a meta-analysis review on the impact of school leadership on student learning and found that 'the average effect of instructional leadership on student outcomes was three to four times that of transformational leadership' (p. 635). This finding was reinforced by Shatzer et al.'s (2014) quantitative study using both the Principal Instructional rating Scale (Instructional Leadership) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Transformational Leadership) on a sample of 590 teachers and 37 elementary schools in the USA. It was found that instructional leadership explained more of the variance in student achievement than transformational leadership did. Such studies clearly show that instructional leadership better captures the impact of school leadership on learning and that transformational leadership does not measure all the processes by which leaders impact teaching and learning as it does not have an educational focus (Onorato 2013).

Distributed Leadership

With global changes taking place (e.g., pedagogical changes, policy borrowing, technological development, curriculum changes to fit the time, assessment changes), there comes with it a high level of decentralization which leads to changes in the education system (e.g., hierarchical rigidity, unitary authority that shapes the institutional processes). Inevitably, this leads to changes in the underlying values and accompanying behavioural norms as well as exert an influence on how principals lead in their schools (Göksoy 2015; Bellibas and Liu 2018). Distributed leadership is 'a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their situation' (Spillane 2005, p.144). In other words, distributed leadership is about learning together, constructing meaning and knowledge collectively and collaboratively (Lambert 1998, p. 5). Distributed leadership is often used interchangeably with other terms such as "shared leadership", "collaborative leadership", "delegated leadership", and "dispersed leadership" (Spillane 2005). In a longitudinal study that spanned over four years to investigate the impact of shared leadership on school

improvement, Hallinger and Heck (2010a) found significant direct effects of collaborative leadership on change in the schools' academic capacity and indirect effects on rates of growth in student reading achievement. This study reinforced the view that leadership for learning aims at building the academic capacity of schools which leads to improvement of student learning outcomes.

Instructional leadership in leading learning has moved forward to take a distributed leadership perspective. This is based on findings that few principals were involved in direct classroom instruction and that evaluation and feedback of teachers were carried out by Heads of Department or middle-level leaders (Ng et al. 2015b). This finding provided empirical evidence that teaching and learning including classroom observations were devolved to other leaders instead of solely dependent on the school principal. As a result, research on educational leadership began to focus on the study of leadership that went beyond that of the individual school principal. There were a number of conceptions of leadership used and among the popular ones were shared leadership (Harris 2004; Lambert 2002; Marks and Printy 2003), teacher leadership (York-Barr and Duke 2004), and distributed leadership (Gronn 2002; Spillane 2005).

By the turn of the twenty-first century, educational leadership scholars have come to a consensus that the phenomenon of leadership is shared or distributed and does not solely rest on the individual principal (Adams and Velarde 2021; Bush 2013). This affects how the principal enacts leadership for leading learning. As more individuals are involved in leading learning, there is a need for multiple interaction and interrelationships between and among stakeholders. It becomes necessary for principals as leaders for learning to create a conducive environment in the schools that foster the building of pedagogical capacity, expanding opportunities for innovation especially in teaching and learning, allocating resources in the most cost-effective way, and supporting teachers that enable them to assume collective and individual responsibility for instruction improvement (e.g., Darling-Hammond and Rothman 2011; Hallinger and Bryant 2013). In short, the role of principal in leading learning focuses on the development and distribution of the resources and skills across the school organizational spectrum. This means 'school leadership' no longer refer to the leadership of the principal alone (Makgato and Mudzanani 2019).

Teacher Leadership

The idea of distributing leadership function, actions, and authorities to school personnel has led to the question of how teachers might demonstrate leadership in schools. Teacher leadership "suggests that teachers rightly and importantly hold a central position in the ways schools operate and in the core functions of teaching and learning" (York-Barr and Duke 2004, p. 255). It is based on the idea that all members of an organization can lead and leadership is considered to be an agency that is distributed (Harris 2004). Teacher leadership is carried out when teachers take part in the decision-making mechanism of schools, contribute to the professional development of others, share their expertise with their peers, and generate new ideas

for the development of schools (Mayo 2002). Printy (2010) pointed out that teachers' leadership efforts were more important than the principal's involvement in making instructional choices. The study by Opdenakker and Van Damme (2007) reported that cooperation amongst teachers produced a strong positive effect on climate characteristics, which in turn affect outcomes of schools. This means that the emphasis is on interactions and that leadership is not restricted to those with a formal leadership position (Harris and DeFlaminis 2016).

Teacher leadership incorporates both formal and informal leadership activities: formal leadership as enacted by heads of department and those responsible for curriculum development while informal leadership is responsible for activities in the classroom such as supervision of students and assessment of students' performance (Gordon et al. 2021; Von Dohlen and Karvonen 2018). There is a need for 'learning leadership' in the twenty-first century because it is crucial for teachers taking the lead in setting direction and taking responsibilities for putting learning at the core of schooling (OECD 2013). This notion of learning leadership was further emphasized when The World Bank (2018) on *Learning to Realize Education's Promise* reported that schooling is not learning and that there is a learning crisis (pp. 3–4).

To address the situation, teachers must not only be trained and qualified to teach, but also be mentored and taught leadership competencies in order to perform their duties professionally. In the twenty-first century, as schools are increasingly becoming more complex for the principal to handle alone, the responsibility of ensuring learning happens become increasingly placed on the shoulders of the teachers. This means that leadership is no longer confined as an organizational quality but also as quality of practice (Spillane 2005). To address the learning crisis in the twenty-first century, leadership should be the key practice of teaching, and that teachers should be part of leadership in teaching.

Leadership for Learning (LfL)

Leadership for learning (LfL) integrates various aspects of the previous leadership models discussed above: instructional leadership, transformational leadership, distributed leadership, and teacher leadership. A study by Murphy et al. (2007) captured this integration of leadership theories to form the leadership for learning under eight major dimensions: vision for learning, instructional programmes, curricular programmes, assessment programmes, communities of learning, resource acquisition and use, organizational culture, and advocacy. Each dimension is described in Fig. 2.2.

Taking the description of LfL from Murphy et al. (2007), Daniëls et al. (2019) interpreted the relation between instructional, transformational, distributed, and situational leadership and leadership for learning as shown in Fig. 2.3.

Despite leadership for learning has gained popularity, there is still no solid definition of LfL. It is often understood as the involvement of the whole school community who actively participate in the improvement of learning (Marsh 2012). Nevertheless,

Dimensions	Description
Vision for Learning	Having a vision for learning and academic success for all students that is based on high standards is crucial for success and key to learning. It is the essence of leadership, which enables teachers to share a common purpose to fulfil the aspirations and goals of the school. It is a way for the leaders to show what is current and where they want the school to be, thus creating a tension between the two conditions. A well-articulated vision will provide the energy and the motivation to fill this gap. Vision provides the starting point for change to happen (Kurland et al., 2010).
Instructional Programmes	A strong focus on learning and teaching is vital for learning to happen. Leaders for learning will be knowledgeable and deeply involved in instructional programs by maintaining high visibility both in and out of the classrooms. Protecting instructional time is important so that learning and teaching is not jeopardized. Resources are provided to ensure teaching and learning is given the focus needed. School leaders are deeply involved in instructional programs and feedback to teachers on their instructional practices are given in a timely manner. Teachers are developed via continuous professional development, and this is important as the quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of teachers (Barber & Mourshed, 2007).

Fig. 2.2 Eight dimensions of leadership for learning (adapted from Murphy et al. 2007)

clear assumptions of LfL have emerged in research and Daniëls et al. (2019) have listed them as below:

1. This is a school-wide leadership which is team-oriented and collaborative by those in the formal management team (principal, vice-principals) and the less formal management team (parents, teachers). This aligns with distributed leadership where the whole school community engages in purposeful interactions that nurture relationships focused on improving learning (Marsh et al. 2014).
2. The focus on learning is clear as learning happens at all levels: teacher learning, student learning, organizational learning and leadership learning (Hetland et al. 2011; Townsend et al. 2013).

Curricular Programmes	High expectations for both students and teachers create an academic press (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005) that provides the drive to excel. Monitoring of students' work is given priority and data are used to provide an accurate picture of student learning. Data driven programs should be put in place to track students' progress and to show what intervention plans need to be put in place and when to enforce them. In other words, an academic audit trail program would help to track students' learning. Efforts are made to ensure that there is alignment of objectives or standard, instruction, curriculum materials and assessments (Roach et al., 2008).
Assessment Programmes	Leading learning requires a comprehensive assessment of learning. Decisions on developing a mission, planning instruction, evaluating curriculum programs, identifying needs of students, monitoring of students' progress, and staff appraisal need to be based on assessment from which data are obtained (Liou et al., 2014). By collecting assessment results, teachers are informed about students' needs and the type of intervention plans that are required. At the same time, such assessment would reflect on teachers' need for professional development.

Fig. 2.2 (continued)

Communities of Learning	To ensure growth of teachers, school leaders would invest in continuous professional development of the teachers. This includes a strong focus on staff development and building a learning community, which advocates life-long learning with the focus on school improvement. Such school leaders spare no expense in providing resources and opportunities for the development of the staff members through the principle of adult learning. Teachers are encouraged to collaborate and learn among themselves through various school learning communities. Through such avenues, trust is inculcated to support the learning community with shared direction, cooperative work and mutual accountability (Murphy et al., 2007).
Resource Acquisition and Use	Resources need to be allocated in the best way to meet school goals. Resources are used to ensure teachers are continuously developing their instructional skills and students' learning environment is maximized with the objective of strengthening students' learning. Leaders with a focus on learning spare no expense to ensure the quality of instructional and curricular programs, as well as the enhancement of student learning (Ganon-Shilon et al., 2021).

Fig. 2.2 (continued)

Organizational Culture	High performing leaders are focused on outcomes. There are high expectations on both the students and the teachers, and everyone (students, teachers, parents, and administrators) is held accountable for their success. Providing a conducive environment for learning, such as safe, orderly, aesthetical surrounding is vital for learning and teaching to happen. Equally important is the provision of suitable and sufficient infrastructure needed for teaching and learning to take place. High performing school leaders are highly visible in the school not only to make sure that instructional time is protected but also visible to students to show care and concern for them. Recognition and rewards are important practices by leaders of learning. Providing such incentives will reinforce learning and student engagement (Dodge et al., 2017).
Advocacy	Leaders for learning are effective leaders who build strong relationships between schools and the community. They are community leaders by maintaining high visibility in the community and advocacy for community causes which leads to building trust and rapport between the school and the community. Leaders for learning also work closely with the parents and the community in such a way to bring benefits to the students in the school. Benefits can be in the form of financial aid, as well as special talents which parents possess and can be tapped into for the students' learning (Khalifa, 2012).

Fig. 2.2 (continued)

3. There is capacity building as everyone in the organization is developing through knowledge development and greater motivation. This aligns with the findings from transformational leadership studies (Pushor and Amendt 2018).
4. Leadership for learning is result-oriented with a focus on student achievement and a school-wide focus on learning. Attention is paid to teaching, learning and assessment (Daniëls et al. 2019).

Leadership for learning emphasizes the need to take school context into consideration. There is a greater degree of job satisfaction among the teachers and higher

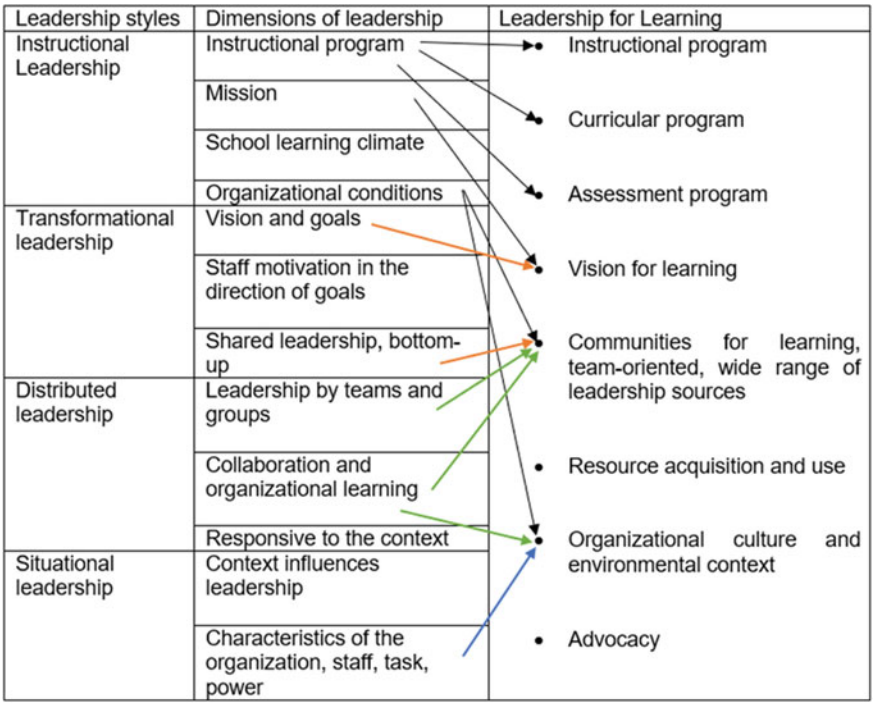

Fig. 2.3 Relation between instructional, transformational, distributed and situational leadership and leadership for learning (adapted from Daniëls et al. 2019)

levels of self-efficacy of teachers within the school (Paletta et al. 2017). Like in the studies of other leadership models, the question of how leadership for learning can help principals to enact leadership practices so that student achievement is attained. To put this question into perspective, it is important to lay down what are the characteristics of effective principals? The review of literature carried out by Daniëls et al. (2019) described effective school leaders with the following characteristics:

1. Focus on curriculum and instruction
2. Effective communication and maintaining good internal and external relations
3. Defining the school mission and vision
4. Inculcate organisational culture, trust and collaboration
5. Recognition and awarding successes and accomplishments.

Based on a review on leadership and leadership development in educational settings, Daniëls et al. (2019) found strong similarities between 'Leadership for Learning' and the characteristics of effective school principals as shown in Fig. 2.4.

Figure 2.4 shows strong agreement in curriculum and instruction, vision, communication, and organizational culture. The collaboration and recognition of staff's accomplishment and the dimension of resource acquisition and use show lesser degree of agreement (Daniëls et al. 2019). Based on this finding, it is important that

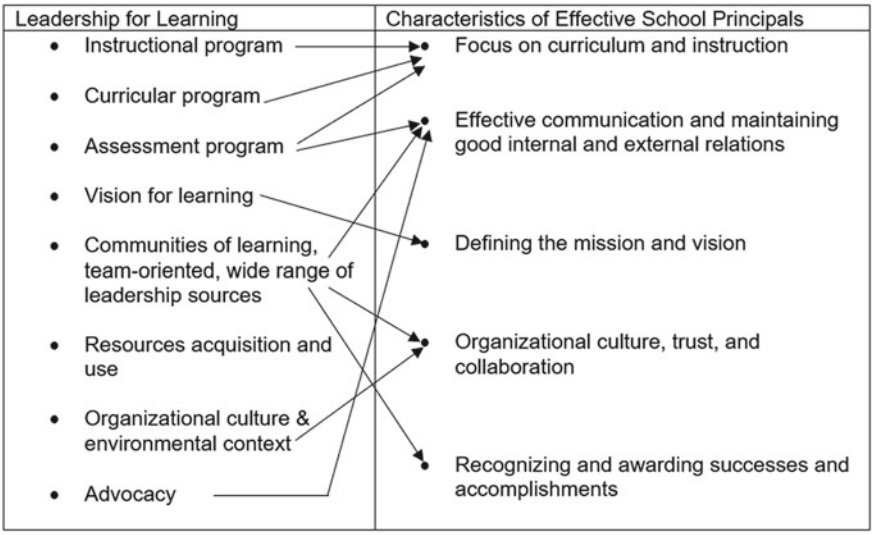

Fig. 2.4 Relation between Leadership for Learning and the characteristics of effective school principals (adapted from Daniëls et al. 2019)

leadership for learning should also put focus on matters such as financial management and find ways to reward staff accomplishments as these are the elements that build a positive climate to student learning and achievement.

Principals' professional development programmes should take into account leadership for learning approaches and that leadership is a process. It entails the building of a learning community and importance be given to networking and collegial consulting. It is also important to create an environment where all these individuals come together to lead learning in the school.

Leadership for learning connects between leadership and learning putting the focus on learning as opposed to a teaching-centred dimension (Marques 2007). This puts learning as the core of leadership and the prime principle of LfL. It is therefore crucial to appraise leadership, learning and particularly their connection, as well as seek to understand about leadership in education that supports learning in the complex world of schools. LfL is set on the premise that leadership and learning is viewed as an activity that can be exercised by everyone at all levels (Stevenson et al. 2016). LfL involves maintaining a focus on learning by creating favourable conditions for learning to happen, sharing of leadership, and that everyone is accountable for the success of learning to happen (Holden 2008). In learning, it is important to note that people learn in different ways and that learning is highly context sensitive.

The connection between leadership and learning in LfL, according to Murphy et al. (2007) can be studied by looking at the factors that shape leadership behaviours: (i) previous experiences of the leader; (ii) knowledge and skills (iii) the personal characteristics of the leader; (iv) leader's beliefs and values (Hall and Hord 2001). This leadership behaviours in turn will impact on the learning environment at both the

classroom level and the school level. In the learning environment, students' learning is affected by standards such as curriculum, instruction and culture, and the school is accountable to meet expectations. This connection between leadership and learning will invariably be affected by context where this connection between leadership and learning plays out (Hetland et al. 2011).

An Integrated Shared Leadership for Learning

Despite the long history of study on the various educational leadership models and their effectiveness on student achievement and school improvement, there are still questions that researchers sought to answer. Despite the general consensus that principal's leadership has an indirect effect on student achievement and school improvement (Adams et al. 2021). However, such consensus was reached without taking into account mediating factors such as school context, school leadership, student composition, and school size on student outcomes (Sebastian and Allensworth 2012; Sebastian et al. 2017). Based on such rationale and the vast array of factors that can affect school outcome, Hallinger (2014) provided a framework to guide leadership studies. Hallinger (2011b) offers a conceptualization of the relationship between leadership of the principal, school characteristics and school outcomes as shown in Fig. 2.5.

This model highlights several important assumptions about leadership for learning.

1. Leadership is context-based and is enacted within its environment. School leaders are influenced and affected by the limitations and opportunities found in the

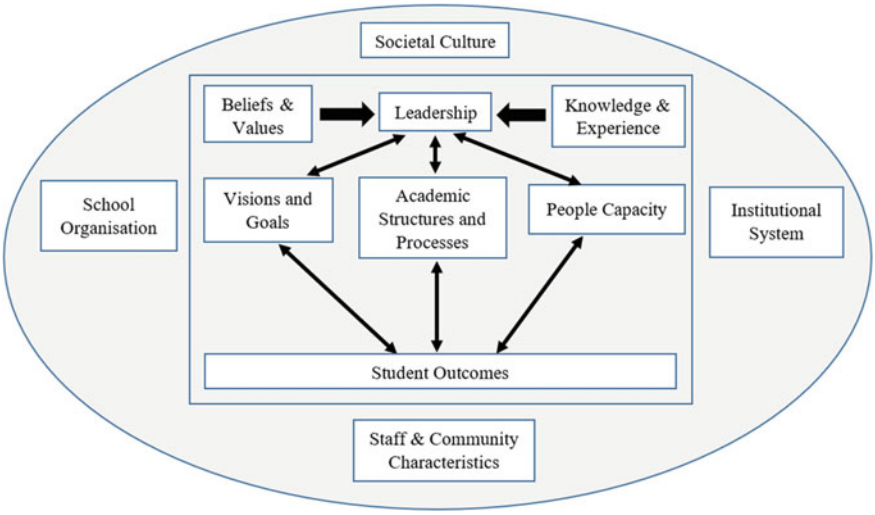

Fig. 2.5 A synthesized model of leadership for learning (adapted from Hallinger 2011b)

environmental context but is also limited by the constraints operating in the environment of the context (Hallinger 2014).
2. Leadership enacted is also moderated by the principals' personal characteristics such as their personal values, belief, attitudes, knowledge, and experience (Hallinger 2014).
3. Leadership does not directly affect student learning but is mediated by school-level processes and conditions. School leadership influences and is influenced by school-level conditions such as vision and goals, academic structure and processes, and people capacity. Similarly, student outcomes influence and are influenced by them (Hallinger 2014).
4. This model frames principal leadership in an educational environment and towards student growth and particularly student learning outcomes (Hallinger 2014).

In a study by Daniëls et al. (2019), which used the situational leadership model, found that context of the organization exerted influence on leadership, and that power, task and staff influenced the characteristics of the organization, which were similar to Hallinger's (2014) first three assumptions.

Conclusion

Most research on educational leadership uses instructional leadership and transformational leadership. Although other leadership theories are found in contemporary literature, it is instructional leadership that is prominently featured. It is also evident that instructional leadership has a strong focus on teaching and learning in schools. Researchers (Shatzer et al. 2014), found that instructional leadership has the bigger effect size on student achievement when compared to transformational leadership. Although transformational leadership does not have an education focus, it does motivate staff in the direction of attaining the school goals (Allen et al. 2015).

The emergence of distributed leadership emphasizes that leadership is no longer only the responsibility of the principal who is the formal leader (Botha and Triegaardt 2015). In distributed leadership, the importance of the context for leadership is illuminated. As a result, scholars recommend integrating these theories: instructional leadership, transformational leadership, distributed leadership with an emphasis on context into a theory, which is leadership for learning (LfL) (Adams and Md Yusoff 2019). Guided by the leadership for learning model, future and further studies need to be carried out to investigate how school leaders enact their leadership practices in leading learning in their schools.

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Chapter 3
Distributed Instructional Leadership: The SHARE Model

Mohammad Noman

Introduction

With the popularity of the effective school movement during the 1980s, school principals came under tremendous pressure to become more 'instructional leaders' (Hallinger and Murphy 1985; Hallinger and Wang 2015). They work in an environment of increased volume and complexity, extended work hours, and often face demands that are in direct conflict with each other (Adams et al. 2021a; Pollock and Wang 2019, 2020; Wang and Pollock 2020) which constantly overwhelm them (Grinshtain and Gibton 2018). Being a 'more instructional leader' adds to the complexity, given the amount of responsibility this brings upon them. School principals, who were already witnessing dramatic changes in their roles from "that of a colleague of teachers to a representative of the school board" (Tyack and Hansot 1982, p. 5), felt that they were not capable of handling this additional "daunting set of expectations" (Noonan and Renihan 2006, p. 9). However, notwithstanding initial resistance, instructional leadership's popularity has grown tremendously during the last three decades. It has become one of the most researched educational leadership models to date and has shown notable staying power (Adams et al. 2021b; Hallinger et al. 2020). The effectiveness of instructional leadership has been extensively studied and the findings have revealed its positive effects on student achievement (Glaés-Coutts 2021).

Bush et al. (2011) include instructional leadership among nine prominent educational leadership models and single it out for its central focus on teaching and learning activities. Similarly, Pont (2020) considers instructional leadership as a crucial driver of reform efforts that leads to enhanced student learning. Emphasizing the role of instructional leadership in sustainable school improvement efforts, Hallinger and

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Murphy (2013) claim that "while effective leadership cannot guarantee successful education reform, research affirms that sustainable school improvement is seldom found without active, skillful, instructional leadership from principals and teachers" (p. 6).

While instructional leadership has been popular for a considerably long period, many researchers claim that there is a significant gap between the claims of instructional leadership practices and the actual practices of school principals (Aas and Brandmo 2016; Adams and Velarde 2021; Shaked 2018). Several reasons could be attributed to this gap (Goldring et al. 2015; Murphy et al. 2016), including time constraints been cited by most educational leaders for not being able to fully implement instructional leadership (Goldring et al. 2015; Wieczorek and Manard 2018). In their traditional role, school leaders would mainly carry out bureaucratic and management tasks which included managing finances, facilities, schedules, and human resources (Hallinger et al. 2018) which has been expanded to being also responsible for improving the academic achievement of students and maintaining a conducive learning environment within the school.

As a result, school leaders around the world are experiencing tremendous workloads, leaving them with little time to focus on teaching and learning activities, leading to stress and anxiety and affecting their wellbeing (Walker 2019). They are also working longer hours, with as much as 55 h of average work during a week (Pollock et al. 2015; Skaalvik 2020). Of their total workload, school principals typically spend their time carrying out tasks such as attending several meetings and briefings, solving problems and conflicts, and other administrative and organizational tasks, with little or no time left for instructional responsibilities (Hauseman 2020).

One of the major requirements of successful instructional leadership practices is the continuous, intense involvement of school principals' indirect attempts to enhance teaching and learning activities in their schools (Hallinger et al. 2020; Neumerski et al. 2018). The effect of instructional leaders on teaching and learning is indirect through their influence on teachers, in the form of their hiring, coaching, developing, and encouraging teachers to constantly improve their instructional practices (Grissom and Condon 2021). Instructional leaders desperately need help and for this, they need to turn to other members of the school community, particularly their teachers. A couple of decades ago, Spillane and Louis (2002, p. 98) made the following assertion "as a practical matter, school principals who cannot engage others in leading will be unable to spread and mobilize the expertise necessary for school improvement in their schools; they are thus unlikely to be very effective".

This chapter highlights the key aspects of an instructional leadership model in schools that is not hierarchical as most traditional instructional leadership models are and is distributed across the institution for greater effectiveness. For instructional leadership to be more distributive, the chapter proposes the SHARE model of distributed instructional leadership that is grounded on empirical evidence from the literature. The chapter first discusses the key propositions of instructional leadership and distributed leadership before delving into the conceptualization of distributed instructional leadership and the SHARE model.

Origins and Evolution of Instructional Leadership

The origins of formal instructional leadership could be traced to the effective schools movement in the 1980s, wherein researchers began classifying schools that were successful as effective schools and the ones that were not successful as ineffective schools (Lezotte n.d.). Out of the many factors that were identified as responsible for school effectiveness, the role of a strong instructional leader was most prominent (Edmonds 1981; Lezotte n.d.; Rosenholtz 1985; Weber 1971). Most studies on effective schools have demonstrated that there exists no effective school that is led by a weak principal (Leithwood et al. 2020; Ylimaki and Brunderman 2022; Zhu et al. 2020).

Instructional leadership has evolved over a period and could be generally conceptualized in two different ways. The earliest conceptualization of instructional leadership was of behaviors of a leader which directly influence the teaching, learning, and staff development within a school (Leithwood 1994), and was primarily focused on direct curricular and instructional activities, especially in small, rural schools (Hallinger 2003). This conceptualization of instructional leadership assumes the principal's role as a 'Master Teacher,' with the principal as an expert in curriculum and instruction (Mitchell and Castle 2005). The second conceptualization is modern and is based upon the premise that school leaders have a significant, indirect impact on the academic achievement of all students in a school (Grissom and Condon 2021). It extends to all leadership activities including creating a conducive school climate, goal setting, scheduling, assessment, and other facets of leadership that has bearing on the academic achievement of students.

Hallinger and Murphy (2013, p. 7) consider it as a process of influence while claiming that "today, we view instructional leadership as an influence process through which leaders identify direction for the school, motivate staff and coordinate school and classroom-based strategies aimed at improvements in teaching and learning". Hallinger and Murphy (1987) believe instructional leadership to be observable practices and behaviors of a leader, particularly those related to school climate and mission while Leithwood's (1994) definition does not include behaviors that are explicitly dedicated to school climate and mission.

While the role of instructional leader in school effectiveness has been well documented and instructional leadership has been studied primarily as the function of a single leader, there is a gradual consensus on its new understanding wherein "instructional leadership, as we reconceptualize it, replaces a hierarchical and procedural notion with a model of 'shared instructional leadership' (Marks and Printy 2003, p. 371)." The findings of a meta-analysis conducted by Robinson et al. (2008) also reinforce this idea, noting that the traditional conceptualization of instructional leadership focuses solely on the principal (Hallinger and Murphy 1985) which is contrary to the findings of several studies wherein most principals were unable to enact instructional leadership by themselves (Hallinger 2003).

It has become clear that "principals cannot lead alone and that school leadership teams are essential to the improvement process" (Chrispeels et al. 2008, p. 730).

Principal's work domain consists of a myriad of traditional school leadership responsibilities (Chan et al. 2019) apart from numerous non-traditional workload that includes, but are not limited to school funding, formal correspondence, problem-solving (Oplatka 2017), meetings, writing reports, managing stakeholders, community participation (Hauseman et al. 2017), improving technology in their schools (Pollock and Hauseman 2019) and dealing with budgetary constraints, and accountability issues (Dwangu and Mahlangu 2021). The sheer volume of workload requires principals to possess and demonstrate a variety of skills such as planning, decision-making, problem-solving, communication, and delegation, among numerous others (Hitt and Tucker 2016). There are suggestions that for instructional leadership to be able to realize its full potential, and even for its sustainability, in the long run, it is important to distribute it among other members of the school (Badenhorst and Radile 2018; Harris and DeFlaminis 2016; Shaked 2018). It is evident that most studies on instructional leadership center around bringing forth the role of the principal in bringing around change, school effectiveness, and improving academic achievement (Sebastian and Allensworth 2012). The important role of other educational leaders, namely teachers and middle leaders in managing the educational achievement of the school is largely ignored.

Distributed Leadership

The idea of instructional leadership has been around for decades and is still among the most popular leadership models (Gumus et al. 2018; Hallinger et al. 2020) for its emphasis on instructional effectiveness. However, instructional leadership, with all its perceived benefits and popularity, is often criticized for being centered around a singular heroic leader, resulting in a 'new wave' of critical leadership conceptualization, encompassing ideas of shared and collective leadership, which focuses more on leadership as a practice rather than as a person (Alvesson and Deetz 2021; Evans 2022). Just like instructional leadership, distributed leadership model has also been widely used riding on its strength of the decentralized leadership concept (Murphy and Brennan 2022).

Scholars have used the concept of shared leadership, collective leadership, team leadership, and distributed leadership interchangeably, among the variety of ways in which practices of collaborative leadership is perceived (Day et al. 2020; Browne-Ferrigno and Björk 2018). Such leadership models have been described in several different ways, such as dispersed, collaborative, democratic, collective, distributed, and co-leadership. Despite significant theoretical disagreements, variations, and ambiguities, shared leadership and distributed leadership have emerged as the two strong conceptual models in response to the top-down leadership constructions (Day et al. 2020; Hickey et al. 2022; Kukenberger and D'Innocenzo 2020). Whether shared or distributed, nonetheless such a leadership upsurges prospects for the educational institutions to profit from the collective capacities of all its team members, allows members to leverage the array of their fortes and advances among institutional

members, and a greater appreciation of collaboration and cooperation (Westberry 2022) as well as a sense of how individual members contribute towards institutional development as a whole.

As a 'post-heroic' leadership model, distributed leadership has gained tremendous popularity. The primary reason for its success could be attributed to its focus on the systemic perspective of leadership rather than on the traits and behaviors or styles of leadership. From the systemic perspective, the responsibilities generally associated with leadership is not associated with a formal leadership role but interspersed across people from all levels of the organization (Brown et al. 2020). This provides more members of the organization with a chance to contribute towards providing input for organizational goals and their achievement. This model perceives leadership as a collaborative process between multiple actors within an organization (Murphy and Brennan 2022). It arises from various forms of social interaction of individuals within the organisation in a way wherein the line between leaders and followers is often blurred. The leadership function is dynamic and individuals that assume a leadership position on one occasion may become followers on another (Tariq 2022). Bennett et al. (2003) conceptualize distributed leadership as:

> Distributed leadership is not something 'done' by an individual 'to' others, or a set of individual actions through which people contribute to a group or organization... [it] is a group activity that works through and within relationships, rather than individual action. (p. 3)

According to Leithwood and Jantzi (2009), distributed leadership could be perceived from a normative perspective, and is concerned more with its implementation mechanics to extract maximum benefit out of it, mostly in terms of enhanced academic achievement of students. In its simplest form, distributed leadership could be perceived as the leadership actions of two or more members of an organization, striving to achieve a common institutional goal. It is often thought, mistakenly, that task distribution is an essential aspect of distributed leadership. There is more to distributed leadership than delegation of task distribution, it is more centered around how leaders, followers, and the situation work together in tandem to lead in a collaborative manner (Murphy and Brennan 2022; Torrance 2013).

Distributed leadership is not a stand-alone method or tactic; it is a vehicle through which to implement leadership actions. While distributed leadership is one of the most prominent leadership models in the field of educational leadership, it is worthwhile to note that it is not the only model to call for collective leadership within an institution. The 'shared leadership' model (Covey et al. 2014), the 'collective leadership' (Bernhardt 2013), and the 'collaborative leadership' model (Kramer and Crespy 2011), are also at the forefront of debunking the concept of 'heroic' leadership to a more collective leadership identity. The central idea of all these models is the claim that leadership is not limited to just one charismatic leader at the helm but is often distributed among the members of an organization.

Scholars have determined that a more distributed structure of leadership within an educational institution provides greater benefits in terms of learning outcomes. The distributed form of leadership appears in most contemporary policy initiatives

for educational leaders around the world (García-Carreño 2021; Liu 2020; Printy and Liu 2021), however, critiques are quick to point out few apparent implementation issues (Bush 2018; Ho and Ng 2017). There is vast literature on distributed leadership from numerous viewpoints making it difficult to discriminate between what is distributed leadership and what is not. Due to the multiple interpretations of the concept, practitioners and scholars often equate it with other forms of shared leadership making it generally an elusive concept that could be construed in several ways (Hickey et al. 2022).

Distributed Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership and distributed leadership remain among the two most widely used leadership constructs based on the wealth of benefits they provide. The emerging conceptualization of distributed instructional leadership builds upon the individual strengths of both these constructs, thus minimizing the weaknesses and providing clarity and strength to educational leadership practices within educational institutions. Badenhorst and Radile (2018) explored the effects of distributed instructional leadership on the educational outcomes of TVET colleges and found positive outcomes. Drawing upon the evidence from distributed cognition, Halverson and Clifford (2013) explored this model as an approach to exploring high school learning environments.

The idea of distributed instructional leadership is still in its infancy and there is hardly any research that explores this phenomenon, particularly in school settings. However, several studies have explored the combined effects of two prominent leadership models, distributed leadership and instructional leadership. For example, Liu et al. (2021) explored the combined effects of instructional leadership and distributed leadership on teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction and found significant effects through the mediating role of supportive school culture and collaboration. Employing the Comprehensive Assessment of Leadership Learning (CALL) survey, Gedik and Bellibas (2015) compared the outcomes of distributed instructional leadership between elementary school and secondary school. They found that the model was equally effective for both schools except for the factor related to the monitoring of teaching and learning. This emphasizes the effectiveness of distributed instructional leadership for both elementary schools and secondary schools.

Recent literature synthesis reveals that distributing instructional leadership in an educational institution constructs an organizational culture that supports effective teaching and learning resulting in improved learning outcomes (Leithwood et al. 2020). Distributed instructional leadership builds, supports, and makes use of the instructional leadership capabilities of other members of the school community (Harris 2012, 2013) without rendering the formal leadership structures in the institution redundant or unnecessary. While to date, no formal definition of distributed instructional leadership exists, it could be conceived as a practice of formal educational leadership within an institution to engage the instructional leadership capacities

and skills of other members of the educational institution for greater instructional. It utilizes the strengths of distributed forms of leadership for sharing instructional leadership tasks (Lee et al. 2012; Vlachadi and Ferla 2013).

Sharing and Distributing Instructional Leadership

One of the biggest criticisms of instructional leadership is its nature of being a heroic leadership model (Fleming et al. 2018; Schweiger et al. 2020). Instructional leaders are supposed to set school vision, mission, and goals, ensure that the school community is aware of these, plan and implement curriculum, monitor classroom instruction, supervise the academic progress of students, supervise staffing, provide motivation to staff and students, plan instructional time, manage resources, develop teachers and staff members as well as several other related activities. There is no surprise then that school leaders are often criticized for not being fully instructional leaders in their schools. Principal leadership is regarded as the second most important influence on student achievement which explains why most attention on school leadership scholarship is focused on the school principals (Liu et al. 2021), disregarding the role of other members of the school community.

Several recent studies, however, provide strong evidence that leadership is more effective when it is shared with other members of the school (Cobanoglu 2021, p. 327), and is more likely to produce positive outcomes if the members of the school community share a common vision, collaborate, show collegiality and work together towards achieving their collective goals (Bickmore and Davenport 2019; Day et al. 2020). Educational leadership today is beset with complexity and ambiguity along with increasing accountability, demands of collaboration, and interdependency calling for immediate adaptive challenges (Dulude and Milley 2021). Divergent expectations and demands of specific and varied skills have made the task of educational leadership beyond the capabilities of one 'heroic' leader, which has led to the idea of leadership that is collaborative, shared, collective or distributive which could provide a solution to many issues. The task of a school leader is expected to become even more complex to meet the demands of the twenty-first century, thus a distributive form of instructional leadership is required to lead the schools successfully.

The 'SHARE' Model of Distributed Instructional Leadership

While it is clear that distributed instructional leadership within an educational institution shows promise, it also raises the issue of its proper implementation. While at the center of instructional leadership is a formal leader (Alvesson and Deetz 2021;

Fig. 3.1 The SHARE model of distributed instructional leadership

Evans 2022), distributed leadership also requires formal leadership structures in place (Harris 2012; 2013). Thus, it is apparent that it becomes the responsibility of formal leadership structures within an educational institution to effectively implement distributed instructional leadership. Unfortunately, to date, there is no formal implementation model for educational leaders to use as a guide.

Therefore, referring to the literature on effective leadership practices, we propose an implementation model that would enhance the strengths of both instructional leadership and distributed leadership and would enable formal leadership structures within an educational institution to successfully implement distributed instructional leadership. The model, called the SHARE model, comprises five essential components—Steward, Harmonize, Abdicate, Reflect and Empower (Fig. 3.1).

Steward

Drawing from literature, Hernandez (2008) defines stewardship as the attitudes and behaviors which put the interests of other members of the institution before the personal objectives and individual's self-interests. Being a steward implies that the ultimate "purpose of one's work is others and not self…that leaders do what they do for something larger than themselves…that their life's work may be the ability

to lead but the final goal of this talent is other directed" (Senge 1990, pp. 345–352). Several scholars have perceived an effective instructional leader as a steward to guide the school community toward common goals (Liang and Sandmann 2015). Educational leaders hold a significant amount of influence over teachers and other members of the school community (Rechsteiner et al. 2022). As a steward, instructional leaders inspire their followers, fostering a sense of individual accountability for the lasting well-being of their educational institution (Bakker et al. 2022). They are influential on account of their vision, beliefs, and veracity, in addition to their capacity to comprehend and relate this vision with that of the other members of the school community (Hallinger et al. 2018). As the chief steward, an instructional leader needs to create a learning community wherein other members of the school community (Lewis et al. 2016; Rechsteiner et al. 2022), such as deputies, middle-level managers, and senior teachers are invited to co-create the vision, and, in turn, become stewards themselves by understanding, developing, and implementing the vision throughout the school. To achieve this, leaders, as stewards need to ensure that individuals within their institutions interact well, collaborate, and cooperate to achieve the organizational goals (Churchill et al. n.d.). As a steward, educational leaders need to hold themselves accountable for all that happens in their institutions although many activities are carried out by other members of the institution.

Harmonize

Leaders' ability to harmonize can best be explained by the example of a musical orchestra. Orchestras are generally directed by a conductor who generally does not play any instruments but directs a sizable instrumental group with so many distinctive and diverse musical instruments. Just like different musical instruments, people in an organization bring with them a variety of skill sets, desires, viewpoints, values, and experiences. When instructional leadership is shared, each member of the team assumes collective responsibility for accomplishing common objectives, and "an emergent property arises... [that allows] the group or collective to accomplish more than an individual could alone" (Chrispeels 2004, p. 5). However, merely sharing leadership responsibilities does not automatically create a shared learning environment (Levine 2011), it requires leaders to be cognizant and continue creating harmony between differential skills, knowledge, and aptitude of people who share leadership to create conducive cultural conditions (DuFour and Marzano 2011). Harmonizing differences between the members in a shared leadership setup positively affects results through the creation of positive relationship structures among members, breaching barriers that impede reciprocal collaboration, and resources which eventually leads to improved instruction and learning outcomes (Ali et al. 2020; Baird and Benson 2022; Nazarpoori 2017). Distributed instructional leadership requires harmonizing a variety of formal and informal roles such as department head, academic supervisors, peer mentors, or teacher trainers (Katzenmeyer and Moller 2009). According to Halverson and Clifford (2013), leaders themselves

operate on two different planes that require harmonization. On one hand, they need to deal with the leading ecosystem which consists of the policies, roles, objectives, budgeting, scheduling, and similar tasks while on the other hand, they create a supporting environment, monitoring strategies, mentoring, coaching, and providing inspiration (Halverson and Clifford 2013).

Abdicate

Leadership is generally considered a position of power in an organization. While distributed leadership is recognized as a model wherein leadership tasks are shared, the question of power finds little attention, if at all, in scholarly discourses and literature. There are few superficial references such as when Harris (2003, p. 75) calls for a 'redistribution of power' or MacBeath et al. (2004, p. 15) describe distribution as 'the essential notion of relinquishing power and ceding control to others'. It is surprising that a vast majority of literature overlooks the central issue of problematizing power and how it is central to any discussion of distributing or sharing leadership (Lumby 2013). The centrality of the position of power is real and cannot be wished away since workers are not disembodied and they function within an intricate composition of power within an institution that hinders and facilitates their capacities to lead (Lumby 2013). For instructional leadership to be distributed in any real sense, first and foremost, the formal leader needs to relinquish the perceived power that comes with the position. The literal meaning of abdication is to completely renounce, however in this context it does not imply that the leaders should step down from their leadership positions but to enable structures within their institutions that promote a shared leadership culture without the perception of a single power center within the organization. It is more of an abdication of power than the position.

Reflect

Reflection in educational pedagogy is a notion denoting an incessant process from an individual standpoint, by reflecting upon critical incidents from one's experiences (Baxter et al. 2021; Msila 2021). Critical reflection is a skill that facilitates leaders to re-examine their own beliefs, behaviors, and actions to have a better understanding of the nature of their work and improve their future actions (Reardon et al. 2019). Like the issue of power is largely absent from leadership discourses, there is a paucity of quality discussions on the role of reflection in effective instructional leadership as well. Reflection is an ability to test ideas and make connections between ostensibly distinct experiences, which is a crucial factor for success. With a team sharing leadership activities in an institution, it becomes an endeavor to create collective insights for learning rather than attempts to fix problems or blame for things that did not go well. Edmondson (2003) claims that reflection is an indispensable element of the

team learning process and that the positional leader's reflective behavior encourages reflective behaviors among the team members as well. When instructional leadership is distributed among the members, each member is encouraged by the positional leader to indulge in reflective practices and bring forth their ideas for discussion. Capacity building is the bedrock of any leadership. Reflection is critical to cooperation and teamwork, as Argyris (1991) claims, "each individual encourages the other to question his reasoning. And in turn, everyone understood the act of questioning not as a sign of mistrust or invasion of privacy but as a valuable opportunity for learning" (p. 108).

Empower

Wassenaar and Pearce (2012, p. 367) pointed out "that empowerment is a critical and necessary component for the development of shared leadership in a group." Successful instructional leaders are no longer merely site-based managers (Hallinger and Lee 2013) but share leadership responsibilities with other members of their institution (Huang et al. 2012). They empower members of their team to take important responsibilities wherein others take on a broad range of instructional leadership tasks and play key roles in reform endeavors within their institutions (Reid et al. 2022). It needs to be reiterated that sharing instructional leadership by empowering others does not remove the presence of a formal, positional leader (Reid et al. 2022), however since distributed leadership depends on responsibilities being shared among team members, the positional leader takes the responsibility of fostering leadership initiatives among team members through empowerment. By empowerment, an instructional leader encourages other members of the team to set goals, accept responsibilities, and work with each other (Munna 2023; Reid et al. 2022) and become self-directing and autonomous, instead of controlling and directing them.

Conclusion

Distributed Instructional leadership is a relatively new conceptualization of educational leadership, emanating from the new wave of leadership that has attracted the attention of researchers recently. It builds and enhances the strengths of the most widely used leadership construct, instructional leadership, by moving away from a person-centered leadership concept to a more distributed form of leadership wherein the formal leadership structure within an educational institution utilizes the instructional leadership capabilities of other members of the institution to amplify the instructional practices and thereby sharing the instructional responsibilities. It utilizes the strengths of distributed forms of leadership for sharing instructional leadership tasks. The SHARE model, as proposed here provides a pathway for the

successful implementation of distributed instructional leadership within an educational institution. The model comprises five essential components, namely, Steward, Harmonize, Abdicate, Reflect and Empower. When effectively used by the formal leadership structures, these components could potentially provide a more effective and distributed form of instructional leadership within any educational institution thereby enhancing the instructional program with better educational outcomes.

The idea of Distributed Instructional leadership is still in its infancy stage and requires extensive conceptual, theoretical, and practical exploration in multiple contexts. There are still definition shortcomings and the efficacy of its implementation is not widely known. Nonetheless, it has great potential, and as more and more researchers and practitioners delve into it, a robust framework will soon emerge together with robust theoretical grounding, and could become an effective educational leadership model for educational institutions.

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Chapter 4
Authentic and Moral Leadership Practices in Schools

Lokman Mohd Tahir, Siti Nisrin Mohd Anis, and Mohd Fadzli Ali

Introduction

Educational leaders are held responsible for the effectiveness and improvement processes of their schools (Adams et al. 2021; Ng 2015; Dutta and Sahney 2016; Drace 2019; Lynch et al. 2022). In fact, they are also held responsible for the school's change and transformation processes which lead to academic achievement (Duignan 2012). As asserted by Stynes and McNamara (2019), school leaders need to devote their fullest capacities, dedication, and moral commitment to providing leadership even to the detriment of their own work-life balance, health and well-being. Furthermore, as educational leaders, they have to ensure the beliefs, values and norms of their schools are understood and shared among all staff (Adams and Velarde 2021; Bush and Middlewood 2013; Drace 2019).

In discussing these accountabilities, the role of authentic and moral leadership is believed to provide suitable leadership models that can help educational leaders achieve their educational purpose, vision, and goals (Thien et al. 2022). These leadership paradigms, though unique in their focus, share a symbiotic relationship that enriches our understanding of effective leadership. Authentic leadership underscores the importance of genuineness, self-awareness, and transparency in leaders, while moral leadership emphasizes the ethical principles guiding leadership decisions. By comparing these leadership types, this chapter will provide a comprehensive view of how a leader's authenticity enhances the application of moral principles, creating a holistic approach to effective leadership practices (Mooney Simmie and Sheehan 2022). It highlights how a leader's character, values, and ethical decision-making

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navigates complex leadership challenges while staying true to one's authentic self. Thus, the discussions in this chapter are divided into four major sub-sections: the definitions, suitable models and characteristics related to both models of leadership, comparing the authentic with moral leadership, and the final section elaborates on the applicability of both models from an educational perspective.

Authentic Leadership

In the authentic philosophy, authentic leadership theory was derived from the Greek word '*authentikos*' which possibly arises from an understanding of organisational environments based on a leader's own experiences, beliefs, and truths (Karadag and Oztekin-Bayir 2018). In defining authentic leadership, Yukl (2010) affirmed that such definitions mainly focused on the importance of consistency in words, actions, and values. Thus, authentic leaders are seen as being extremely alert to how they think and perform to demonstrate their own values, perspectives, and strengths to others. Furthermore, through authentic leadership, leaders also exhibit their self-awareness and commitment to their values and goals (Berkovich and Gueta 2022).

Within the school leadership perspective, the study of authentic leadership arose within the educational literature in the late 1990s and early 2000s (Berkovich and Gueta 2022). As with the business sector, an authentic leadership perspective within the conceptualisation of school leadership is defined as educational leaders who strongly emphasise the element of value or value-based leadership (Berkovich and Gueta 2022). This definition was later supported by Duignan (2014) who defined authentic leadership as school leaders who practise authentic leadership and emphasise the elements of integrity, moral purpose and ethical attitudes which positively affect teachers' awareness and commitment. Thus, these leaders need to feel confident, hopeful, optimistic, and resilient whilst demonstrating a high moral personality. Based on this definition, it is assumed that authentic leadership presents a leader's positive values and self-awareness that enable him/her to build positive relationships with their followers (Karadag and Oztekin-Bayir 2018). In addition, Kernis and Goldman (2006) had conceptualised the authentic leadership model from four major standpoints: (a) awareness—depending on an individual's own thoughts, feelings and values; (b) unbiased processing—acknowledging positive and negative aspects without prejudice; (c) behaviour—pleasing others, and (d) relational orientation—being honest in relationships.

Further, Gardner et al. (2005) conceptualised the authentic leadership model as a process that combined the leader's psychological abilities alongside organisational development. Thus, it also considers optimal personal self-esteem as being genuine, true, consistent, and congruent (Kernis 2003). However, George (2003) theorised that authentic leadership as a process for improving their followers' performance helped by a leader using the strengths of his/her leadership approach. In addition, it is also believed that positive change can be implemented through power-sharing based on an individual's qualities of heart, passion (desire) and compassion (George

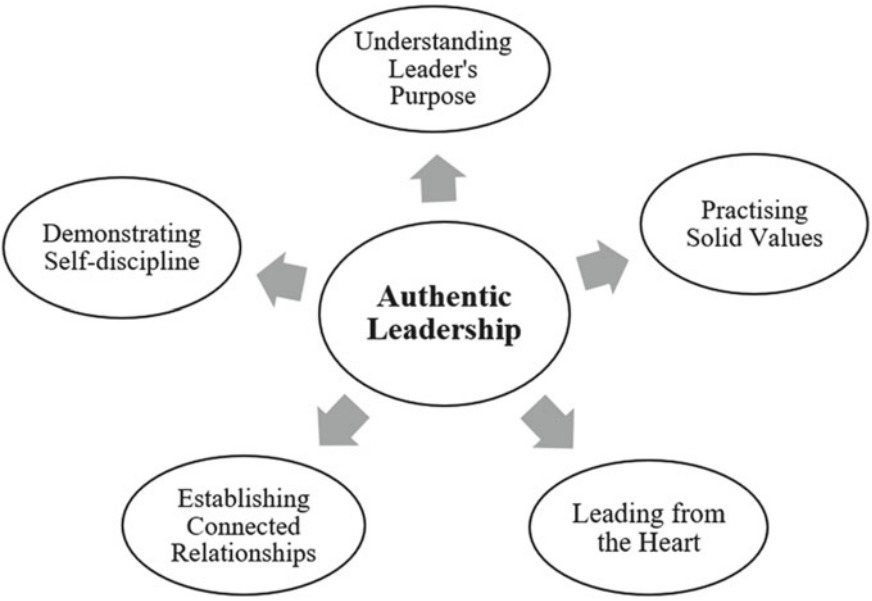

Fig. 4.1 George's (2003) model of authentic leadership

2003). In explaining his model, George (2003) listed five dimensions or qualities that should be practised by leaders. These are: understanding the leader's purpose, practising solid values, leading from the heart, establishing connected relationships and, finally, demonstrating self-discipline. Figure 4.1 depicts these five dimensions of the model of authentic leadership which need to be developed during leaders' leadership journeys in order to transform themselves into authentic leaders.

In the element of *understand their purpose for leading*, leaders must understand their passion to be a leader. Furthermore, as a leader, they must also try to ensure that the organisational environment fits their goals and purposes. This is related with the element of patience when leaders who are interested in what they practise have an intrinsic motivation and care about the tasks that they perform (Northouse 2016). This implies that leaders must be ready to serve their followers with an open mind, sincerity, and a passion for enabling others to develop. Second, the attribute of *practising solid values* emphasises leaders' capacity to define their values and characters which they initially developed through experience and consultation with others. Thus, leaders need to practise integrity such as telling the truth, sharing their values, and acting in accordance with these values.

Third, the attribute of *leading from the heart* signifies that leader must be able to win their followers' hearts and passions through openness and sharing thereby giving them a sense of belonging. In doing so, authentic leaders must be sensitive to the needs of others and be willing to help their followers whilst, at the same time, always thinking about how to reduce the load on their followers. Fourth, the *establishing connected relationships* attribute denotes the practice of engendering a

sense of belonging and winning the hearts of their followers by establishing shared positive relationships which will develop the trust element within the context of an organisation. Thus, leaders need to share their experiences and also listen to those of others. The last attribute is *demonstrating self-discipline*. Through self-discipline and in order to gain their followers' respect, authentic leaders will demonstrate their values through their actions and act in line with the goals they set (Northouse 2016). Leading with purpose, understanding and values helps shape an individual's leadership approach which later creates organisational effectiveness and acceptance as an authentic leader (George 2003).

In the context of school leadership, school principals remain as the school leaders that inspire teachers and students to excellence which improves their performance and later enhances a school's academic achievements (Duignan 2012). As authentic leaders in schools, principals need to support and inspire their followers by advocating psychological factors such as motivation, trust, hope and resilience.

In this sense, Shamir and Eilam (2005) defined an authentic leader as: (a) an individual who demonstrates honesty and trustworthiness so as not to betray the trust and responsibilities that are given to him/her; (b) has no other interests other than those which benefit his/her organisation for which they will later be accountable; (c) truly capable of leading in the way in which he/she believes and (d) acts in accordance with what he/she has said.

In an effort to understand what constitutes authentic leadership, Walumbwa et al. (2008) provides the conceptual underpinnings for their recent authentic leadership model. First, it builds on social psychology theory which explains how individuals build reciprocation and establish positive relationships based on the element of trust (Farid et al. 2020). The second aspect within this model focuses on the central role of an internalised moral perspective and its development based on leaders' values and perspectives (George 2003). Working from a developmental perspective, Walumbwa et al. (2008) proposed a model of authentic leadership based on a premise that authentic leadership can be developed over a lifetime. In this sense, they clarify the use of four components in describing authentic leadership: (a) self-awareness, (b) relational transparency, (c) balanced processing and (d) an internalised moral perspective as in Fig. 4.2.

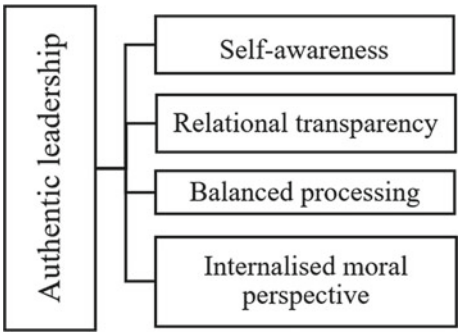

Fig. 4.2 Walumbwa et al.'s (2008) authentic leadership model

This model emphasises that self-awareness as a leader and a follower includes such values as identity, emotions, goals and motives (Northouse 2016). Moreover, this model also draws attention to the relationship between a follower's trust, engagement, and wellbeing (Walumbwa et al. 2008; Ashbihani 2013). From Walumbwa et al. (2008), the elements or constructs for authentic leadership are listed below:

- Self-awareness—with this, leaders will show how they perceive the world, and their perceptions give meaning which impacts on the way they understand things including their own strengths, weaknesses, and self-limitations. It also encompasses knowledge and belief in a leader's thoughts, feelings, motives, and values in which it is their duty to express to their followers. Thus, decision-making should be based on the leader's own values and the acceptance of responsibility for making mistakes (Walumbwa et al. 2008; Ashbihani 2013).
- Relational transparency—in making a positive relationship with their followers, leaders should be transparent, confident, and direct. Thus, they have to express themselves within the conditions of their environment (Lynch et al. 2022). In this element, leaders should have an open mind and express trust through information-sharing and expression of feelings.
- Balanced processing—authentic leaders are categorised as people capable of giving their opinions and defending them if the decisions have implications for themselves and their followers. In addition, it focuses on sincerity and earnestness in obtaining opinions and ideas (Müceldili et al. 2013; Lynch et al. 2022).
- Internalised moral perspective—authentic leaders are well-behaved individuals and should be able to demonstrate attitudes and behaviours congruent with their beliefs and values. In making decisions, high standards of ethical practice are favoured. Indirectly, leaders will be guided by their internal moral values and behaviours (Srivastava and Dhar 2019; Walumbwa et al. 2008).

Authentic leadership research in schools is limited and understudied (Lynch et al. 2022). This arose from a lack of systematic and meta-analytical reviews of authentic leadership research (Bush et al. 2018). Based on the findings of Lynch et al. (2022), it was asserted that principals are frequently practising authentic leadership after critical evaluation and examination of the issue within their decision-making processes. In addition, principals are seen to practise flexibility as well as open to discussions and opinions from teachers and stakeholders, considering options and evaluating the information before making any decision. Similarly, they were seen as leading with honesty and always made clear their preferences and moral values.

Based on previous perspective, it is stressed that authentic leadership practice is considered as a leadership style or behaviour that advocates positive psychology as well as a healthy organisational environment (Duignan 2014; Berkovich and Gueta 2022). Thus, a leader must be able to influence self-awareness, demonstrate balance in processing information and have an appreciation of moral values and transparency in relationships. This will later encourage a positive process of self-growth among his/her followers. As such, Yukl (2010) asserts that authentic leadership comes from a leader who is self-aware; who follows their beliefs, values and emotions; self-identity

and abilities. In addition, he/she is also open to any ideas and opinions whilst learning from mistakes and feedback.

Moral Leadership

As for moral leadership, in explaining the definition of 'moral', Rhode (2006) wrote that the word 'morality' is derived from the Latin word *mores*—being defined as character, custom or habit. It is assumed that the words 'ethics' and 'moral' share the same definition or principles referring to prescriptive rules or principles of action (Arar and Saiti 2022). Therefore, moral leadership is concerned with a leader's embedded actions and activities while leading their institutions while taking into consideration their personal code of ethics and different paradigms (Shapiro and Stefkovich 2016; Mooney Simmie and Sheehan 2022). In education, Brown and Treviño (2006) defined moral leadership as a double process involving personal behaviour and moral influence. Thus, it is essential to know the influence of values, beliefs, and ethics as elements within moral leadership that inform the practice of school leadership, especially in decision-making (Bush 2007; Mooney Simmie and Sheehan 2022). In this sense, moral leadership theory can be studied using the elements of authority and influence which were derived from the basic concept of practising something that is right or good (Leithwood et al. 1999) or linked with an ethical endeavour (Lowery 2020). As for others, the practice of morality is strongly related to judgements, decisions and actions practised by educational leaders (Lowery 2020; Jenlink 2014).

In the context of school leadership, Lowery (2020) asserts that it is quite difficult to separate morality from ethics because school leaders usually embrace a moral framework in making decisions which also involves ethical dimensions or paradigms. Likewise, Greenfield (1985) explained that moral leadership is a positive interaction between leaders and followers which refers to the leaders' actions, and the congruency between actions and organisational values. In the same way, moral leadership has also been defined as a leadership process in which leaders are able to fulfil their accountabilities by sharing their followers' aspirations, needs and values (Shapiro and Stefkovich 2016; Owens and Valesky 2011). In addition, Sergiovanni (1992) defined moral leadership as a process by which a school leader is trying to motivate, inspire and stimulate his/her teachers' potential and finally establish a framework for virtuous school leadership.

The concept of moral leadership was initially explored almost 20 years ago (Greenfield 2004) and has attracted much interest among leadership researchers (Bedi et al. 2016). Hence, in schools, principals who play their role as a moral agency base their actions on two major approaches: (a) their attitudes in decision-making and how they process issues consistent with their professional ethics and (b) how they behave, act, and show interest based on their daily routines and schedules (Cherkowski et al. 2015).

In demonstrating ethical and moral practices, organisational leaders can be seen to be positively following the social values and norms that they advocate so that their behaviour strongly influences that of their followers by encouraging commitment, a sense of belonging and empowerment (Tuan 2018). According to Hanson (2006), it is quite difficult to identify the characteristics of global moral leaders. Thus, he suggested four possible characteristics which can later be used to support future investigations: (a) have a high commitment to establish values that transcend a single culture or nation; (b) emphasise key moral values that can be enacted; (c) be capable of articulating and promoting such values, even when he/she is sick; (d) use their communication and other skills in promoting these values effectively.

In his book, Sergiovanni (1992) believed that the moral element should be the basis for school leadership practice. Thus, in performing their duties, principals need to use morality as the significant basis for carrying out their leadership duties. In addition, moral leadership can also be conceptualised as leaders behaving in ways that share their personal and organizational values with those around them. Moreover, these ideas are derived from a coherent ethical system relevant to schools (Bafadal et al. 2021). To practise moral leadership, there are three major assumptions: (a) schools are treated as professional learning communities, (b) communities are defined by the essentials of shared values, beliefs, and commitments and (c) things and actions that are right and good are considered as important because people are truly motivated as much by their emotions and beliefs as by self-interest with collegiality being seen as a professional virtue. Thus, in practising moral leadership, school leaders can employ leadership strategies such as: (a) identify and make explicit the values and beliefs that define the school as a community; (b) translate them into informal norms which later govern behaviour; (c) promote collegiality as morally-driven interdependence; (d) rely on the ability of the community members to respond to duties and obligations; (e) rely on the community's informal norms to enhance professional and community values.

Comparing Authentic and Moral Leadership

In this section, the characteristics of the two major leadership models—authentic leadership and moral leadership—are compared. In determining the similarities, the comparison will focus on the intersecting features and characteristics of the two models. The differences, characteristics and facets which are not similar are also examined. Examining the intersecting and non-overlapping elements of the two leadership models are extricate from the references of the previous literature by Brown and Treviño (2006), Avolio and Gardner (2005) and Walumbwa et al. (2008). The comparison between authentic leadership and moral leadership is presented in Table 4.1.

In general, both models highlight and emphasise the values and norms shared by leaders and followers, which indicates that these shared values and norms must be well accepted by the followers. Second, both models are highly concerned with

Table 4.1 Similarities and differences between authentic leadership and moral leadership

Similarities	Differences
• Both models emphasise organisational leaders sharing norms and values with their followers • Both models are concerned with their followers (altruism) • Both models focus on internalised moral perspectives • Decisions are made based on ethical considerations, which benefits the organisation, followers, and leaders • Both emphasise the element of integrity • Leaders are role models of positive behaviours to their followers	• Moral leadership emphasises the importance of an organisational leader having high ethical and moral standards such as honesty, integrity, and openness • Authentic leadership focuses on how leaders should practise what seems best to them • Moral leadership is part of a leadership agenda by communicating leaders' values and modelling ethical/moral behaviours • The four elements of authentic leadership: self-awareness, relational transparency, internalised moral perspective, and balanced processing are not facets within the constructs of moral/ethical leadership

the element of altruism. Third, both models stress the importance of practising the element of internalised morality (Lynch et al. 2022). Fourth, all decisions should be made based on moral perspectives, which later benefits all organisational members (Mooney Simmie and Sheehan 2022). Fifth, integrity is the foremost aspect of both models and, lastly, school leaders are positive role models for their followers (Hanson 2006).

In assessing differences, moral leadership strongly focuses on the importance of demonstrating high levels of morality such as honesty, integrity, and openness (Sergiovanni 1992) while authentic leadership focuses on how leaders should put into practice what seems best to them. Second, moral leadership is part of an agenda-based leader's values and models their ethical/moral behaviours (Mooney Simmie and Sheehan 2022) As for authentic leadership—self-awareness, relational transparency, internalised moral perspective and balanced processing—are not facets within the constructs of moral/ethical leadership (Walumbwa et al. 2008).

Studies on Authentic Leadership

Some notable studies examining school leaders' authentic leadership practices have been published. This has happened because they have a similar effect to ethical leadership practices or behaviours (Lowery 2020). In fact, authentic leadership has also been employed as an antecedent for psychological variables such as job satisfaction, commitment, and school culture. In terms of popularity, authentic leadership models have received wide attention and study in various educational systems such as Turkey (Karadag and Oztekin-Bayir 2018), Ghana and New Zealand (Owusu-Bempah et al. 2014), and Malaysia (Saffardin and Mydin 2019).

In Turkey, Karadag and Oztekin-Bayir (2018) studied school principals' authentic leadership practices. Using the Walumbwa et al. (2008) model (self-awareness, transparency in relations, balanced processing, and internalised moral perspective), it was found that authentic leadership by school principals had a significant impact on school culture. Similarly, a quantitative study conducted by Owusu-Bempah et al. (2014) disclosed that principals' authentic leadership practices had a positive effect and strong influence on school culture according to teachers from Ghana and New Zealand schools.

In examining teachers' authentic leadership practice, Berkovich and Gueta (2022) disclosed that teachers are capable of practising authentic leadership with their students which leads to good and effective teaching based on teachers' authenticity and self-awareness. In addition, teachers' authentic leadership also emphasised that the elements of integrity, moral purpose and ethical conduct have positive influences on students which enable their human spirit to soar within a climate that satisfies their psychological needs. In Malaysia, Saffardin and Mydin (2019) examined authentic leadership practices among private pre-school education centre leaders. Based on the perspectives of 200 teachers, self-awareness was named as the most practised aspect of authentic leadership. Earlier, Ashbihani (2013) had conducted a study that linked principals' authentic leadership with teachers' commitment in a secondary school context. Based on perceptions from 156 teachers, it was revealed that secondary principals had frequently practised the element of self-awareness which significantly influenced the commitment of secondary teachers.

Studies on Moral Leadership

The literature review suggests that there are few studies conducted on moral leadership especially within the local Malaysian context of education compared to studies cited from abroad. However, there are studies listed that explore the practice of moral leadership from an education leadership perspective.

In Irish primary education, Mooney Simmie and Sheehan (2022) asserted that primary principals had emphasised a servant-leadership style or moral leadership preferences which were commensurate with the ethos of their communitarian Catholic schools, and with no preference expressed for any business-like, scientific, or instrumental construct. As moral leaders, principals strongly emphasised a self-sacrificing, altruistic, and humble-servant leadership style. At the same time, principals were also trying their best to avoid conflict and emphasised a positive relationship with their teachers.

In Canada, Cherkowski et al. (2015) conducted a descriptive study on the roles of 17 principals as a moral agency in schools. The study was conducted based on an ethical responsibility framework which depicts the school principal's role as a moral agent. Findings showed that principals had significant roles as a moral agent to encourage others, especially the school staff, to work for the benefit of the students. Second, principals highlighted that they had faced the reality that only the school

principal could absorb the cost of a decision. Third, moral agents need to be vigilant about the ethical challenges and issues within their daily routines.

Likewise, Lowery (2020) explored moral leadership and literacy among principals in the Appalachian region of Southern Ohio based on their definitions and employed moral literacy in making school decisions related to ethical issues. Based on the findings, it was disclosed that principals defined ethical leadership as a way to bring them together with their followers and how principals understand moral literacy within the context of their own schools. In Malaysia, Ghani et al. (2015) compared the principals' moral leadership practices within the high-performing boarding schools with the MARA Junior Science Colleges (MRSM). Results had indicated a strong correlation or influence between a principal's moral leadership practices and teachers' job satisfaction based on evaluations provided by the selected MRSM teachers.

Barriers in Practicing Moral and Authentic Leadership

Evidently, school leaders' practicing authentic and moral leadership in schools are not without any challenges and barriers. In putting this matter into perspective, Lynch et al. (2022) disclosed two major barriers:

(a) Policy and procedures: Sometimes**,** conflicting personal values and morals among school leaders may result in misalignment. Thus, there needs to be strategic policies and procedures in place.
(b) School culture: School leaders are expected to work based on the culture and values within their schools. However, there are cases where school leaders' social and cultural dynamics are not aligned with the schools' culture. This is common among newly appointed school leaders. Thus, Mercader et al. (2021) strongly suggested that school leaders must clearly communicate their values and morals to all staffs in facilitating a shared set of values and goals within the organisational culture.

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed and discussed the definitions and perspectives of two major leadership models within the context of educational leadership. Thus, we put forth two suggestions: first, we suggest and call for more studies to examine both authentic and moral leadership models within the context of educational leadership in order to provide more evidence of the suitability of these models within local contexts. In addition, to ensure the effectiveness of both models of leadership, it would be better to have more in-depth studies that investigate the effects of both models on followers' (teachers) job satisfaction, commitment, and trust.

Second, Avolio and Gardner's (2005) suggestion that the authentic leadership model should be examined in-depth using moderating effects, such as an organisation's culture and climate on followers' performance should be pursued. They also suggested that future research would be needed to assess leaders' positive psychological traits such as their resilience and optimism about the performance of their followers. To conclude, it is believed that further studies and research are needed in order to provide in-depth explanations of the effects of moral and authentic leadership practices on teachers' psychological needs which lead to their growth and development.

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Chapter 5
Servant Leadership: Operationalising an Oxymoron

Adrian Jarvis

Introduction

While it is a rare leadership theory that does not occasion some controversy and debate, servant leadership has generated more than its fair share (Schroeder 2016). First propounded in the 1970s by Greenleaf (1977)—who based it on his own intuitions and experiences—it has, ever since, remained somewhat conceptually elastic. Even its name has been seen as oxymoronic, bringing together, as it does, two practices—those of servant and leader—that are not an obvious pairing (Ragnarsson et al. 2018). Never settled has been the question of whether or not it should be hyphenated: 'servant-leadership' conveys the notion of leadership in a servant style, whereas 'servant leadership' would be leadership by a servant. When commentators have justified their advocacy of it by reminding their readers that it has been the preferred style of many a religious guru, they have faced criticism for not speaking on the level of managers and executives who are looking for a grounded and readily implementable programme (van Dierendonck 2011).

Compounding the problems are the cultural and moral frames around Greenleaf's ideas. Titled 'The Servant as Leader', his seminal essay (Greenleaf 1977) is specific in its ethical perspective, its chief interest being in how those who identify primarily as servants can be leaders, not with how leaders can adopt the attitudes and approaches of servants. It is axiomatic for Greenleaf—and those who echo his views—that being a servant precedes and predates being a leader (Cerit 2009). Such ideas may come across as novel in the capitalist, competitive and results-driven society of the USA, in which they were developed (Stewart 2012), but, elsewhere, their reception would quite possibly be very different.

Happily, in educational terms, the matter is quickly dealt with, most schools around the world resembling each other in terms of organisation and leadership—or,

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if not, in facing many of the same struggles and challenges (Stewart 2013). Still, the slipperiness of the concept per se cannot be completely ignored. Indeed, its often-cited elements (Stewart 2017) offer a description, but not, in and of themselves, a clear line of demarcation between it and other forms of leadership. Most lists consist of listening skills, empathy, a capacity to heal, awareness, persuasiveness, an ability to conceptualise, foresight, stewardship, a commitment to the growth of others and a focus on building communities (Spears 1998; Crippen and Willows 2019). The major theme of these is that a servant leader has a powerful follower-orientation (Russell and Stone 2002) and a desire to create professional or learning environments based on wellness and trust: 'healing' should be taken literally as indicating a concern for the physical and psychological health of group or organisational members.

Eva et al. (2019) distils the characteristics to their three essential components: motive, mode, and mindset. The first refers to the leader's desire to serve others, the second the individualised nature of such service and the third a willingness to place followers within the context of broader community development. From these, a definition is arrived at that almost entirely disregards the leader's own needs in favour of those of his or her followers. Eliot (2020) suggests that servant leaders are tasked with helping others to grow. Reinke (2004) emphasises stewardship, making of the servant leader a trustee of an organisation, caring for it through service and self-abnegation, if not self-sacrifice. For Blanchard (1998), a servant leader recognises the limits of his or her expertise and empowers followers.

Most definitions are incomplete in their own ways. The streak of idealism in writings on the topic is highly evocative but tends to obscure details about how to operationalise the given features. It could, moreover, be argued that those features are commonplace—what makes them peculiar to servant leadership? Greenleaf (1977) gives little guidance, since, in much of his writing, he talks solely about 'leadership', the 'servant' part being assumed. In finding a suitable definition, that of Canavesi and Minelli (2022) provides a good basis: servant leadership is leadership of which the very purpose is the fulfilment of the needs of followers, customers, and other stakeholders. Such fulfilment is not merely a by-product of other purposes—such as maximising profit or meeting organisational goals—it is the priority for the leader.

Whether, and in what ways, this is applicable to educational settings as a driver for improvement is the substance of this chapter, which begins by considering servant leadership's role in addressing issues facing twenty-first century teachers and learners. It then goes on to look at how the servant approach compares to, and aligns with, other leadership theories. Next comes an examination of servant leadership's current and potential positions within educational organisations. Finally, a model is proposed that will allow for the full operationalisation of servant leadership within schools, colleges, and universities.

Servant Leadership and Twenty-First Century Educational Challenges

Despite its apparent vagueness, servant leadership enjoys growing prominence in the literature, mainly because of the rapidity, and profundity, of the changes through which global education is currently going. Calls for fresh and imaginative thinking are both legion and urgent. According to the OECD (Schleicher 2012), the old order of conformity, memorization and fixed knowledge in learning is giving way to a world in which adaptability, an orientation towards continuous improvement and an ability to negotiate multiple realities are the skill set of the successful pupil, student, or worker. With many of the functions of a traditionally-educated mind outsourced to Google, 'soft' or 'transferable' skills—such as communication and teamworking (Matteson et al. 2016)—are gaining popularity as fixtures on the modern curriculum. Added to this is increasing diversity among learners, necessitating ever-more targeted and personalised educational experiences (Forghani-Arani et al. 2019). Justice in education has come to be seen less as meeting an overall standard, than responding to individual's perceptions of fairness (Kauppila et al. 2022).

Recent writing on servant leadership has attempted to rise to these challenges. Sims (2018), for example, argues that a servant leader should possess 'diversity intelligence'. Proposed as a new and fundamental feature of servant leadership, it resonates with the conventional emphasis on empathy (Bauer et al. 2019) and the requirement for the connective tissue between servant leaders and their followers to include an awareness of cultural and individual contexts, bolstered by meanings co-created and goals mutually met (Abbas et al. 2020). That such a practice promotes in schools and colleges a culture of 'deep learning'—in which emotional healing and reflection are significant parts of the academic mix—has been demonstrated by research (Shafai 2021).

None of this is to suggest that servant leadership is the cure for every ill. Gonaim (2019) has found that servant leaders can be perceived as weak and ineffectual by their followers and that spending time on the needs of individuals delays the attainment of team or organisational goals. Other authors have noted a passivity in servant leaders—to the extent that it is difficult to believe that they would aspire to leadership roles in the first place (Verdorfer 2016). Inconsistencies in the effect of servant leadership on followers have been identified by some studies (Ghasemy et al. 2022).

Perhaps the biggest query is around the basic characteristics of servant leadership, which are more applicable to people than processes and so—as the above referenced sources would seem to indicate—are arguably less concerned with leadership than leaders. Servant leadership can, then, be categorised under philosophy, or attitude of mind, rather than practice (Trompenaars and Voerman 2009). The distinction may seem like a fine one, but it does mean that, when siting servant leadership within education, the focus ought to be on how it can potentially work under, and with, other approaches, enriching them, rather than standing alone as an all-embracing prescription for action in its own right.

Servant Leadership in Context

Servant and Transformational Leadership

In exploring the question of how servant leadership relates to other theories, transformational suggests itself as most relevant (Taylor et al. 2007). The attributes of transformational leadership as usually identified (Ismail 2018)—individualised attention, intellectual stimulation, idealised influence, and inspirational motivation—map well against those of servant leadership (Mehdinezhad and Nouri 2016). Likewise, the requirement for servant leaders to influence others, develop communities and anticipate future directions, finds echoes in the work of transformational leaders. That the success of both servant and transformational leadership is ultimately located in follower motivation (Bush 2003) is an important connection between the two forms.

That said, the differences are surprisingly stark. At the heart of servant leadership is the absence of power, humility filling the resulting gap (Sousa and van Dierendonck 2017). This is not so with the transformational style, which is predicated on the charisma of the leader (Williams et al. 2018). Transformational leadership is also explicitly goal-focused in a way that servant leadership is not. Transformational leadership may well involve followers internalising the vision of a leader (Berkovich 2018), but they do so with a view to bringing about some kind of real-world change or improvement (McCarley et al. 2016). The developmental aspects of servant leadership, on the other hand, are personal, there being no inevitable broader impact (Serrat 2017).

The two types of leaders thus play opposing roles in the building of follower motivation, although that is said with the caveat that psychology as a discipline has largely abandoned simple schemata, treating with caution modifiers such as ‘extrinsic’ and ‘intrinsic’ in conversations about what is now regarded as a complex, protean, condition (Reiss 2012). Even so, transformational leaders should be conceived of as external motivating agents, with a relationship to followers that admits of asymmetry: a follower will respond to transformational leadership as an individual, but the leadership will, in all probability, be presented to a group (Adams et al. 2018). For servant leaders, the role is that of catalyst—through listening and empathising—the motivation coming from within the follower, rather than from the leader’s vision. That servant leadership is a one-to-one relationship is the major enabler of this process (Arain et al. 2019).

Overall, it can be said that the scope for servant leadership to enhance and inform transformational leadership is not as wide as might be expected. If improvement in educational organisations needs to be pushed through by a transformational leader, then it is to be doubted that he or she would optimise their effectiveness by adopting all the features of servant leadership.

Servant and Distributed Leadership

Perhaps a better match for the servant approach would be distributed leadership, especially in its more informal guise (Harris et al. 2019), which has increasingly come to be seen as the *sine qua non* of a well-run school (Hartley 2016). It is, of course, inherent to any hierarchical organisation chart, which represents leadership role-holders at different levels (Jarvis 2021). More prevalently, though, it is evinced by members of an organisation who have no formal authority, but who are able to influence their colleagues through quotidian social and professional interactions (Parker 2015).

Importantly, distributed leadership is to do with interactions between leaders and followers, not the style of an individual leader (Spillane 2006), making of it a workable medium for servant leadership (Van De Mieroop et al. 2020). Distributed leaders do not have to assume a servant mentality, but, for those who do, considerable benefits can accrue. They may, for example, be accepted as role models by their colleagues (Wang et al. 2017). Given this, how servant leadership might inform the work of both role holders in the formal hierarchy of an educational institution and informal distributed leaders is worth examining in more depth.

Servant Leadership for Principals and Teachers

The Servant Principal

As Taylor et al. (2007) argue, there is no necessary contradiction between servant leadership and formal organisational structures. Bringing the two together, however, involves stripping away the power and control mechanisms that are generally the animating forces of a hierarchy (Charalampous and Papademetriou 2021). The servant principal is one who values and develops people in order to build a sense of community. He or she will put others first, behaving authentically, his or her leadership being a genuine expression of him- or herself and open to input and comment from colleagues and followers (Terosky and Reitano 2016). Of the servant leadership features discussed earlier, listening is in prime position here.

Most principals would probably protest that they do this already, but, as with much that pertains to servant leadership, the differences are more those of philosophical stance than practice, the requirement being for principals to think of themselves as servants. This may sound banal, but it is a vital first step, since leadership in any form is intimately bound up with self-identity (Armstrong and McCain 2021). Although a major flaw of servant leadership theory is its proneness to describing what leaders are, not what they do, it would be a mistake to forget that the one entails the other.

It may further be mentioned—legitimately—that principals are appointed to run, and represent, a school or college as an institution and so that is where their loyalty should lie: their trusteeship must be of the culture and traditions of the organisation

with the aim of ensuring that they survive into the future (Bier et al. 2021). In locating the organisation as an entity distinct from the people within it, this contention is counter to servant leadership assumptions.

That is not to say that a servant principal is careless of the organisation as a whole (stewardship is key), but he or she views it through the lens of its members. Acting with a servant mindset, a principal will be less concerned with organisational priorities, policies, rules, and bureaucracy than the welfare of the people that he or she leads (Insley et al. 2016). It is frequently said that leadership is an indirect process (Bush 2010)—a leader realises organisational goals through people—but, with servant leadership, a further remove is added—the leader focuses on helping individuals to realise their goals and those individuals then go on to realise the organisation's goals.

An ancillary benefit is the enhanced job satisfaction that has been found to be a feature of those who work under servant principals (Al-Mahdy et al. 2016; Ghasemy et al. 2022). It must be admitted that most research on job satisfaction has concentrated on transformational leadership, the servant style being ripe for further investigation, but, even so, followers of those principals who have demonstrably adopted a service approach report greater levels of commitment to their schools as organisations and a firmer sense of their own roles than those led in other ways. The servant principal's chief capability is that he or she can create inherent job satisfaction—that which comes from the work, not contingent rewards (Cerit 2009). This is one of a number of reasons why rates of staff retention are relatively high in servant principal environments.

The servant principal behaviours that are cited as most effective in bringing about these outcomes centre on endowing teachers with a sense of purpose that aligns with the school's purpose (as opposed to the principal's purpose). When spoken to persuasively in a non-judgemental way, teachers are prepared to buy in to new initiatives, which they might otherwise resist. They also value personal development and capacity-building opportunities that are distinct from pragmatic organisational requirements. Connected to this is teachers being especially motivated when they feel that their welfare is a matter of concern for their leaders (Terosky and Reitano 2016). Figure 5.1 shows the characteristics of the servant principal.

Servant Teacher Leadership

Another important determinant of job satisfaction among teachers is the engendering, by principals, of collaborative work cultures (Hargreaves 2019). This opens up the possibility of servant leadership occupying more collegial spaces, but, again, notes of caution have to be sounded. Even though distributed leadership has been positioned as compatible with the servant approach, it (like transformational leadership) can be critiqued for ultimately being fixated on organisational effectiveness, rather than personal growth (Cerit 2009). Nonetheless, informal distributed leadership, the

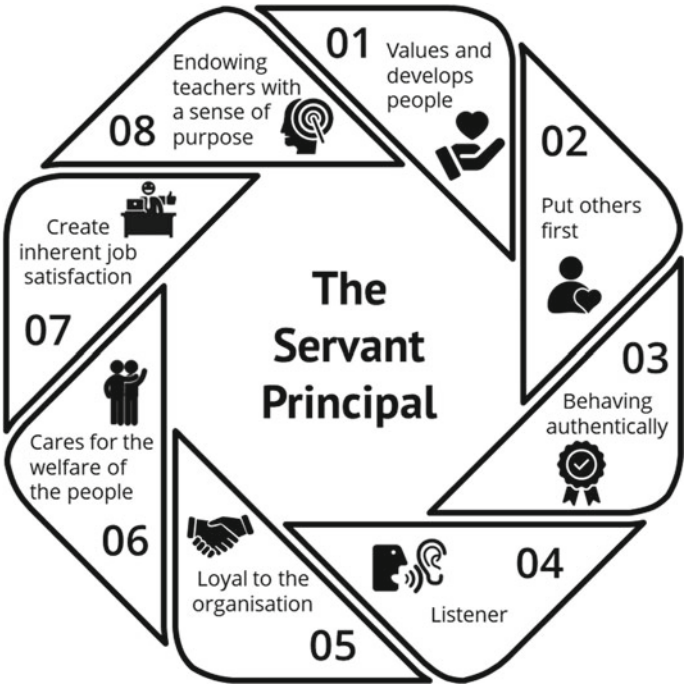

Fig. 5.1 Characteristics of the servant principal

variety that often segues into so-called teacher leadership, can still be promoted as a vehicle for servant leadership within schools.

Unsurprisingly, about teacher leadership there is little consensus in the literature (Ng et al. 2018). Indeed, it is not unknown for articles to be published that use the term without making any attempt to define it (Wenner and Campbell 2017). What most authors do agree on is that it is applicable to members of a school's staff whose main activity is teaching, but who take on leadership roles beyond the classroom with the intention of improving the general quality of teaching and learning, as well as influencing policy and strategy. Whether this is confined to teachers with defined roles—formal or informal—or those who simply offer mentoring, guidance, and support on a peer-to-peer basis, depends upon the author consulted (Stewart 2012).

In that a servant style has the potential to thrive in the presence of leadership distribution, a teacher leadership school offers a highly promising environment for it. Even so, teacher leadership does not differ from any other type of distributed leadership in requiring that it be tolerated, if not mandated, by the top formal leaders (Harris 2010). An essential pre-requisite for servant teacher leadership is a servant principal: any alternative structure is highly unlikely.

Teacher leadership itself can be viewed as hospitable to the servant approach in a number of ways. Firstly, teaching is, by its very nature, a servant leadership enterprise (Bowman 2005). Teachers are leaders in their classrooms with an exclusive

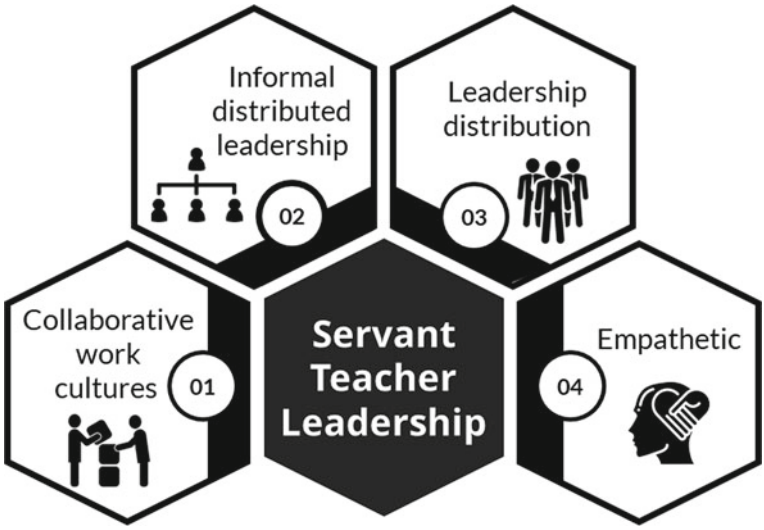

Fig. 5.2 Characteristics of servant teacher leadership

focus on the development and growth of their pupils (Wenner and Campbell 2017). Secondly, informal teacher leadership beyond the classroom is not energised by the position power that goes along with hierarchy-endowed status (Crippen and Willows 2019). Informal teacher leaders are, therefore, obliged to utilise a whole palette of strategies (for example, mentoring less experienced colleagues, working to create the conditions for teaching and learning, networking within and across organisations), most of which bear a striking resemblance to those available to servant leaders. If a teacher leader is to have a beneficial influence on his or her colleagues, then he or she must, for example, be empathetic (Supovitz 2018). Figure 5.2 shows the characteristics of servant teacher leadership.

Teacher leadership would seem to be a sound vehicle by which servant leadership can help to promote school effectiveness and improvement (Noland and Richards 2015), but the problem of how servant leadership would operate on a day-to-day basis has yet to be solved. Having put on the servant mantle, how would a teacher leader affect his or her colleagues and, ultimately, influence pupil outcomes for the better?

Servant Leadership in Action

One possibility is professional learning communities (PLCs), which are a vouched-for means of developing teachers professionally, having been found to make a positive impact in most places where they have been tried (Fuller and Templeton 2019). As Hiatt-Michael (2001) observed, professional learning communities can only work in

an atmosphere of servant leadership because those who lead must be learners along with everyone else.

The nature of PLCs is another area of disagreement among commentators (DuFour et al. 2010). Beyond their involving a move towards collegiality and the prioritisation of learning for constant improvement, nothing like a single definition has emerged (Stoll et al. 2006). For Bell and Bolam (2010), PLCs can and should be a natural part of what a school does. By this logic, a PLC is cultural, involving teachers discussing their experiences, both good and bad, in order to learn from them. As an ongoing methodology, a PLC admits of servant leadership in its implied openness to vulnerability—participants are required to be humble, making of their professional practice a public resource, the better to invoke a spirit of communal sharing.

To others, a PLC is closer to being a specific event or series of events. Hord (2009), for example, describes PLCs as constructivist development opportunities realised through, perhaps, a weekly meeting at which best practices are talked about in an atmosphere of equality and mutual trust. Other examples might be externally provided courses, work based CPD and self-evaluations, all of which forge a bond between structured learning and everyday practice (Stoll et al. 2006).

Either way, a PLC is an avowedly distributive phenomenon, the characteristics of which—in whatever form—overlap to a large degree with those of servant leadership. A PLC is collaborative, a channel for personal and professional development, conceptually based and dependent on its members listening and empathising with each other. It is also, obviously, foresighted in being deliberately constituted as a strategy for improving pupil outcomes (Doğan and Adams 2018). A participant in a PLC seeks to enhance the welfare of others, receiving, in return, the help and guidance of those others.

Admittedly, the marriage between servant leadership and a PLC is not totally harmonious. The former is an ongoing modus operandi, whereas the latter might be more visible in discrete activities. Moreover, the standard objection, that PLCs are goal-orientated and institutional, whereas servant leadership has more diffuse aims and objectives, could be raised. That PLCs have been found to best channel transformational leadership is also worth noting (Voelkel 2022). Notwithstanding any of this, as a practical outlet for the philosophical positions elucidated in servant leadership theory, mutually supportive PLCs represent a good option.

Conclusion

Servant leadership remains profoundly relevant in the twenty-first century due to its alignment with contemporary leadership needs. In an era marked by ethical concerns, servant leadership's emphasis on ethical decision-making and values-driven leadership resonates with modern expectations. It addresses the priorities of today's schools, such as teacher well-being, job satisfaction, and professional development (Al-Mahdy et al. 2016; Ghasemy et al. 2022). Furthermore, servant leadership fosters positive relationship, empathy, and adaptability, crucial qualities that promote school

effectiveness and improvement. Moreover, servant leaders play a vital role in education, preparing students with the skills and values essential for twenty-first-century success, including critical thinking and ethical decision-making (Forghani-Arani et al. 2019).

As attractive as it appears prima facie, servant leadership presents problems to any real-world leader wishing to make it the cornerstone of his or her practice and style (Youngs 2007). Vague associations with morality, authenticity and even 'love' (van Dierendonck 2011) lend the concept charm, but little in the way of a readily graspable set of recommendations for action. The evangelistic tone of much writing on the subject adds complications—it can scarcely be a co-incidence that servant leadership has been enthusiastically taken up by those with an interest in spirituality and faith-based education.

Of course, many criticisms of servant leadership could equally be made of other theories touched on here. Authors have described distributed leadership as no more than a way of 'stretching' leadership within a group or organisation (Spillane 2006). Distributed leaders still have to be transformational, transactional, or instructional. Unfortunately, no manual of how to 'do' transformational leadership, to take one, exists. The only guideline is that it should link to the organisation's larger goals.

A servant leader, it can be proposed, is perfectly capable of filling the same role in relation to distributed leadership, but he or she is even less well provided for as far as practical tips are concerned. In part, this is a natural consequence of servant leadership being positioned unequivocally as leadership rather than management (Kantanen et al. 2015). It is about inspiration and vision, not the nuts and bolts of performing particular tasks. It is geared towards positive change—in which respect, it is not unusual (Leithwood et al. 2008)—but could be clearer as far as bringing it about is concerned. Transformational leadership has the virtue of being supported by a robust body of empirical research: this can still not securely be stated of servant leadership. Many articles about it are largely theoretical and prescriptive; those that report research in professional settings do not always base their conclusions on data gathered using comparable, or provably valid, methodologies (van Dierendonck 2011).

Be that as it may, this chapter has been an attempt to isolate ways in which servant leadership could be useful to teachers and leaders in educational contexts. By alighting on PLCs, it gives one suggestion. PLCs, when properly arranged, allow the flourishing of all forms of distributed leadership, as well as input from the principal, thus playing to servant leadership's strengths. It does need to be stressed that servant leadership is a choice: simply creating a PLC will not spontaneously bring servant leadership into being. However, a PLC does include within it a number of strategies through which the philosophical content of servant leadership theory can be given expression as an approach to maximising educational effectiveness.

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Chapter 6
Inclusive Leadership for Schools: Practices, Challenges, and Future Directions

Donnie Adams, Shaheera Hussain, and King Lok Tan

Introduction

Numerous scholars in the field of educational leadership and management have developed an earnest interest in understanding the influence of school leadership on student achievement (Özdemir et al. 2022). Researchers have reported both direct (Gümüş et al. 2021) and indirect (Leithwood et al. 2020) influences of these leadership practices on student achievement. A conclusion has been drawn that leadership matters in student achievement. However, based on a review of quantitative research articles, Leithwood et al. (2004) laid a strong claim that the principal's leadership is second only to teachers in influencing student achievement. More recently, a review of the research indicates that the school leadership's influence on student achievement, in fact, supersedes teachers' as it affects the school as a whole rather than just a single classroom (Grissom et al. 2021).

School leadership is critical for promoting equity and providing equal opportunities in learning for all students. In schools, principals not only drive the culture and focus, and are instrumental figures in promoting equality and equity (UNESCO 2017), but also guide and influence the school community towards a preferred direction in order to achieve a desired outcome (Diamond and Spillane 2016). However, a traditional leadership which emphasises single leadership is no longer compatible with the organisational structure of today (Adams 2018). Therefore, effective whole-school transformation towards inclusion must be led by school principals, and their senior leadership teams (Adams and Tan 2020). The principals share leadership responsibilities with the senior teachers, community members, and other school

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administrators, and work collaboratively with them in creating a school structure which supports inclusion (Billingsley et al. 2018).

The principal's role also has a vast impact on how vulnerable student populations, such as those with disabilities and special educational needs (SEN), receive instruction (Adams et al. 2020; Spillane et al. 2019). By instilling an equitable environment, principals can greatly enhance these students' learning outcomes (UNESCO 2017). However, leading an inclusive school can be challenging with the changing dynamics, potentially exacerbating the issues faced by children with diverse needs. Nevertheless, as a result of the steadily increasing attention that educational systems all over the world are paying to inclusion, an inclusive school leadership has become one of the most hotly debated topics among researchers (Alzahrani 2020; Billingsley et al. 2018; DeMatthews et al. 2021) as it is seen as a vital element in its effective implementation, from which all children with differing abilities will benefit (Adams and Tan 2020; DeMatthews et al. 2021).

This chapter begins by providing a background of inclusive education by highlighting the establishment of global policies, guidelines, and rules and regulations in addressing equal educational opportunities and accessibility for all children. The chapter then discusses the concept of inclusive school leadership by providing an overview on several inclusive leadership practices identified in the literature. In the next section, the characteristics of inclusive school leaders are discussed, followed by their roles and responsibilities. Finally, the chapter provides insights on the challenges and enactment of inclusive school leadership in the twenty-first century.

Background of Inclusive Education

In the early days, the world witnessed children being discriminated in society, and dispelled from education systems for a wide range of reasons, including learning and physical abilities, gender, income level, race, and religion (Hayes and Bulat 2017). However, the establishment of certain global policies, guidelines, and rules and regulations have increased the rights of all children, irrespective of age, gender, and learning and physical ability, in education (UNICEF 2007). The United Nations' Salamanca Statement and Framework for Actions on Special Needs Education (UNESCO 1994) has been marked as one of the most significant treaties as more than 300 participants from 92 different countries and 25 organisations worldwide agreed on the importance of addressing equal educational opportunities and accessibility for all children. Notably, this treaty also allows mainstream schools to accommodate children with SEN (Hernández-Torrano et al. 2022).

As a result of the Salamanca Statement, nations throughout the world were urged to implement practical and strategic measures to foster inclusion in schools (Alzahrani 2020). The concept of inclusive education emerged and was supported by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD) in 2006 (United Nations 2006). According to Article 24 (Education) of the UNCRPD, the state parties shall ensure an inclusive as well as lifelong-learning education system at

all levels by recognising the rights of persons with disabilities to education (United Nations 2006). Additionally, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) established by the United Nations in 2015 emphasised the prominence of inclusion and equity to combat all kinds of discriminations and disparities within education. In particular, SDG 4 (Quality Education) highlights inclusive and equitable quality education, and lifelong learning opportunities for all (United Nations 2015).

Consequently, inclusive education has been widely practised in schools. In today's more multicultural and globalised society, schools must be designed in a way that fits all, considering the diversity among children. Francis et al. (2021a) defines inclusive education as providing students with special needs the physical access to learning environments, such as ramps, as well as access to education through specific plans and strategies to involve them in classroom activities along with their peers. Moreover, inclusion is all about providing equal opportunities for all students in mainstream classrooms in terms of participation, socialisation, and personal development (Adams et al. 2017). It is a process that includes the school community working together in order to deliver services to all learners, irrespective of the disparities that may exist between them in terms of their cultural origins, ethnic groupings, and learning abilities (Alzahrani 2020).

Inclusive School Leadership

Schools that seamlessly include all students are able to do so because of the efforts of their respective leaders. Effective school leaders carry out the duties of ensuring the smooth and proper functioning of school systems, accurately portraying the institution to the wider community, and carrying out educational policies in a methodical manner (Khaleel et al. 2021). Likewise, when it comes to developing and maintaining a culture inside the school that encourages inclusiveness, the attitude of the leaders plays a key role. It is obvious that the backing from the leaders has the potential to affect the attitudes of the educators towards inclusion. Khaleel et al. (2021) found that effective inclusive leaders cultivate teachers' attitudes towards inclusivity by frequently attending meetings with teachers to review challenges, student achievements, and requirements. Furthermore, the leaders making classroom visits, establishing personal connections with children, and maintaining open lines of communication with them may all have a significant influence on the process of implementing inclusive education in schools (Khaleel et al. 2021).

Inclusive school leadership is relatively contemporary in the field of educational leadership (Adams and Tan 2020). Esposito et al. (2019) described inclusive school leadership as a 'linchpin' in creating an inclusive education setting in schools for students with disabilities. However, the roles of inclusive school leaders are benchmarked differently in various contexts as the term 'inclusive' has no emphatic definition due to its ongoing research interest across the globe. A myriad of scholars deem that 'inclusive' refers to fair treatment to students of all identities (marginalised and excluded children) (Billingsley et al. 2018; Bordas 2017; DeMatthews et al. 2021).

Deppeler and Aikens (2020), in their systematic review, indicate that to develop an inclusive learning environment, school leaders could focus on responsible innovation elements in schools, such as 'Anticipation', 'Reflectivity', 'Inclusion', and 'Responsiveness'.

Each of the elements is vital for innovating the school environment, enhancing potential, and sterilising unforeseeable barriers to inclusion. It is an opportunity for school leaders to provide an inclusive schooling experience for students with disabilities. The focus and functions of the elements are illustrated in Table 6.1.

Turner-Cmuchal and Óskarsdóttir (2020) highlighted three core functions of inclusive school leadership through its Supporting Inclusive School Leadership (SISL) framework: setting direction, organisational development, and human development. *Setting direction* entails school principals providing strategic direction, with an emphasis on the inclusive practice-supporting ideals and discourse (Turner-Cmuchal and Óskarsdóttir 2020). Exploring and exchanging meanings about inclusion, with the objective of promoting the academic and social well-being of students via fairness, justice, and equality, are crucial components of this reflection on practice (Stone-Johnson 2014). Theoharis and Causton (2014), on the other hand, emphasised the importance of enacting a vision for inclusive schools, which requires school leaders to establish a cohesive philosophy or inclusive culture.

Organisational development emphasises the principals' responsibility in implementing inclusive policy and practice and, specifically, in fostering a school culture that values diversity (Cherkowski and Ragoonaden 2016). This implies that principals have an impact on organisational development, and therefore must systematically approach curriculum, assessment, pedagogy, and school structure (Óskarsdóttir et al. 2020). In addition to that, they are responsible for building relationships with the community, and parents (Fultz 2017).

As for *Human development,* it focuses on leadership as one of the primary determinants of teaching quality, and the most influential school-level factor on student accomplishment where the strategic function is centred on facilitating, monitoring, and evaluating teaching practice (Turner-Cmuchal and Óskarsdóttir 2020). The purpose of this strategic role is to gather information to guarantee that professional development supports and inspires each teacher to serve all students

Table 6.1 Elements of responsible innovations for schools

Elements of responsible innovations	Focus and functions
Anticipation	Understanding potential impacts of school design for diverse stakeholders and conditions
Reflectivity	Mechanisms for aligning design intentions and educational aims with social and educational practices
Inclusion	Incorporating participatory processes in the design, build, and occupation of schools
Responsiveness	Adjusting practice and adapting flexible designs for change

(Black and Simon 2014). In this approach, leaders develop the teachers' potential by enhancing their knowledge and skills and fostering a school-wide professional community that promotes conversation and cooperation on inclusive teaching techniques (Humada-Ludeke 2013).

DeMatthews (2021) explored inclusive school leadership practices, and the effectiveness of inclusive education in elementary schools. He identified four leadership practices (see Fig. 6.1), namely: 'Creating a culture of change-oriented collaboration', 'Planning and evaluating', 'Building capacity', and 'Developing or revising plan'. In *Creating a culture of change-oriented collaboration,* principals need to create cultural conditions to support the change processes. Thus, this involves developing a routine where teachers collaborate regularly. In *Planning and evaluating*, principals need to establish a team, and they are required to have regular meetings to develop plans for implementation, evaluation, and continuous improvement. Certain priorities need to be given in areas such as identifying Individualised Education Programmes (IEPs) that require immediate revision as well as topics for teachers' professional development and making revisions to teachers' schedules. As for *Building capacity,* principals need a strong foundation of teaching and planning in their schools. They need to recruit qualified teachers while supporting novice and veteran teachers. *Developing or revising plan* refers to principals establishing school improvement plans (SIP) each school term to assess how far the school has come in order to make decisions about future directions.

Fig. 6.1 Inclusive school leadership practices

Osiname (2018) revealed several inclusive practices that are performed by school leaders in order to promote inclusion in their schools. These involve principals working collaboratively with groups and embracing shared decision making to determine and execute their school's vision. Moreover, they are visible and approachable in the school environment so that support can be offered to students and staff when needed. Similarly, encouraging openness, sincerity, and impartiality within the school community, utilising formal meetings and informal conversations to enable the stakeholders to contribute to school development, providing adequate support for teachers, and providing assistance in designing behaviour plans to overcome student behavioural problems are some of the significant leadership practices to foster inclusion in schools (Osiname 2018).

Characteristics of Inclusive School Leaders

The leadership of school principals is one of the most significant factors that contributes to the development of a positive and inclusive culture in schools. Principals who aim to create inclusive schools tend to utilise a variety of leadership strategies and approaches in order to cater to the requirements of all students (Osiname 2018). They develop a strategic plan that articulates the school community's commitment to the success of all students. Similarly, principals who are passionate about inclusion manage to encourage and model positive behaviours as well as reinforce values and traditions to build and shape a strong, positive inclusive culture (Gómez-Hurtado et al. 2021). Aside from the school culture, they are also cooperative, collaborative, and collegial in creating an inclusive working climate for the teachers as well (Gómez-Hurtado et al. 2021; Voinea and Turculet 2019).

Ackaradejruangsri et al. (2022) mentions that principals who foster an environment where all members of the school are actively involved, and whose efforts are recognised, are said to be 'inclusive'. Pedaste et al. (2021) found that school leaders generally have an optimistic view on inclusive education vision, beliefs, and practices. They are willing to promote inclusion in their schools and embrace inclusive ideas and practices in order to establish a more inclusive environment within the school. Khaleel et al. (2021) revealed that these school principals' attitudes and behaviours play a vital role in fostering inclusivity in their schools. As described in the study, the teachers' attitudes can be affected by the principals' attitudes and perceptions towards inclusion as well as the direction and support provided in implementing these practices. Hence, principals influence the practices of creating and maintaining a well-structured inclusive school that supports all students.

DeMatthews and Knight (2019) expounded that school leaders should have strong inclusive beliefs and values, knowledge and expertise in inclusive education, and instructional leadership practices. These leaders should lead by example by upholding strong inclusive values themselves when leading (DeMatthews et al. 2021), and demoting stereotypes such as discriminating against the race, learning and physical ability, family background, language, and immigration status of

students (DeMatthews 2015; DeMatthews et al. 2021). Brimhall and Palinkas (2020) uncovered several inclusive leader characteristics, such as equitable consideration, shared power, collective motivation, universal belonging, and authentic transparency. Leaders who support inclusion appreciate others' personal characteristics and inspire them through their optimism. Hence, being an inclusive leader means being upbeat, supportive, and motivating to the team as a whole.

Brimhall and Palinkas (2020) added that leaders who foster inclusion acknowledge employees' thoughts and feelings by communicating the purpose of the collective mission. Moreover, they seek feedback from others before making significant choices, and encourage others to be involved in the decision-making process through which the sense of belonging and inclusion is augmented. In addition to this, these inclusive school leaders are confident and competent in being authentic, transparent, and humble. Correspondingly, they are determined, ambitious, and involved in school life, which develops the fortitude to implement school-wide reforms (Shore et al. 2011). They foster an inclusive environment, ensuring that all members of the team have the impression that they are respected and treated equally, are appreciated, and have a feeling of belonging, and that they are enthused and competent (Ackaradejruangsri et al. 2022). They advocate the values of group members and strive to make sure that all members are fully engaged in the activities of the group in order to foster an inclusive atmosphere (Shore et al. 2011).

Roles and Responsibilities of Inclusive School Leaders

Principals are considered to be essential characters in schools since they are accountable for the accurate planning and supervision of all administrative responsibilities, ensuring the smooth internal operations of the school, and carrying out policy objectives in an accurate manner (Khaleel et al. 2021). It is extremely important for them to develop school philosophies and cultures that support the inclusion of all students and maintain high expectations for them. Essentially, constructing a school culture which embraces and sustains the dignity of children tends to be the initial approach for the establishment of inclusive education (Francis et al. 2021a). Óskarsdóttir et al. (2020) also highlights the significance of developing a vision for schools that involves aspects of an inclusive culture, which is achieved through the implementation of certain policies and practices along with the development of professional competence in teachers working with a diverse group of students.

In addition, management support from the school leaders for educators and other staff members, including executing positive behaviour support, making decisions based on data, utilising a multidisciplinary approach to problem-solving educational needs, and partnering with parents as well as other support personnel in the belief of a child progressing forward, can enhance the process of inclusion (Francis et al. 2021b). Furthermore, principals who encourage professional development, and provide paraprofessional support, and also monitor and evaluate students, and personalise their

curriculum can augment the level of inclusive practices in schools (Francis et al. 2021b).

Leaders who are enthusiastic about maintaining inclusion in their schools perform a variety of responsibilities, including sustaining teachers' motivation, encouraging their professional development, and utilising various strategies and instruments to implement inclusive education. One such example of this is the Individualised Education Programme (IEP), defined by Lambrecht et al. (2022) as an essential tool used to enhance personalised education for children with SEN by providing suitable learning opportunities in a normal class. These leaders of schools are held to a high level of accountability for ensuring that all children get the finest possible education, despite the fact that each child has unique requirements. Moreover, they need to cultivate the skills, passion, and motivation of their teachers to cater to the diverse needs of the students in the classroom (Lambrecht et al. 2022).

Challenges in Inclusive School Leadership

In the 1990s, school leaders faced a multitude of challenges in establishing inclusive schools (Sebba and Ainscow 1996). Nevertheless, the Salamanca Statement garnered government agreements across the world to enact policies and practices that promote inclusive education (UNESCO 1994). Consequently, scholars have highlighted the critical roles that school leaders need to undertake in order to develop effective inclusive schools (DeMatthews et al. 2020, 2021). However, promoting school inclusion remains a daunting task for these leaders (Crisol Moya et al. 2020; Eleweke and Rodda 2002). While juggling plans to manage the school's teaching and learning, school leaders are also struggling to allocate sufficient resources to provide trainings to teachers (DeMatthews et al. 2021; Óskarsdóttir et al. 2020), and to reform the culture in schools (DeMatthews and Edwards 2018).

Salisbury (2006) noted, "Schools that function inclusively do so for a reason… [and] the principals in these schools were the reason" (p. 79). Principals are responsible for the school budget, distributing resources, providing professional development for staff, hiring, and appraising teachers, and setting the school goals (Leithwood et al. 2008). However, they can feel burdened by having to create and maintain inclusive schools while dealing with Ministry and district directives, resource deficits, teacher struggles and confrontations, and discontented parents (Adams et al. 2016; Frick et al. 2013). These challenges, alongside a lack of expertise and proper guidelines on inclusive education, can cause principals to neglect their duties (O'Laughlin and Lindle 2015).

Pregot (2021) deplores the fact that school leaders had to acquire knowledge and experience of "inclusive practices" based on their generic school leadership experiences, which concurrently exposed the lack of professional development and training programmes for school leaders. Pedaste et al. (2021) revealed that, although inclusive school leaders have a positive attitude towards the inclusive vision and practice, they are typically dissatisfied with the educational and community resources

offered to them. School leaders have been left jettisoned with complex challenges such as revising school programmes, and upgrading facilities (Billingsley et al. 2018), on top of which is also identifying appropriate teaching methods to cater to the many types of student disabilities (DeMatthews et al. 2021; Mahoney 2020).

In the USA, DeMatthews et al. (2021) identified that the district's long-term history of student segregation and labelling (by learning and physical ability, race, and language) created numerous challenges to inclusion. Specifically, principals shared that the teachers were inadequately trained, and schools lacked a culture conducive to collaboration, inquiry, and high student expectations. In addition, principals had to be content with district-developed self-contained programmes. These programmes enable students with certain disabilities from other schools to be assigned into programmes housed within the principals' schools. These students were then placed in full-time segregated classrooms. Principals now needed to develop ways to maximise the inclusive opportunities available to these students. This resulted in principals recognising the hypocrisy between advocating for inclusion while maintaining separate spaces for certain students (DeMatthews et al. 2021).

Additionally, the pandemic has disconnected students with disabilities from schools, and school leaders are unable to ensure that students are learning in an inclusive setting. While, for certain, school principals needed to ensure that learning continued during the COVID-19 pandemic (Harris 2020), it remains relatively unexplored how they are able to sustain learning when face-to-face classes are suspended, especially for children with SEN (Bates et al. 2021). This question is clearly related to the larger issue of developing inclusive education leadership (Bush 2020; Vassallo 2021). The prolonged class suspension has, to some extent, exposed the inequality in education, and threatened to widen the digital divide among students and schools (Lee 2022).

Inclusive School Leadership in the Twenty-First Century

The need for inclusive education in the twenty-first century is propelled by a shift towards embracing diversity and equality in schools (Cherkowski and Ragoonaden 2016; Stone-Johnson 2014). Inclusive education ensures that all students, regardless of their abilities, backgrounds, or learning styles, have equitable access to quality education (UNESCO 2017; United Nations 2015). This is not only a matter of social justice and human rights but also a recognition that diverse classrooms enhance the educational experience for all students (Lambrecht et al. 2022). In an era marked by globalization and technological advancements, fostering inclusivity equips students with essential skills like empathy, collaboration, and adaptability, which are vital for success in a diverse and interconnected world (DeMatthews et al. 2021).

Principals are crucial agents of transformation due to their extensive influence within schools. Their expertise in special education, disabilities, and inclusion may make a significant impact on establishing and maintaining inclusive schools (Billingsley et al. 2018; DeMatthews 2015). DeMatthews and Mueller (2022) stated

that principals could contribute to the development of inclusive schools by increasing the knowledge about disability identity development, and being willing to commit their resources, and take action. More specifically, principals may expand their inclusive leadership by emphasising connections, enhancing disability visibility in the curriculum, and fostering an understanding of disability identity (DeMatthews and Mueller 2022).

Education systems throughout the world are attempting to develop inclusive schools that are welcoming and approachable for all types of students, and which recognise the diversity that exists among them. According to UNESCO's (2005) assessment, one of the most complicated challenges facing educational institutions in the twenty-first century is the thorough redesigning of educational environments to accommodate human diversity for all students within a contemporary paradigm (Voinea and Turculet 2019). A well-planned organisational structure and school leadership that supports inclusion is crucial to establish and maintain inclusivity in a school. This may require alterations to the school's organisational structure and leadership practices throughout the implementation process (Van Mieghem et al. 2022).

Principals could significantly influence student achievement by designing intellectually rigorous, and socially and emotionally supportive schools. They could place importance on developing healthy interpersonal relationships among the school community that promote the social inclusion of every student with a disability (Billingsley et al. 2018). Moreover, principals could ensure that teachers and other staff receive opportunities to learn and develop professionally by enhancing their knowledge and understanding of concepts related to inclusion, such as the effects of inclusion, and inclusive teaching strategies like differentiated instruction, collaboration, and co-teaching techniques for educating children with SEN (DeMatthews and Mawhinney 2014).

Furthermore, cultivating and sustaining genuine connections with families, communities, and district officials, as well as increasing the capacity of teachers and staff via continual professional development and inquiry, are essential for the growth of a successful inclusive school (Billingsley et al. 2018). DeMatthews et al. (2020) characterise leadership for successful inclusive schools as a strategy that emphasises the growth of schools, the integration of general and special education programmes, and the constant monitoring of interventions and the results they create for children. Ramango and Naicker (2022) suggest that school leaders who are committed to and driven by inclusive principles, such as addressing diversity, embracing multiculturalism, and promoting inclusion, are more likely to foster inclusive school environments.

Conclusion

This chapter began with the background of inclusive education by highlighting the establishment of global policies, guidelines, and rules and regulations in addressing equal educational opportunities and accessibility for all children. It then discussed the concept of inclusive school leadership by providing an overview on several inclusive leadership practices identified in the literature. In addition, the chapter also highlighted the characteristics of inclusive school leaders, and their roles and responsibilities. Finally, the chapter provided insights on the challenges and enactment of inclusive school leadership in the twenty-first century.

Despite the growing research interest in this field, there is a relatively limited knowledge base on inclusive school leadership compared to other leadership paradigms. This leads to a further need for empirical research on the indicators and outcomes of inclusive school leadership in different contexts. In conclusion, in designing professional development programmes for principals, attention could be given to enhancing principals' breadth of knowledge and expertise in inclusive education so that they could ensure that every child receives the best possible education in an inclusive learning environment which supports equality and equity.

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Chapter 7
Contextual Leadership: Characteristics and Practices

Tengku Faekah Tengku Ariffin and Suhaili Mohd Yusoff

Introduction

School effectiveness are highly dependent on how the principals or headmasters can innovatively lead and inspire others to achieve the school's visions and goals (Leithwood 2019). Emerging research highlighted the importance of school leaders to be responsive to context and how effective school leaders should enact their leadership styles appropriately based on the different contextual demands that they face (e.g., Akkary 2014; Falcón et al. 2019; Gao et al. 2018; González-Falcón et al. 2019; Madalińska-Michalak 2014; Mohamed et al. 2020; Noman 2017; Truong and Hallinger 2017) as well as be able to face the dynamic and challenging demands positively and proactively (Lang 2019; Marishane 2020; Marishane and Mampane 2018; Morowane 2019; Mohd Yusoff and Tengku Ariffin 2021).

Most importantly, contextual leadership practices demand leaders to have what is termed as contextual intelligence, which is an ability to scan and diagnose the context before making appropriate decisions to influence subordinates into doing what is best for the organization, given the situation and context they are in (Kutz and Bamford-Wade 2014; Mohd Yusoff and Tengku Ariffin 2021; Velarde et al. 2022). This may sound familiar as what has already been practised as it is not something which is totally new. However, the fact that contextual leadership highlights this aspect as its core practice implies that this alternative leadership style responds to the call for twenty-first century leadership that is more agile to this volatile, uncertain,

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complex, and ambiguous world that we live in now (Braun et al. 2011; Hallinger 2016; Leithwood 2017).

This chapter provides an overview of contextual leadership as an effective leadership in schools, suitable for the current rapid changing world, especially when most of us are facing the volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity (VUCA) world. The chapter discusses the core elements which distinguishes contextual leadership practices from other leadership styles. As successful contextual leadership practices are shaped by a leader's contextual intelligence, this chapter also highlights the relation between contextual intelligence and leadership, as well as highlights the importance of contextual factors for leaders to make appropriate judgements and decisions for the present and future of the school.

Contemporary Leadership Framework

Most educational leadership theories refer to the styles of leaders based on essential elements such as proficiencies, practices, and approaches. Among the common leadership styles which are discussed in the educational context are transactional leadership, instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and distributed leadership (Adams 2018; Adams et al. 2021). These leadership styles have their own strengths and weaknesses. Transformational leadership and instructional leadership, for example, are found to contribute towards students' achievement (Daniëls et al. 2019; Rodrigues and Ávila de Lima 2021). However, there are also studies which found that these leadership styles as an effective approach in different contexts (Adams and Yusoff 2020; Daniëls et al. 2019; Leithwood 2021). Prominent scholars in educational leadership argued that contextual factors must be taken into account when practising leadership in schools (e.g., Bush et al. 2018; Bush and Glover 2014; Hallinger 2016; Harris and Jones 2018; Leithwood et al. 2019; Leithwood 2021). Parallel to this idea of making context the central focus of leadership pursuit, Oc (2018) strongly claimed sticking to a single style of leadership may no longer cater to people and situations. Leithwood (2021) also found that principals in schools are more effective when they adopt a critical perspective on the policies and practices in their schools and develop a deep understanding of the cultures, norms, and values.

One of the prominent educational leadership models which has been prevalently referred to by researchers and practitioners, is the Instructional Leadership Model by Hallinger and Murphy (1985). Hallinger and Murphy (1985) conceptualized instructional leadership as a two-dimensional construct comprised of leadership functions. The leadership functions described include: (1) framing and communicating school goals; (2) supervising and evaluating instruction; (3) coordinating curriculum; (4) monitoring student progress; (6) promoting the professional development of teachers; (7) protecting instructional time; (8) maintain high visibility; and (9) provide incentives for learning and teachers. Murphy et al. (2007) extended the Instructional Leadership Model to focus on Leadership for Learning (LfL). In this framework, the concept of distributed leadership is promoted on top of the original principal-centric

approach of the instructional model. Leadership for Learning (LfL) as conceptualized by Murphy et al. (2007) also highlighted the importance of context towards schools' improvement. Thus, the model acknowledges that context plays a significant role in the exercise of leadership for school improvement. The integration of these prominent existing theories in educational leadership is in line with suggestions by prominent scholars who advocate the use multiple theories in school leadership research (e.g., Bush et al. 2018; Faas et al. 2018; Leithwood 2021).

School Contextual Factors

In the field of educational leadership, contextual factors play a pivotal role in shaping the leadership practices and decision-making processes within schools (Kutz 2008). These contextual factors are diverse and multifaceted, encompassing various conditions and elements. They can be categorized into three distinct levels: micro, meso, and macro, each with its own set of influences. At the micro-level, individual factors take center stage. This level revolves around the characteristics, qualities, and attributes of the school leaders directly involved in the educational process. School leaders, teachers, students, and other stakeholders within the school community contribute to this micro-level context. For instance, the leadership style, experience, and expertise of school leaders, as well as the dynamics of teacher-student relationships and classroom management strategies, all fall within the micro-level context (Falcón et al. 2019; Gao et al. 2018; González-Falcón et al. 2019).

Moving up to the meso-level, Braun et al. (2011), Hallinger (2016), and Leithwood (2017) suggested that a broader perspective of context should be taken into account in which school and organizational factors exert significant impact on leadership practices. This level encompasses the broader organizational structure of the school. It involves considerations related to the location of school, history, policy, community, stake holders, external support, physical resources, technology equipment, culture and values, that play vital roles in shaping how school leaders and other members in the school behave. For example, how teachers show their commitment and how they volunteer to work beyond the stipulated jobs. Similar concepts to explain the school context were also used by the present researchers (e.g., Alqahtani et al. 2021; Harris and Jones 2018; Marishane 2020; Morowane 2019; Mohamed et al. 2020; Noman et al. 2018). The concept emphasized by them is context-based leadership.

At the macro-level, the influence extends beyond the school's immediate environment. Government policies, regulations, and educational standards established at the district, state, or national level shape the educational landscape. These policies encompass crucial aspects such as funding, assessment criteria, and accountability measures. Beyond government policies, macro-level contextual factors also include broader societal and cultural influences. Economic disparities, cultural diversity, and prevailing societal values all play a part in shaping how educational leaders carry out their roles. Additionally, global trends in education, including advancements in technology and shifts in the global economy, can impact leadership practices at the macro

level. School leaders must navigate and respond to the complexities of these contextual factors across all three levels. Effective leadership demands an understanding of how these factors interact and influence the school context.

Braun et al. (2011) presented four dimensions of context namely situated context, external context, material context, and professional context. There are several factors which defined each context and differentiated one context from another context. Figure 7.1 illustrates the proposed four context dimensions. Braun (2011) illustrated the main factors into 4 dimensions and labeled them as: (i) situated context—this is more of the background of the school itself; its location, type of school, its composition (student intake and the diversity of student population), school history, expectations, etc.; (ii) professional context—determined by the behaviour of teachers and school management, in terms of their commitment, values, experiences and how they enact the educational policies in professional manner; (iii) material context—in other words, this concerns the facilities and availability of financial support; and, (iv) external context—various external factors which are relevant and related to the school, including the external environment, support, government policies, outside community, and technology. Braun's (2011) model seems to be one of the most comprehensive since it covers almost every aspect of the school setting, including internal school factors and external school factors.

Hallinger and Leithwood (1996) has begun to critically examine the topology of context by Bossert et al. (1982), namely the Far West Lab Instructional Management Model. In his article, Hallinger and Leithwood (1996) pointed out how the elements of culture as an exogenous variable need to be strengthened in explicating the context in Bossert et al.'s (1982) model and to better explicate the importance of embedding context in school leadership. The scholar then proposed a more comprehensive model (e.g., Hallinger 2016) which views the context in a wider scale. Hallinger (2016) suggested that the model of school context should include three relevant exogenous contexts, which are: (i) the economic context—the economic development status of a certain nation and the social economic background of the community where the particular school is situated in would exert different actions on the part of school principals; (ii) the socio-cultural context—in which leaders conceived of and carried out their role across different contexts. Different socio-cultural contexts evidence different value sets as well as norms of behaviour; and (iii) political contexts—the extent of influence that political actors would shape the educational policy, structure and system; so much so that it would also strongly influence school leaders' beliefs, attitudes and practices.

The Emergence of Contextual Leadership Practices

The concept of contextual leadership exists as a result of the notion 'no one size fits all' (Bush et al. 2018; Noman and Gurr 2020) and recent prominent school leadership scholars also highlighted the leadership effectiveness needs to be embedded with contextual elements (Harris and Jones 2022a; Leithwood 2021; Marishane 2020;

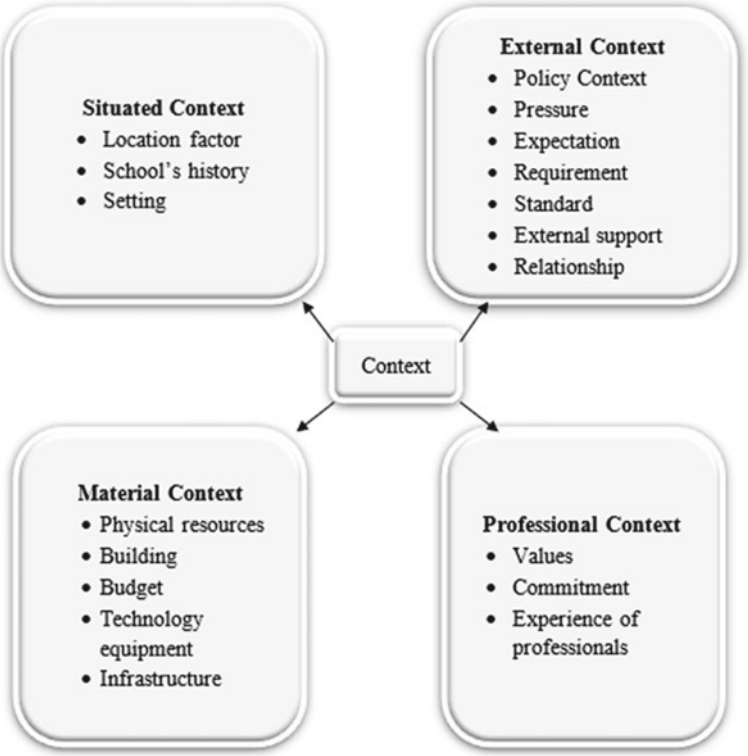

Fig. 7.1 Four dimension of context by Braun et al. (2011)

Marishane and Mampane 2018). Mohd Yusoff and Tengku Ariffin (2021) defined contextual leadership as an agile and thoughtful leadership style in interpreting the context, managing, administering, and leading school wisely.

Prominent school leadership scholars have pointed out that there are several key dimensions of current successful leadership (e.g., Leithwood et al. 2019). These dimensions reflect the transformational and instructional leadership core sets of practices. Leithwood et al. (2019) summarised them into four domains of leadership practices, i.e., (i) Set directions; (ii) Build relationships, (iii) Develop the people and the organization to support desired practices; and (iv) Improve the instructional program. In general, school leaders need to have vision and mission; must know how to communicate with other teachers, listen to them and be trusted by them; it is also the school leaders' job to nurture the teachers and students; and make sure that the main task, i.e., teaching and learning, be carried out effectively. Effective leadership practices should be embedded to the context, as suggested by Braun et al. (2011), Hallinger (2016) and Harris and Jones (2022a).

Contextual factors differ for each school, especially for schools which are in different locations. When schools are in different locations such as urban and rural

areas, members in the schools would have their own unique lives, thinking, norm and culture. These differences would require school leaders to apply different approaches in understanding them, and thus face issues in the schools. As mentioned in previous literature by prominent scholars, in explaining school leadership effectiveness and school improvement, one needs to carefully examine the contextual factors that are essential elements in the school setting (Bossert et al. 1982; Braun et al. 2011; Hallinger 2016; Harris and Jones 2022a; Leithwood 2017). In describing the essential elements of contextual leadership, Mohd Yusoff and Tengku Ariffin (2021) developed the Malaysian Contextual Leadership for Principals in Schools Model (MyCLIPS). Briefly, MyCLIPS Model shows the three dimensions which make up the construct, namely (i) contextual intelligence, (ii) collegiality and (iii) pedagogical support. Figure 7.2 illustrates the MyCLIPS model.

The dimension of contextual intelligence is necessary for twenty-first century schools' leaders especially in times of VUCA for schools' sustainability. The element of contextual intelligence allows for more intuitive and holistic thinking in decision making, taking into account past experiences, current situations, and future possibilities (Lang 2019; Marishane 2020). It highlights the need for school principals to flexibly maneuver and spearhead school change and improvement whenever deemed appropriate, to suit the demands, requirements, and circumstances (Lang

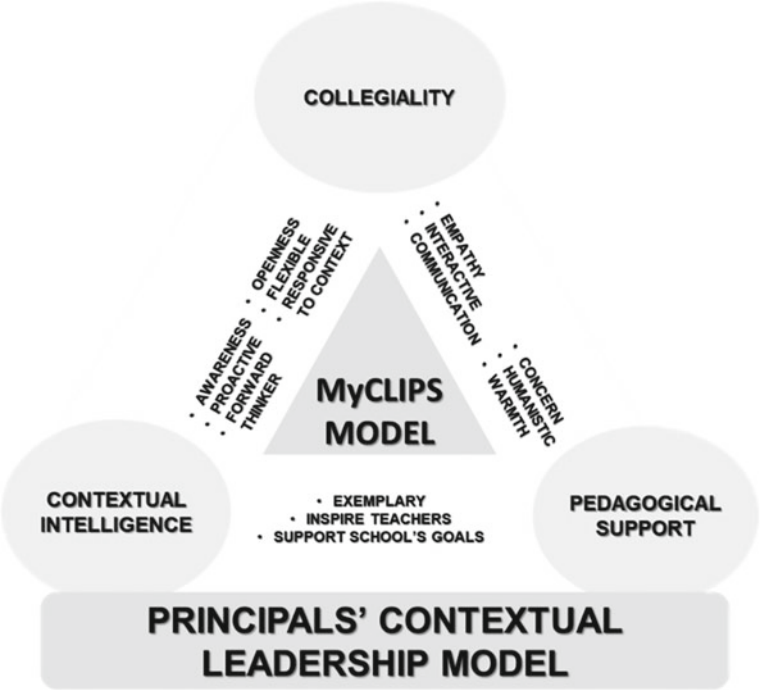

Fig. 7.2 Malaysian Contextual Leadership for Principals in Schools Model (MyCLIPS Model)

2019; Marishane 2020; Marishane and Mampane 2018). Contextual intelligence is the awareness and ability of the school principal to interpret the contexts, more flexible in his or her actions, possess the characteristics of being a forward thinker, proactive and courageous in making decisions. Indeed, in facing an uncertain situation, this dimension of contextual intelligence is seen as very crucial as one of the leadership characteristics required to ensure school sustainability.

The second dimension is collegiality. It is the extent to which a school leader display warmth and empathy in building interactive communication and relationships with people in the school to achieve school goals. Studies by Alqahtani et al. (2021), Gordon (2018), Noman (2017), Noman et al. (2018), and Mohd Yusoff and Tengku Ariffin (2020) have shown that principals who create harmonious environment may successfully enhance teachers' sense of belonging. Having leaders who are more sensitive toward teachers' feelings and well-being is advantageous. The humanistic dimension that emerged in Noman et al.'s (2017, 2018) study highlighted that principals who maintain good relationships with the teachers would be more likely to have teachers who are diligent and committed in the school. Gordon (2018) also stressed on how collegiality and 'reciprocity' in the relationship between leader and teachers are crucial in enhancing the value of working together in achieving shared visions.

The third dimension of pedagogical support is the school principal's ability and awareness to plan and support the schools' activities in order to improve students' achievement. Every school leader strongly emphasizes the need to plan and support school activities for the sake of student achievement. However, in this dimension, the need to enhance teachers' skill in teaching is also included in the efforts of school leaders to ensure school effectiveness. This dimension is in line with the previous work of Daniëls et al. (2019), Leithwood et al. (2019), Murphy et al. (2007), and Noman (2017), Noman et al. (2018), which highlighted how providing support for pedagogical or instructional matters should be one of the trademarks in successful leadership practices.

Although contextual leadership is important, school leaders as practitioners would find it difficult to put the concept of contextual leadership into practice. This is due to the fact that some contextual elements may not seem tangible—neither can they be directly observed nor easily measured. Intangible contextual factors are like school norms and culture, which are hard to explain, yet give a lot of weight to people's behaviour. It requires school leaders to analyse them carefully and wisely before they could connect the dots. Due to the complex nature of the contextual factors, school leaders need to acquire a certain set of skills to diagnose the context. Failure to interpret the context may be detrimental because decisions made may not be rightly aligned with the issues that they have to confront. Hallinger (2016) did mention the need to explore how leaders try to fit into the different contexts they are in. The elements of contextual intelligence and critical thinking are recommended as essential in enabling school leaders to identify the contextual factors within the school itself as well as other relevant and pressing contextual factors which co-exist outside the school (Dong and Niramitchainont 2021; Harris and Jones 2022a; Marishane 2020).

Some case studies related to contextual leadership demonstrated that successful school leaders align their leadership practices with their own unique contextual requirements. In other words, context factors shaped their leadership style. Case studies by some scholars (e.g.: Alqahtani et al. 2021; Akkary 2014; González-Falcón et al. 2019; Harris and Jones 2022a; Madalińska-Michalak 2014; Mohamed et al. 2020; Noman and Gurr 2020; Truong and Hallinger 2015; Gao et al. 2018) explained how the context-based leadership successfully addressed their problems with different approaches. In other words, they adapted a multiple leadership style instead of single leadership style. A study by Mohamed et al. (2020) in Maldives found that effective leadership in Maldives is an integration of two leadership styles, namely transformational leadership and instructional leadership. Harris and Jones (2022a) highlight that contextual factor needs to be paid attention to in order to improve the performance of schools. In other words, they need to respond to pressures of greater accountability while trying to deal with the myriad of complex internal challenges that they face (Harris and Jones 2022a). Harris and Jones (2022a, p. 2) further stressed that 'there is no quick fixes that school leaders can deploy; every school improves in its own way and at its own pace.'

Similarly, Noman and Gurr (2020) found that in determining an effective leadership style, contextual factors such as culture needs to be considered. For example, cultural differences in a country that practice a 'top-down' approach in decision making and 'bottom-up' approach in decision making certainly require a different management and leadership approach. In other words, these different cultures will cause different ways of thinking and acting. Hence, the implication is the 'top down' approach is seen as more rigid and task oriented, while on the other hand, a 'bottom-up' approach is seen as more people oriented. Apart from that, they also refute the belief that solo leadership can be applied to all situations as they highlighted how effective leadership is closely related to how a leader adjusts their actions based on wider contextual factors.

A study by Dong and Niramitchainont (2021) also revolves around how contextual factors influences administration and leadership in Chinese Private schools in Northern Thailand. These schools faced difficulties and challenges including the preservation of Chinese culture, school status, financial constraints, political crisis, academic problems, teacher recruitment, and interaction with the local community. The principals were responsive to the contextual problem. They played a variety of roles to deal with the challenges by using appropriate approaches. For example, they proactively try to solve their schools' financial problems by establishing good relations with external organizations and obtaining funds for their schools. Notably, the problems faced by them may not be faced by schools in other areas. Indeed, an external context such as pressure is also one of the context factors that will influence the leadership practices of principals (Braun et al. 2011).

Contextual Intelligence

Theoretical Notions of Contextual Intelligence

The theorist who first introduced the term "contextual intelligence" was Robert Sternberg (1985), a Yale psychologist. Sternberg (1985) proposed what he called as Triarchic Model to explicate the three important components of intelligence, which are: (i) Analytical intelligence; (ii) Creative intelligence; and (iii) Contextual intelligence. While the traditional concept of intelligence would only refer to analytical intelligence, i.e., reasoning, information processing and analysing abilities, Sternberg highlighted other abstract and complex abilities such as generating new ideas or formulating atypical solutions when experiencing novel situations (i.e., creative intelligence); as well as applying knowledge and information accordingly to suit to the people and situations (i.e., contextual intelligence) as other components of intelligence. According to Sternberg (1985), contextual intelligence can be divided into social and practical intelligence. Social intelligence relates to the ability to empathize with others and navigate yourself through interactions, in efforts to build the web of relationships; while practical intelligence is the ability to actually implement the essential knowledge to perform and be successful in the dynamic, real-world setting. Besides analytical intelligence and creative intelligence, Grotzer and Perkins (2000) recognized the need to consider cultural and contextual cultures, which are important elements in contextual intelligence. This would mean that intelligence can also come in the form of the ability to analyse environmental patterns and be aware of the cultural supports available in the context.

In the educational context, the concept of contextual intelligence has been used by Terenzini (1993) in describing three levels of skills for institutional effectiveness. According to Terenzini, Level 1 is called the technical intelligence where fundamental and foundational knowledge becomes the core input in applying technical skills; Level 2, labelled as issues intelligence, is the necessary skills or ability to recognize related problems and issues in applying the knowledge in Level 1; and finally, Level 3 is termed as contextual intelligence. Contextual intelligence is grounded not only in the technical know-how, but also try to solve the issues which come along the implementation, through the lenses of the specific culture and context of the institutions. In doing so, the values and norms of the people are well-considered in making any decisions for institutional effectiveness.

The next important theoretical perspective on contextual intelligence, which is also the most applicable in leadership context, is the one by Kutz (2008, 2015). Parallel to the above conceptions of contextual intelligence, Kutz (2008, 2015) denotes that contextual intelligence is an intangible ability to scan, diagnose and interpret abstract patterns in an environment, and then, intentionally make decisions to exert appropriate influence in the particular context. In other words, contextual intelligence requires these three soft skills: (i) being insightful towards past events; (ii) highly attentive to the present contextual factors; and (iii) able to forecast future preferable context and proactively design what is best for the defined context.

Contextual Intelligence and Leadership

Leadership in the age of uncertainty requires quick adaptations to the rapid changes that occur—leaders must always expect the unexpected and make the necessary adjustments to ensure quick adaptations to the pressing challenges the organizations are facing (Megheirkouni and Mejheirkouni 2020; Padilla et al. 2021). Leadership is more effective when leaders integrate the 'intelligence' element in their practices (Marishane 2020; Marishane and Mampane 2018; Morowane 2019; Kutz 2008). For example, Kutz (2008) has pointed out the significance of 'intelligence' and how this extraordinary trait can contribute to effective practices in leadership. Intelligence is defined as 'an ability to transform data into useful information, information into knowledge, then most importantly assimilate that knowledge into practice' (Kutz 2008). Therefore, a domain of 'intelligence' in contributing to leadership effectiveness and student achievement is foremost for a school leader who can interpret the context before any decision is made.

Coupled with that, the concept of 'contextual intelligence' arose as an extraordinary trait contributing to recent effective leadership practices (Marishane 2020; Marishane and Mampane 2018; Morowane 2019; Kutz 2008). The concept of 'contextual intelligence' enables one to apply and adapt knowledge generated in one situation to a different situation, after giving due consideration to the differences both situations may have (Khanna 2014). Besides, contextual intelligence also depicts the ability to recognize and diagnose the plethora of contextual factors inherent in an event or circumstance, then intentionally and intuitively adjust behaviour in order to exert influence in that context (Kutz 2008). In addition to the abovementioned underpinning tenets of contextual intelligence, Kutz also discussed 12 important elements which resembles behavioural skills, often associated with leadership skills. These significant elements are further discussed below to elaborate contextual intelligence in tandem with school leadership:

(i) *Future-minded*

A school leader should be forward-looking. He should be able to anticipate and forecast what is best for the school, teachers, and students; and then develop a clear direction based on informed decision-making. The ability to predict the future and

make adaptations based on analysis of the current and emerging trends which are pressing in the educational context and for the particular school, is one of the vital survivals skills.

(ii) *Influencer*

True inspiring school leaders who can influence others to be committed must be able to reach out and make them commit to the school vision and mission. In order for them to become an influencer, leaders must first be respected and exemplary. They must also portray the best professionalism and ethics; as well as possess excellent interpersonal skills to affect the actions and decisions of others, in a non-coercive manner.

(iii) *Ensure awareness of mission*

All successful organisations have their vision and mission. It is most important for a leader, not only to digest the vision and mission, but also be able to communicate them effectively across the organization. Only then, the leader will be able to guide members in the organisation to perform well and see how they can contribute and how their work gives impact to the rest of the other members, which eventually helps to realise the organizational goals.

(iv) *Socially responsible*

Being contextually intelligent also means having greater concern for the wellbeing of others in the organization, its surrounding community, and the larger society. Leaders should be more sensitive, responsible, and responsive towards social trend and issues; they should volunteer to participate in community-based work, so that they can get to the grassroots and find out for themselves the challenges faced by the community and society, and then try to see how they can offer solutions to the problem within their perimeters.

(v) *Cultural sensitivity*

Diversity in organization must be acknowledged and well-respected. Leaders can promote non-discriminatory environment by providing equal opportunities and be more aware of signs of bias and indirect discrimination. Embracing diversity can be done by developing culturally literate employees, as well as practice mutual respect and good communication skills among organisational members. This will enhance unity and productivity; in addition to avoiding misunderstandings and conflicts in organizations.

(vi) *Multicultural leadership*

Similarly, good leaders can actually practice multicultural leadership by becoming more aware of the differences in culture—they should study the culture of others more and observe how other people practice their culture. By understanding the multiple cultural backgrounds that exists in the organization, the leaders can fine tune the

way they communicate and deal with the different individuals in the workplace. Indeed, leaders who are able to navigate themselves in highly multicultural context are well-respected by others.

(vii) *Diagnosing Context*

In strategic management, environmental scanning is done to identify the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. Diagnosing context is doing all those and beyond. It does not stop at the surface level of knowing all those facts, but it goes deeper into interpreting what they actually mean and how they are inter-connected with one another, in the past and at present, to see the clear pattern for better future prediction.

(viii) *Change Agent*

Based on the diagnosis, school leaders should not only be able to react to situations, but more than that, they should proactively prepare the whole school for the dynamic and volatile surroundings; rising up to challenges and brave themselves in making changes which are deemed necessary.

(ix) *Effective Use of Influence*

Contextual intelligence also acknowledges the need for the head of the school to appropriately use their influence to motivate teachers and students in the school to accomplish their shared goals. School leaders must realize the different types of power that they have and use them effectively enough to inspire others to perform successfully.

(x) *Intentional Leadership*

In order to keep improving, a school leader must always reflect on their leadership skills, practices, leadership performance, strengths and weaknesses. Contextual intelligence includes this as part of becoming more aware of oneself and how he/she functions as a leader in the school context. The current educational setting, which are exposed to high uncertainty and complexity, requires all school leaders to self-audit and then take proper actions to level themselves up because the expectations becomes higher and the rides, tougher.

(xi) *Critical Thinker*

School leaders with high contextual intelligence also have strong cognitive ability to analyse and evaluate the context before they make any judgements and conclusions about something. They are critical thinkers who would not take anything at face value, but would make an effort to dig out for more information and data in order to better understand a phenomenon that exists in the educational context in general, and the specific school context which they are directly in. These leaders are inherently inquisitive—they are genuinely more interested in things and people who are working with them; and other matters related to it.

Fig. 7.3 Elements of contextual intelligence for leadership

(xi) *Consensus Builder*

In effective schools, decisions are made based on agreement by the majority of the school members, if not all. Such democratic practice requires interpersonal skill on the school leaders' part in trying to convince all teachers to agree to disagree; and also see the goodness in others' perceptions and values. It is important for the leaders to make the school members to finally come to a consensus in making decisions, so that everyone feels a sense of ownership of the decisions and see the win-win situation that they are in. With such contentment, later, it would be easier to gauge them all in as a strong team at the implementation stage. Fig. 7.3 illustrates the twelve elements of contextual intelligence for leadership.

Future Directions of Contextual Leadership

The present discussion on contextual leadership has taken a stance on highlighting the importance of diagnosing the contextual factors and then use the past and present event or information, to make appropriate judgements and decisions to suit the present and future context of the school (Meyer and Patuawa 2022). School leaders need to remain calm in volatile situations and be flexible to embrace changes more proactively (Neelakantan et al. 2022). Contextual factors, among others, may include diversity among members of the organization. It was also mentioned how the school, as with other organisations, should embrace diversity and celebrates the differences and leverage on them. For contextual leadership to be seen as an approach that is soft and humane, rather than just the hard version of context, there is need for leaders to see it through multiple lenses of intelligence, especially, the contextual intelligence, and

not forgetting, social emotional intelligence. It is only through the lenses of social and emotional intelligence, that leaders are able to lead with more passion and empathy.

Goleman (2004) has elaborated on the five components of social emotional intelligence, which are: (i) Self-awareness—the ability to become aware of one's own moods, feelings and character; and how these may affect others; (ii) Self-regulation—the ability to monitor and control oneself through positive emotional management; (iii) Motivation—the drive and passion to do work above and beyond what is stipulated in black and white; and doing it with full enthusiasm; (iv) Empathy—trying very hard to understand others by looking at situations from other people's perspectives and showing deep compassion towards how they feel about it; (v) Social skill—ability to easily establish rapport with others, build and sustain healthy networks, and develop trust among others in order to effectively influence them. All the above components of social emotional intelligence, co-existing with contextual intelligence, makes it more apparent to the school leaders on how they can optimally drive and influence the teachers and students to retain their passion and become resilient in the face of adversity. This results from the fact that such effort makes them feel that they are being appreciated and empowered to do their best.

Conclusion

This chapter began with an overview of contextual leadership as an effective leadership in school. It then discussed the core elements which distinguishes contextual leadership practices from the other leadership styles. In addition, the chapter also highlighted the relation between contextual intelligence and leadership as well as provided insights on the importance of contextual factors for leaders to make appropriate judgements and decisions for the present and future of the school. Contextual leadership is a more robust type of leadership that is said to be a flexible approach to cater to the various contexts that exist in schools. Contextual intelligence is an important ability for leaders to acquire in order for them to become more sensitive and aware of the pressing situations in the context, which in turn, would assist them in enacting the necessary practices. The way of thinking and problem-solving seems to be crucial characteristics of twenty-first century school leaders in a VUCA world.

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Chapter 8
Turnaround Leadership: Building the Sustainability of Schools

Sock Beei Yeap and Donnie Adams

Introduction

Improving low-performing schools with the most challenging circumstances remains a pervasive and persistent challenge in any education system (Meyers and Darwin 2017). In this regard, the term 'turnaround schools' has been generally used to refer to low-performing schools that have significantly improved and transformed themselves into high-performing schools over a period of time (Liu 2020). Although "no single definition of school turnaround exists" (Hochbein and Mahone 2017, p. 15), the varied definitions of "turnaround school" encompass interchangeably used terms like 'turnover', 'redesign', 'restructuring' and 'reconstitution' (Adams 2019; Harris et al. 2018).

A variety of institutional reform approaches, including frequent short- and long-term strategic planning based on student data, replacement of staff, and curricula and instructional efforts, are used to transform underperforming schools (Duke 2015). Stringfield et al. (2017) suggest that improving these schools requires a multifaceted and multipronged approach, which takes time; thus, they cautioned against "quick-fix turnaround" approaches. Likewise, Day (2014) warned that quick fixes in such schools can only lead to temporary recoveries, while sustained change will prove difficult to achieve in the long term.

Looking at the available research literature on turnaround schools, most studies have been undertaken in Western education systems, particularly in the United Kingdom and United States. In American education, for example, one of the most

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difficult tasks faced by school leaders is turning around persistently underperforming schools and radically making academic improvements in a short time (Malone et al. 2021). Naturally, turnaround schools can be resistant to change as their students are typically from disadvantaged and deprived socio-economic backgrounds (Meyers and Darwin 2017; Murphy and Meyers 2008). These schools also face a multitude of challenges, such as low teaching quality, poor facilities, insufficient teaching resources, and fragile leadership (Adams and Muthiah 2020; Harris et al. 2018). Moreover, according to Murphy and Meyers (2009), research on turnaround indicates that toxic cultures and norms are always present in failed organizations.

In response to this issue, turnaround leadership refers to a leader changing to a positive direction or transforming a failing organization into a successful one. Hill (2016) revealed that turnaround leadership is a type of leadership under which school leaders have the same underlying goal of regaining confidence via empowerment. As Fullan (2006) claimed, turnaround leadership concentrates on the critical role of leadership, such that turnaround school leaders' very actions improve the system they operate. Researchers have shown that successful turnaround school leaders who undertake turnaround efforts manage to improve students' performance above the fifty-fifth percentile (Le Floch et al. 2016). These leaders promote dialogue and communication, create a culture of respect and accountability, emphasize teamwork, and inspire initiative by motivating their followers. Apart from leadership, the attitude of employees is more significant in a turnaround circumstance than anything else in an organization (Clark 2014).

We commence this chapter with an explanation and contextualization of the idea of 'turnaround leadership' based on the literature. We then elaborate on the characteristics and practices of turnaround leadership, such as building capacity; improving curriculum and instruction, enhancing teacher professional development, establishing a positive school culture and climate, and developing relationships with parents and the community. In addition, a model of turnaround leadership is discussed. Finally, the chapter provides insights on the outcomes of turnaround leadership based on a review of related articles.

Origins of Turnaround Leadership

Turnaround leadership originated in the business sector, intending to transform an at-risk firm into a profitable one (Reyes-Guerra et al. 2016). Boyd (2011) shared that turnaround leadership has been applied by businesses throughout the modern age. Most prominently, since the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) (U.S. Department of Education 2003) introduced stricter accountability measures, it has become common to adopt a business concept into education (Reyes-Guerra et al. 2016). The NCLB is often associated with academic success and student test scores. Therefore, it is presumed that using test scores as a benchmark would help school leaders identify strategies to transform their underperforming schools.

According to Hochbein and Duke (2011), turnaround leadership in schools has been discussed extensively for some time. However, Tyack and Cuban (1997) reported early on that researchers appear to reject the idea that schools can be transformed by simply rebuilding. Subsequently, many prominent scholars on turnaround leadership, such as Fullan (2005), Murphy (2008), Leithwood et al. (2010), and Hitt and Meyers (2018), have published works to clarify turnaround leadership in the school setting.

Fullan (2005) explained that turnaround leadership was first used to improve underperforming schools before it was combined into a comprehensive strategy for long-term systemic change. Murphy (2008) expanded on Fullan's (2005) work by describing the three themes of turnaround leadership: leadership is the crucial factor in the turnaround equation; change of leadership is a critical component in organizational recovery; and the type of leadership (rather than style) is significant in organizational reintegration efforts. Correspondingly, Leithwood et al. (2010) stated that turnaround leadership encompasses how turnaround school leaders strengthen teacher capacity, redesign their schools, and enhance instructional programs.

More recently, Hitt and Meyers (2018) conceptualized turnaround leadership into two phases: (1) turnaround or dramatic intervention and (2) sustainability or continuous improvement and growth. In the first phase of turnaround, turnaround school leaders are required to maintain the school, stop any decline, and start the improvement process. The second phase of sustainability involves keeping a positive direction and transforming the institution towards sustained growth. Most importantly, the concept of turnaround leadership requires constant change and improvement in terms of infrastructure and human capacity. Therefore, school leaders need to have a better understanding of how their leadership can be integrated into the sustainability phase to achieve effective organizational change (Harris et al. 2014). In the next section, we discuss if a change of leadership is necessary for school transformation.

Change of Leadership for School Reform

A change of leadership has consistently been observed as a key factor and a central topic in the literature on turnaround schools (Liu 2020). The notion is that there is no need to replace an underperforming school's staff, but it is crucial to bring in a new principal for recovery. Based on a turnaround case in Hong Kong, Chan (2013) corroborated that a change of leadership, especially the school principal, can help transform a failing school. Existing research has primarily recommended replacing existing principals with new ones armed with the necessary set of skills, knowledge, dedication, and character to lead transformation (Brown 2016; Chan 2013). Indeed, supplanting the school principal in a failing school with a more skilled and dedicated one is a fundamental factor in turnaround policy (Liu 2020) and is imperative for successful reform. This change is also known to inspire teachers to make corresponding changes in their teaching practices (Reyes and Garcia 2014). For example, a change of leadership brings about new modes of management, enforces

accountability measures, and enables teachers to innovate curricula and improve student assessment methods (Butler 2012).

The school turnaround process is affected by various factors, such as poor facilities, weak leadership, insufficient teaching resources, and low teacher quality (Harris et al. 2018). Moreover, the effects of new leadership actions differ according to actual school situations. Therefore, whether a change of leadership guarantees successful turnaround requires further exploration (Liu 2020). Additionally, Player et al. (2014) underscored that turnaround schools must be equipped with staff who are willing and able to make essential changes. Research has proven that effective school leadership coupled with high quality teaching staff can account for up to 60% of students' achievement (Marzano et al. 2005). A closer look at the literature shows there are other consistent strategies for school turnaround that have proven to be successful and impactful across educational settings. These include the appointment of expert assistance (Duke 2015), the implementation of an extensive reform model (Brady 2003), and school improvement planning (Mintrop and MacLellan 2002).

Characteristics of Effective Turnaround School Leaders

A review of extant research points out several characteristics of turnaround school leaders that produce effective and positive impacts in various educational contexts (see Fig. 8.1).

First, a turnaround school leader provides *inspiration and motivation* to others to work collectively to achieve goals. Inspiring people is crucial to draw contributing ideas from employees, while motivating people helps achieve a specific and immediate goal (Leithwood et al. 2010). For example, principals work with school staff to inspire and motivate them to maximize their production, create doable goals, and eventually, bring about change in the school. As Duke (2015) mentioned, motivation serves as a catalyst for the excitement and commitment necessary to make a tough shift.

Second, Leithwood et al. (2010) stressed that one of the main characteristics of a turnaround school leader is *effective communication* to achieve desired goals. As an effective communicator, a turnaround school leader is expected to have constant, clear, and direct communication with their staff (Hewitt and Reitzug 2015). This is in line with Murphy and Meyers' (2009) claim that quality communication is a crucial necessity in a turnaround organization.

Third, turnaround school leaders have *courage* in enforcing high standards and engaging their staff and community in open dialogue. Nonetheless, blind courage only results in improving the wrong areas. Thus, these leaders must have the courage to do what is right based on a thorough understanding of the context. In particular, turnaround school leaders need to evaluate underperforming staff and dismiss them if needed. In some cases, especially in rural areas, having open discussions about performance might be challenging; however, teachers respond well to leaders who are courageous. If a turnaround school leader has the courage to demand a set of

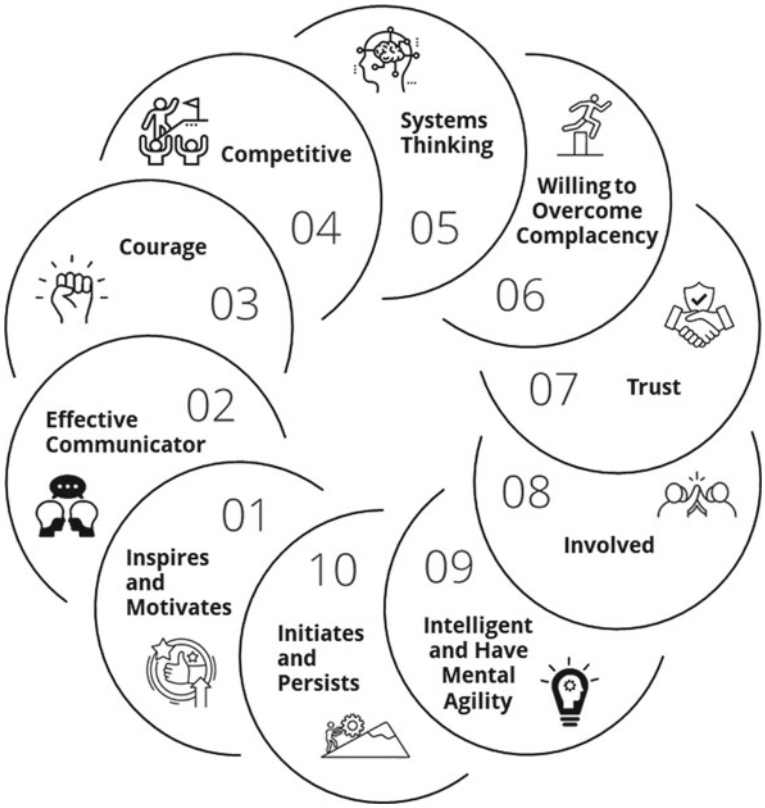

Fig. 8.1 Characteristics of successful turnaround school leaders

practices and engage teachers in the implementation process, the majority of teachers will follow their rules (Schmidt-Davis and Bottoms 2012).

Fourth, a turnaround school leader possesses the characteristic of *competitiveness.* Research on the turnaround principal at Mill Elementary School showed that she has a highly competitive spirit, as she always wants to be number one (Aladjem et al. 2010). The principal has even instilled that spirit in her teachers and staff. Interestingly, the school's teachers pointed out that while they are competitive with other schools, there is no competition among teachers within the school.

The fifth trait a turnaround school leader has is a *systems thinking* orientation. Systems thinking refers to the discipline of identifying the underlying structure of complicated circumstances and separating high-leverage change from low-leverage change (Sterman 2000). Through systems thinking, turnaround school leaders can develop deeper insights, prevent unexpected consequences, and manage problems more effectively. For instance, if an instructional program is not working, the leaders must be able to identify the causes of the operational failure and find solutions to solve inefficiencies (Schmidt-Davis and Bottoms 2012).

Sixth, in order to transform an underperforming school, turnaround school leaders should have the *willingness to overcome complacency*. Scholars have demonstrated that school leaders who make drastic changes are likely to face strong opposition from their staff. Therefore, the willingness to overcome complacency is important for leaders who constantly struggle with disruptive practices (Meyers and Hitt 2017).

Furthermore, as the seventh trait, research shows that *trust* between school leaders and staff is crucial in turnaround leadership. A turnaround school principal who displays strong relational trust with his/her staff trusts the teachers and inspires them to believe in themselves. Consequently, this relationship creates a trusting element in the work environment (Hewitt and Reitzug 2015; Tschannen-Moran 2014).

Eighth, Ong (2015) posited that turnaround school leaders exhibit *involvement*. Principals of a turnaround school need to be fully committed and actively participate in every task, always knowing what to do and when to do it. Most importantly, turnaround school leaders must set an example for others and raise a challenge that effective staff will accept.

Ninth, turnaround school leaders have to comprehend complicated systems on several levels, meaning that their *intelligence and mental agility* are crucial for success. They must act swiftly while maintaining the relationships among students, the community of educators, and parents, who are all working together towards a shared goal. Furthermore, turnaround school leaders need to be skilled on both pedagogical and operational levels to make wise decisions (Schmidt-Davis and Bottoms 2012).

Finally, the tenth characteristic of a turnaround school leader, as proposed by Hitt et al. (2019), is *initiative and persistence*. For instance, to achieve long-term success, the principal of a turnaround school sets a challenging goal, perseveres in resolving issues within the school, and creates a problem-solving plan to achieve a high standard of performance.

Turnaround Leadership Practices

Studies have proven that effective school leadership practices improve student achievement in difficult schools (Meyers and Darwin 2017). In this section of the chapter, we outline five approaches identified in the literature that school leaders use to improve underperforming schools (see Fig. 8.2).

First, a turnaround school leader *emphasises building capacity.* To build capacity within their schools, principals must assist teachers both individually and professionally while also being aware that their needs vary with time (Leithwood et al. 2010). A successful leader concentrates on expanding the capacity of teachers through staff development, which is essential to staff's professional success (Hargreaves and Fullan 2012; Meyers and Hitt 2017; Hitt and Meyers 2022) and better student learning outcomes.

Second, a principal with turnaround leadership *improves curriculum and instruction*. To enhance instruction, turnaround school leaders must be skilled in fostering

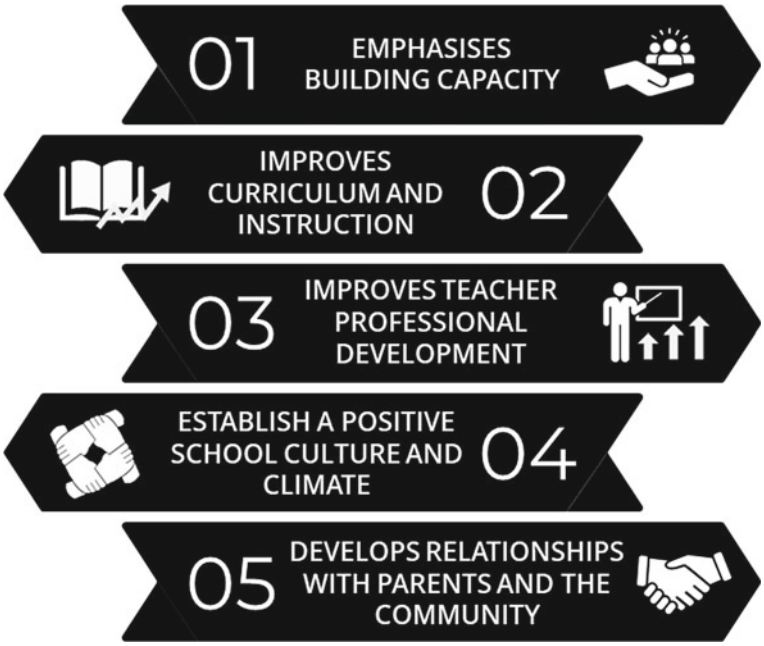

Fig. 8.2 Five approaches to improve underperforming schools

the values and norms that de-privatize teaching practices, develop collegial cooperation, and build organizational trust (Leithwood et al. 2010; Tschannen-Moran 2014). Principals should also aim to improve classroom instruction by hiring and allocating teachers with the appropriate skills to handle issues facing turnaround schools, closely observe student learning data, and use that data to make decisions. Turnaround leaders themselves frequently use data to promptly define goals and implement changes in instruction, student learning, and classroom practices (Bogotch et al. 2016). In addition, turnaround school principals uphold the idea of differentiated learning for students, such that they work hard to offer opportunities for teachers to enhance pedagogy and gain more material knowledge (Schmidt-Davis and Bottoms 2012). For example, Aladjem et al.'s (2010) case study reported that as a result of a decline in student test scores, a turnaround school principal formed small groups of instructional teams to become mathematics or reading specialists. The teachers in the teams ultimately modified and enhanced their teaching practices using student data. Specifically, they evaluated the efficiency of their instructional strategies and activities using a range of student-specific data, following which they altered their instruction to meet their respective students' needs.

Third, a turnaround school leader *improves teacher professional development.* Principals of turnaround schools are known to develop personalized professional development programs for each teacher, along with school-based training and support systems based on teachers' growth needs (Hitt and Meyers 2022; Myende et al. 2018;

Pashiardis et al. 2011). These principals encourage staff to further their education by organizing seminars on teaching practices (Pashiardis et al. 2011). They also provide training to make sure that teachers receive ongoing and high-quality staff development. For example, turnaround school leaders bring in subject matter experts and establish a professional learning environment among teachers (Reyes and Garcia 2014).

Fourth, a turnaround school leader *establishes a positive school culture and climate.* According to Lane et al. (2014), a positive culture and climate is the basis for the successful development and thorough refining of turnaround practices, as well as the ensuing improvement in student achievement. In particular, turnaround school principals ensure that teachers adhere to behavioral expectations that support student learning. This includes creating a collaborative, courteous, and trustworthy environment among teachers that increases students' performance. Such a safe and respectful environment is essential to allow the school to actively implement instruction, use data systems, and give helpful and constructive feedback to teachers (Lane et al. 2014). In Yoon and Barton's (2019) study, turnaround school principals were found to strengthen their school's positive culture, which enabled them to eliminate most problems in the school. Indeed, the principals of turnaround schools in the study acknowledged that a negative culture is an obstacle to the school's mission. Notably, creating quality interpersonal relationships and high levels of organizational trust with teachers is crucial to form a positive school climate (Ahlström and Aas 2020; Pashiardis et al. 2011; Tschannen-Moran 2014).

Fifth, a turnaround school leader *develops relationships with parents and the community.* The principals respect the culture and socio-economic background of the communities. In order to acquire the trust of parents, principals are transparent in their school's financial report (Harris et al. 2017) and apologize to the parents if they make mistakes or over-step their limits (Wallin and Newton 2015). Subsequently, these practices help principals obtain support from parents and the school community (Wallin and Newton 2015).

Types of Leadership in Turnaround Schools

The literature on successful turnarounds underlines the importance of effective school leadership (Liu 2020; Mette 2013; Schueler et al. 2017; Strunk et al. 2016). Most research on turnaround school principals' leadership in countries such as England, Australia, Sweden, and Canada has revealed that the principals practise distributed leadership with the support of joint decision-making, open communication, and critical inquiry (Day 2014; Meyers and Hitt 2017). Other scholars have found that successful turnaround school leaders develop a shared vision of the future, motivate their staff to work collectively and collaboratively to achieve organizational goals, and systematize overall organizational objectives into essential tasks (Duke and Jacobson 2011; Leithwood et al. 2010).

Bogotch et al. (2016) offered recommendations on effective leadership practices for school turnaround. First, they emphasized the need for new school leaders to shift leadership from a management-centered to instructional model. The vision and traits of transformational leadership must also be implemented by all school leaders (Bogotch et al. 2016; Velarde et al. 2022). Next, the school itself must allow for new allocations of time and the development of its staff capacity. The establishment of professional learning communities is imperative, while those already estabilised need to be nurtured and guided. Bogotch et al. (2016) further reaffirmed that distributed leadership is required in school turnaround situations. Finally, they asserted that it is important for turnaround school leaders to achieve immediate successes to demonstrate their control over the situation.

Many researchers have attempted to find an ideal turnaround leadership style. These attempts have been futile as each turnaround situation varies. As such, Whelan (2011) suggested that turnaround leaders in schools require a combination of emotional quotient and cognitive competence to affect meaningful change. Futhermore, the literature implies that turnaround school leaders should place more emphasis on the interpersonal dimensions of their leadership approach (Whelan 2011). In light of the inconclusive extant research, further analysis of the antecedents of turnaround leadership and its effects on school effectiveness and improvement is important to provide knowledge for effective leadership training (Liu 2020).

Outcomes of Turnaround Leadership

In this section, we discuss the the effects of turnaround leadership from our review of the literature. Based on Hitt and Tucker's (2016) study, there is a positive impact of turnaround leadership on student achievement when principals cultivate a conducive work environment for students and teachers, build up teachers' instructional capacity, develop a shared vision and goals for their schools, and engage with the larger community. Therefore, turnaround leadership can be surmised to increase student performance.

Pham (2022) found that turnaround school performance in Memphis, Tennessee improves when principals develop a positive learning environment, encourage peer collaboration, and employ effective teachers. In contrast, Heissel and Ladd (2016) reported negative effects on students' performance in North Carolina elementary and middle schools. Specifically, they discovered that school principals' turnaround leadership results in a decline in average school-level passing rates for reading and math as well as a rise in the proportion of low-income students. Similarly, Strunk et al. (2016) examined the Public School Choice Initiative (PSCI) of the Los Angeles Unified School District, which aims to improve the district's underperforming schools. Their results showed that students in the first cohort of school turnaround exhibited no significant improvements in results, while achievement dropped significantly for students in the third cohort of school turnaround.

In Reyes and Garcia's (2014) research, there was an increase in teachers' motivation with a positive learning and working environment. In this environment, school principals concentrate on professional development and use data to guide teachers' daily instruction and intervention. Most importantly, they invite teachers who perform well to discuss what worked with their team. Staff development activities also increase under such principals, who constantly seek to provide continuing quality development for teachers. Along the same lines, Duke and Jacobson (2011) discovered that teachers in Texas high schools gain more opportunities to exercise their leadership and participate in decision making when their principals create new positions called lead content teachers for each academic discipline. Additionally, these principals upgrade the school's infrastructure, which strengthens relationships between middle school and high school teachers, allows for information exchange with students, and facilitates better curricular articulation. Correspondingly, in Jacobson's (2011) study, distributed leadership and staff professional development were revealed to be essential for school success. Moreover, the teachers in the school under study create a culture of collegial teacher professional development and collaborative learning.

Scholars such as Reyes and Garcia (2014), Duke and Jacobson (2011), and Jacobson (2011) have revealed that turnaround leadership has a positive effect on teacher performance. However, Heissel and Ladd (2016) stated that there is also a corresponding growth in the teacher turnover rate. This is because turnaround principals increase the time teachers spend on professional development programs, thereby adding to teachers' burdens and giving them less available time for teaching.

Under turnaround leadership, De Lisle et al. (2020) found an increase in community involvement in the context of Trinidad and Tobago. For example, parents participate in the adult literacy program late in the evening. Most notably, the school principal actively engages the community, whereby both parties benefit from the partnership. Similarly, there are positive changes in school culture, especially in parental involvement, when school principals recognize the importance of parents' participation (Reyes and Garcia 2014). For instance, school principals welcome parents in the parent center to participate in school activities. Moreover, Heissel and Ladd (2016) claimed that through the Turning Around the Lowest Achieving Schools (TALAS) program, communication with parents and the community has increased and improved over the years.

In the United States, schools principals are known to encourage parents from diverse cultural backgrounds to become involved in the schools. This is done through various initiatives such as volunteer work and participation in decision-making (Johnson et al. 2011). Likewise, in Cyprus, principals have connected schools to the community and involve the community in school decision-making (Pashiardis et al. 2011). In summary, we observe that turnaround leadership has both positive and negative effects on students' achievement and teachers' performance, as well as a generally positive effect on community engagement. This may be because turnaround efforts reflect negative forces influencing the survival of a school, including insufficient resources and huge time pressures.

Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed and discussed what turnaround leadership is, if a change of leadership is necessary for school transformation, the characteristics of turnaround school leaders, and the practices of effective turnaround school leaders (e.g., building capacity, improving curriculum and instruction, enhancing teacher professional development, establishing a positive school culture and climate, and developing relationships with parents and the community). In addition, the types of leadership and the outcomes of turnaround leadership were also discussed. We conclude that turnaround leadership is vital to transform underperforming schools.

Many scholars have invested efforts into finding the ideal characteristics of turnaround leaders; however, each turnaround situation is different. It is therefore difficult to identify the ideal profile of a turnaround school leader. Despite this limitation, we have briefly explained the characteristics a turnaround school leader should have based on the works of Aladjem et al. (2010), Hewitt and Reitzug (2015), Hitt et al. (2019), Meyers and Hitt (2017), Ong (2015), Schmidt-Davis and Bottoms (2012), and Tschannen-Moran (2014). We have also provided insights into the types of leadership and the different approaches turnaround leaders use to transform their schools.

In particular, there is growing evidence that distributed leadership is required in school turnaround situations (Bogotch et al. 2016; Day 2014; Meyers and Hitt 2017). Fullan (2006) reiterated that successful turnaround school leaders develop and empower other leaders in their schools. Teachers, along with other school staff, have to be empowered and guided to discover greater possibilities for their professional growth. Ultimately, turnaround schools must be staffed with leaders who are willing and able to make essential changes; to this end, some leaders must be redeployed for successful reform (Player et al. 2014).

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Chapter 9
System Leadership in Educational Context

Kenny S. L. Cheah

Introduction

System leadership is generally regarded as the leadership capabilities of any organization to allow and support system-level change process. To coordinate creativity and action through a broad, decentralized network, system leadership considers the integration of collective leadership, coalition-building, and networks (Liou and Daly 2020). System leaders use an uncommon mix of abilities and qualities to transform the way a lot of people act in a system within or between organizations. Ideally, system leaders are knowledgeable, visionary with good management and execution capabilities to achieve organizational goals. Unlike traditional leaders, they rely on good interpersonal skills and facilitates highly diverse goals and viewpoints that effectively involve stakeholders. Moreover, systems leaders see their job as initiating, encouraging, and promoting action across a wide range of areas (Harris et al. 2021).

In the context of education, Dimmock (2016) highlighted that leading education systems are becoming more complex and challenging. Part of the issue is that educational organizations are seldom seen as structures and systems as in other forms of business organizations (Gurr et al. 2020; Moral et al. 2018). Nevertheless, contemporary management philosophies included system theory and thinking that pushes education stakeholders to consider the work they do, and how interconnected they are (Gurr et al. 2020). There are efforts underway to create synergies with educational organizations around their short and long-term goals, ensuring that fewer and fewer outliers and enhancing good educational outcomes (Beehner 2019).

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As such, system leaders are people or groups who have emerged within a system as its potential agents of change. These individuals or groups may be scholars, practitioners, or citizens who have discovered that systems are not static but instead dynamic and thus capable of changing for the better (Johannessen and Skalsvik 2013). In terms of structure, this chapter will first introduce the system leadership framework to further explain why system leaders are agents for change within a system. Thereafter, the theoretical underpinnings of this type of leadership will be presented to recognize that system leaders serve multiple roles in the system and that their challenge is to find a balance between the required social responsibilities of leadership and their other professional duties (Adams and Muthiah 2020). Subsequently, this chapter will dive into the context of schools, whereby some characteristics of effective school leaders are exemplified, followed by the advantages and disadvantages of this form of leadership. Towards the end of this chapter, some modern approaches of System Leadership will be described, and this will be concluded in terms of relevancy to the twenty-first century.

System Leadership Framework

System leadership framework describes how education system leaders and teachers can both *lead* and *learn* in their respective school communities (Shaked and Schechter 2020). Take an example of a school. Firstly, it is often regarded as a closed system that consists of interrelated components that affect the school community. Contrary to what schools are meant to look like, there are relationships between the input-process-output that needs to be understood and that it can resonate with education leaders. As such, when it comes to the outside environment of schools, system leaders need to connect with people who work in their districts outside of the school, its boundaries, roles, and structure. They also need to think more carefully about how important it is for teachers, staff, and other key stakeholders to work together (Dimmock 2016; Dixon and Eddy-Spicer 2018). Nowadays, with technology embedded in the day-to-day operations, system leaders could ensure that coordination is established for other schools in the same district achieve to student learning objectives at once rather than creating isolated pockets of innovation (Dixon and Eddy-Spicer 2018).

Secondly, the educational systems are continually shifting and changing unpredictably through an evolving educational environment due to various reasons such as political change or changes in technology (Harris et al. 2014). A true system thinker is characterized by how the system leaders and their teams respond to these changes (Dixon and Eddy-Spicer 2018). It is a mindset that foresees into the future and changes the structural problems which are plaguing educators' jobs. In other words, system leaders attempt to improve education that is forward-thinking and must concentrate on developing and guiding diverse adaptive school systems (Leithwood et al. 2020; Beehner 2019).

Thirdly, schools are education systems that have exchanges in many economic, political, and socio-cultural environments. While other systems seemed closed or

isolated, school leaders know that they need to perform an open environment, including system-wide exchanges which are highly influenced by external surroundings (Shaked and Schechter 2020). For example, advances in the use of technology for teaching and learning due to the pandemic of Covid-19 seem to have shifted how system leaders work towards their goals (Harris 2020; Ansell et al. 2020). This includes enhancing a collaborative and adaptable online working environment for teachers, being flexible towards collaboration and cooperation between various departments and their interdisciplinary teams (Dixon and Eddy-Spicer 2018).

Theoretical Underpinnings of System Leadership

In the body of knowledge, system leadership could be traced back to its roots in system theory. System theory is conceptualized by many theorists in their efforts to establish a glossary of terminology that can be understood by researchers in various fields but also as a basis for its phenomena, truth presentation, and interpretation. System leadership is not an approach to leadership in terms of leaders' work per se, but it is also concerning the effort of the manager to network with its external organizational environment and build positive relationships with other people around his/her leadership circle of influence (Liou and Daly 2020). In essence, a leader without followers cannot exercise his leadership, especially in times of turmoil. System leadership ensures leaders can have a framework, structure, and other significant support that would allow them to think and act on the dynamic of their environmental challenges (Dimmock 2016; Leithwood et al. 2020).

In multiple cases, the leader cannot be separated from incidents and conditions at the workplace, the corporate atmosphere, or even other external factors. Communication and teamwork are two means that the leader uses to incorporate the organizational vision with its followers and inspire them to implement the organization's objectives. The leader become successful because of teamwork, and he/she accomplishes the goal for which he was entrusted with (Mowat and McMahon 2019). In most cases, organizational success factors are not determined by the leader alone but by other individuals, whether its board of directors or other important and external stakeholders with interest. In theory, the purpose of system theory for organizations is to create a transparent and understandable decision-making process in both predictable and unpredictable environment (Beehner 2019). The following are a few advantages of system theory according to scholars. Firstly, system theory centralizes on the leader's efforts and needs to learn in a dynamic, challenging environment. Secondly, system theory is helpful to describe the context that is complex and intertwined with factors that are difficult to predict and understand in the modern world (Gurr et al. 2020; Moral et al. 2018). Thirdly, systems theory has remained a viable theory contributed by Harold Koontz's *The Theory of Management, Jungle Revisited*. In Koontz (1980) article, system theory was introduced into management which enabled managers to analyze further on organizational management and its fundamental practices.

Schools and System Leadership

Research on school performance and enhancement demonstrates that leadership plays a key role in maintaining the vitality and development of schools (Shaked and Schechter 2020). Cousin (2019) elaborated that systems leadership is commonly underpinned by a leadership development structure that resulted from the collaboration between headmaster and leadership development experts from the public and private sectors and education systems around the world. The structure was developed to provide the growth and support of school leaders with a cohesive and versatile model that acknowledges the diverse strengths, needs, and goals of leaders throughout their careers. For example, the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) in the UK identifies teachers to start taking management and leadership responsibilities like department heads and subject leaders to improve their teaching, mentoring and coaching skills further. The development services of the NCSL are designed to help employees advance within the framework to the advantage of their school and professional development.

Previous research and development from the work of Hallinger and Heck (1996) argued that research should move away from earlier concerns about what leadership is, or whether leaders are making a difference in studying the pathways by which leaders influence the quality of teaching and student outcomes. For both scholars, they viewed that school leadership needs to be broadened. For example, leadership should be distributed inclusively across the school community, rather than a narrow view of principals. In other words, they represent one pole of a system's duality in terms of internal and external actors. This means that they take on both official roles within the system as well as unofficial roles beyond it. Leaders may seem to be in many positions inside the system, such as being a citizen, scholar, practitioner, or schoolteacher. Though they may be perceived as being part of a single organization (such as departments), along the line of thinking described above, it is important to recognize that system leaders serve multiple roles in the system. Not only that, but these multiple roles will also vary depending on the context in which this action takes place.

In addition, school leadership is also concerned with two levels: (a) behavioural; and (b) organizational. Three behavioural techniques used by system leaders are modelling, tracking, and discussion. For behavioural, these leaders must be able to mobilize the energy, time and resources of their organizations for larger social purposes, but also must have responsibility for performing the day-to-day tasks of their organization (Contreras 2016; Harris et al. 2021). For organizational, they may need to adopt new and innovative techniques to improve instruction and evaluation while they support school staff in creating excellent learning environments (Khan et al. 2021; Pevzner et al. 2021). They may be prepared to work closely with parents to provide support at home and school as well as contribute to non-instructional areas such as evaluations, professional development and leadership development through a variety of activities (Khan et al. 2021; Mirza and Redzuan 2012). According to Blasé and Blasé (1998), leaders at the organizational level develop frameworks and

systems that allow them to influence their colleagues and at the same time use these systems to set up and sustain the school as a learning organization.

Characteristics of Effective System Leaders

At this juncture, it is clear that there is an increasing emphasis on the roles, responsibilities, and attributes for effective school system leaders in light of continued interest in the role of leadership in education reform (Szeto 2020). School systems happens at all levels to address an increased level of accountability which also raises stakes for education leaders (Forde and Torrance 2021). Alternatively, students and parents increasingly expect schools to deliver high quality products and services that meet their needs and aspirations (Khan et al. 2021). This means that the role of school system leaders has become increasingly complicated as they are asked to accomplish more with less resources (Dimmock et al. 2021).

System leaders who excel in their jobs can be recognized by the qualities they have (Bolden et al. 2020). They are not just skills and traits, but also the values and beliefs that help them to work well. Scholars have also mentioned that system leaders are most successful when they are surrounded by experts and mentors because they can learn from others and use that information to make changes throughout the whole organization (Mirza and Redzuan 2012; Ruben and Gigliotti 2021).

The characteristics of effective system leaders can also be contained within their strengths that they exhibit throughout their leadership positions. These strengths are what help them become more effective in their actions and decisions (Bolden et al. 2020). For example, they are able to be flexible in their knowledge and open to new ideas as they see them (Dimmock et al. 2021). They also show integrity as they are honest in their actions and beliefs, allowing them to be seen by others as an honest and reliable person. They have a strong work ethic and trust that is not just limited to the workplace (Courtney and McGinity 2020), but extend out into other school stakeholders as well (Harris et al. 2021).

System leaders focus on their ability to make the necessary changes in the system or organization. To be a good system leader, scholars have highlighted the ability to set a vision, lead change, communicate with their team members, and provide opportunities for growth and development (Hutt and Lewis 2021). Scholars have also highlighted that these characteristics are found in people who lead by making a difference and want both themselves and their team to grow as an organisation (DeMatthews 2021). They lead in a way that changes things and implements strategies where it is needed. Ultimately, this allows system leaders to serve on both a strategic and an operational level. As an illustrative summary, the model of system leadership can be conceptualized in Fig. 9.1.

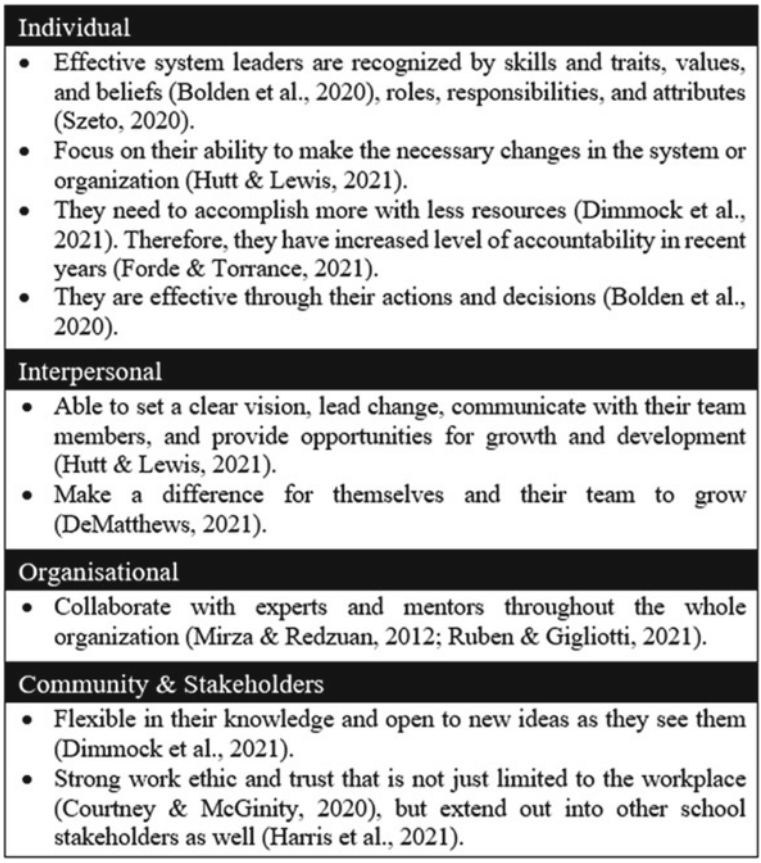

Fig. 9.1 Conceptualised model of system leaders

Advantages and Disadvantages of System Leadership

As explained earlier, one of the features of system thinking is that it needs a larger-scale approach to solving issues in the workplace. It seeks to research the entire network rather than concentrating on the specific parts of the organization. For organizational leaders, the value of systems thinking enables them to be aware of challenges and evaluate if the internal organizational components can work together to address the external environments (Shaked and Schechter 2020). For educational systems, their functions, processes, and core concept of thought systems have to be viewed as a web of inter-related factors (Leithwood et al. 2020).

As an advantage, system leadership and thinking could lead to productive administrative efficiency. When school leaders use systems thinking, they have to look at the big picture and know what their stakeholders are thinking and feeling together with their problems (Mowat and McMahon 2019). As such, system leadership takes

into account many different effects on their educational institutions (Liou and Daly 2020). This leads to better morale of school communities that can boost loyalty to the leader, enhanced time and cost efficiency, minimize delay, and less monitoring to focus on the things that matter (Beehner 2019). Therefore, while system leadership is not a magic solution for educational problems, school leaders need to be aware of the advantages and disadvantages of systems thinking and strike a balance between the pros and cons of their decisions. For small and new educational institutions, it is easier to capture the overview of the problem, since everyone works in a small team. But when the organization expands, system leaders have to expect that things will get even more complicated, making it hard to get a system summary to decide on everything. As such, their departments, divisions, and programs will start to work in silos, making it difficult to collect all the information needed across all parties in the system (Shaked and Schechter 2020).

Current Approaches to System Leadership

The approach to system leadership in schools today seems to indicate that it is well adapted to complex problems involving joint action where there is no single agency in charge. Every stakeholder is an important agent of change (Alsharija and Watters 2021; Harris et al. 2021). The solution, however, is difficult, with high operation costs, uncertain results, and long timeframes involved. Theorists and practitioners have highlighted that it is more applicable to solving difficult problems that cannot be addressed by conventional or straightforward means. According to the World Economic Forum (2019), there are three key elements to system leadership: (a) The system; (b) The Community; and (c) the leadership of the system itself. Alternatively, the international forum has introduced the concept of CLEAR as an acronym, there are five key elements in the system change process have been distilled into the simple structure for leading change in systems:

C—Convene and Commit.
L—Look and Learn.
E—Engage and Energize.
A—Act with Accountability.
R—Review and Revise.

As these five elements are not inherently sequential, they can overlap or repeat in cycles. First, systems leadership is about *to Convene and Commit*. They highlighted those key stakeholders are engaged in a moderated dialogue to discuss a dynamic topic of shared interest. They identify common goals and priorities and commit themselves to work together to create structural change in new ways. Secondly, there is the *Look and Learn* phase. This meant that with system mapping, stakeholders develop a common understanding of the elements, actors, dynamics, and forces that produce new perspectives and ideas in the system and its present effects. Thirdly, they *Engage and Energize*, whereby they practice continuous contact for building

trust, dedication, creativity, and cooperation to build a strong engagement of stakeholders. Fourthly, system leaders *Act with Accountability*. In other words, there are shared priorities and values that drive the project, while measurement systems help track progress. As initiatives evolve, systems of collaboration and governance can be established. Fifthly they *Review* and *Revise*. This meant that stakeholders periodically review progress and change their plans through an agile, versatile, creative, and learning-centred approach that enables evolution and exploration. Even though the CLEAR Framework seems to be a well-organized tool, the system change process is often messy and hard to understand. In reality, many stakeholders saw system leadership as a journey of discovery that changes over time (Hopkins 2010).

System leadership allows leaders to look at the broad picture, the underlying patterns and developments, as well as the effects of changes in how they impact the broader world. When leaders understand how elements and processes in an enterprise shape the system as a whole, they have more choices to develop long-term solutions (Hopkins 2010). Moving forward, few principles can be applied in system leadership. First, school communities need to recognize that the system approach has no clear boundary between the internal components and external structures, but is contextual (Gurr et al. 2020; Moral et al. 2018). Schools are no different from other organizations in that they interact with their surroundings and get information, resources, and other forms of input from outside systems. These inputs are then changed into outputs that are sent to other systems (Grin et al. 2018). Secondly, as a complex learning organization, schools will in some cases react to its environment and is vulnerable to environmental changes. This is exemplified by the recent Covid-19 pandemic where school communities are forced into remote teaching and learning (Harris 2020). Such unforeseen circumstances have affected many stakeholders of the school and also shaped the way school leadership counter or mitigate the negative impact from this pandemic (Ansell et al. 2020).

System Leadership in the Twenty-First Century

Education is changing at an unprecedented rate. Trends like self-directed learning, experiential learning, and project-based learning are taking root in the modern classroom (Alavi and Gill 2017; Medina et al. 2020). Scholars have also mentioned there are some problems with traditional schools which make them less relevant in society. For example, it is evident that a school that has no internet access makes it harder for teachers to provide students with the skills they need for today's economy (Ghavifekr et al. 2016; Lubis et al. 2009).

Over the last 30 years, traditional schools have faced many of the same problems as other institutions face in a changing world. Traditionally schools tend not to change because they are very risk averse (Adams et al. 2021; Medina et al. 2020). This philosophy is impractical today and schools must change incrementally (Hargreaves 2022). Schools must look for innovations that will make them better teachers and

give students that individual attention they need in an effective way (Pevzner et al. 2021).

Traditional schools must be more responsive to change because this is where modern society is heading. In addition to the aftermath and prevailing threats from Covid-19 pandemic, some traditional schools have faced internal challenges that have led to their inevitable demise (Bhaskar et al. 2021; Meijer et al. 2020). For example, traditional schools have been faced with a rapid decrease in teachers who were trained and prepared for the classroom as well as increased competition in teacher recruitment and retention over the last 20 years (Rasanen et al. 2022; Sorensen and Ladd 2020). The teacher deficit has led to a lot of problems because there is an insufficient number of teachers at all levels, and that this also means that students receive lesser individual attention than ever before (Gibbons et al. 2021).

In essence, leading schools in the 21st Century requires system leaders to focus on:

1. **Relevance**: For system leaders, rethinking education requires them to redefine what is it to have a good education. Unfortunately, the traditional school system has not adapted to the needs of the current economy and so they have to be looking for new ways to educate current generation of students that are competent and ready to meet the job market in the future (Shahidan and Ismail 2021).
2. **Skills**: System leaders need to equip their students with skills that modern employers require. Generally, employers want to hire students who have been well educated and have good decision-making skills. Other skills include things like knowing how to use the latest educational technology (Alazam et al. 2014), how to lead others (Pevzner et al. 2021), or how to think like an entrepreneur (Brauckmann and Pashiardis 2020).
3. **Opportunities**: System leaders must give teachers and students chances to learn both in the classroom and making decisions collaboratively to solve problems in the real world (Ho 2010; Prasertcharoensuk et al. 2015).

Notwithstanding, the structure, curriculum, and culture of the schools of the twenty-first century will be very different from those of traditional schools (Alahmad et al. 2021). This is because it needs to fit the needs of society now and where the society is going. Traditional schools have been around for hundreds of years and have done their best to stay relevant, but they just cannot remain status quo anymore (Alahmad et al. 2021, p. 21; Harris et al. 2021). As an example, many schools are evolving to meet the needs of today's students and tomorrow's workforce. Schools need to adapt to the changing world around them and start teaching students more than just literacy, numeracy, and other basic subjects (Daud and Zakaria 2012; Kim et al. 2017; Meijer et al. 2020). Students must also learn entrepreneurial skills through practical experience in areas such as computing technology and engineering because these are skills employers want now for them to succeed later (Daud and Zakaria 2012; Johannessen and Skalsvik 2013).

As a result from the discussions above, system leaders compelled to transform, must recognized that organizations today are different in many aspects compared to the classical management theory (Ahlström et al. 2020; Alahmad et al. 2021,

p. 21). For educational organizations, they must concentrate on learning, innovation, and impact on their key stakeholders, especially their students (Chihaia and Cretu 2014). Schools, for example, are no longer regarded as block and mortar structures to transmit knowledge to students. Alongside, they have moved into the cyber world where virtual learning and flexibility take precedence in the life of teachers and students, where the dissemination of knowledge is driven by collaboration and student-centred learning (Earley and Greany 2017).

As mentioned earlier, the school system and structures have changed tremendously since the onset of the Covid-19 pandemic, and school communities have to learn, unlearn, and relearn how to conduct projects and activities that are concentrated on enhancing the effectiveness of teaching and learning (Harris 2020; Ansell et al. 2020). System leaders have to quickly adapt to their approach to management meetings, and simultaneously attend to cross-functional or inter-organizational demands (such as district educational matters). Therefore, system leaders realized that influence and power no longer rest on their abilities and knowledge alone but is led through the orchestration of many players and stakeholders who possess the technical knowledge, resources, and means to achieve a larger goal (Shaked and Schechter 2020). As such, they must be aware of the need to create a safe and secure school culture and have to expand beyond their existing zone of comfort to seek out new opportunities by taking risks that are unavoidable in the modern day (Dimmock 2016; Dixon and Eddy-Spicer 2018).

On the other hand, understanding the context is an integral part of effective system leadership (Gurr et al. 2020). System leadership recognises that they will not always perform, and this has been shown through academic research, and other educational case studies. The success of yesteryears cannot predict the success of the future (Earley and Greany 2017). As with all other organizations across industries, the recent economic downturn unleashed by the Covid-19 pandemic has shown that many organizational leaders struggled to stay afloat (Harris 2020). In Malaysia for example, there are private educational providers who have invested millions into the construction of buildings and facilities have yet to recoup their cost, when students are all forced to study online and there is no allowance to recruit both local and international students for their educational institutions.

In dealing with the challenges of developing programs for system leaders, educational institutions should ask themselves further if they truly understand their context in response to the new changing environment, be it in their culture, systems, or structure (Gurr et al. 2020). The challenge of designing system leadership preparation programs is in its flexibility and versatility to narrow the gap between theory and reality (Hopkins 2008). Future system leaders must be prepared that what they learned through the program could be impractical the day they completed the course. This is because the changing external environment of their educational institutions requires them to rethink how reality will change their paradigm, and what are the areas to learn, unlearn and relearn before they can make the necessary decision for their organizations (Shao et al. 2016). As such, there is a need for the educational organizations to recognize, develop or even replace leaders who will be full of ideas and willing to implement effective plans for new or newly expanded operations (Dimmock 2016;

Boylan 2018). In essence, educational institutions in the modern-day require top people who are fantastic at cultivating internal talent when it comes to seizing new opportunities while managing its weakness and threats (Mowat and McMahon 2019).

In terms of process, educational organizations need to create channels and opportunities, or more competent systemic leaders could take the helm to weather the new and uninviting storm (Boylan 2016, 2018). In high power distance organizations, this seems to be a challenge whereby organizational management has always centralized on a structure that is based on seniority rather than merit (Jia et al. 2018). No doubt this is challenging the egocentricity of the senior leadership team, such a move is vital when demographic trends are shifting to younger consumers, labelled as millennials. These generations have different paradigms as compared to the predecessors of Baby boomers, Generation X, and Y because they experienced the world differently. In many cases, organizations had to evolve in times where these four generations are working together under one roof, with each bringing in their opinions and suggestions on what is best for the way forward. In mitigating the challenges in school leadership preparatory programs, perhaps the argument lies not in *who* should be prepared for system leadership, but *why* (Mowat and McMahon 2019).

Alternatively, successful educational leaders are the ones who need to alter their behaviour before influencing others to do the same (Jia et al. 2018). While most school leaders understand that this often requires changing fundamental thought, some are hesitant to discuss the root causes of *why they do what they do*. This could make their subordinates disconnected from the top leadership team, and thus created unnecessary conflict due to miscommunication or misinterpretation (Boylan 2018). Conflicts and disagreements are vital because it leads to systemic shifts, and if there is no noticeable level of discomfort or conflict between leaders and subordinates in the organization, it is likely that the organization will not improve because it is too numb to sense the threats affecting the organization from collective perspectives (Beehner 2019).

Conclusion

The interaction between people and organizational resources cannot be ignored in the system theory. A leader who consistently addresses the problems in the organization aims to make an informed decision about its organizational context (Earley and Greany 2017). As explained, the systems approach is one of the managerial theory perspectives developed concurrently with system theory itself, not only to encourage the management to adjust but also to allow the systems to think and learn. Modern organizations, with intense interactions and multilateral impacts of external forces, work in varied and dynamic environments and are expected to deal with them, while managers and leaders were to make informed decisions and keep their organization's attention on purposes (Dimmock 2016). In relating to educational organizations, leaders need a structured approach to recognize leadership at all levels (Mowat and McMahon 2019).

In conclusion, system leaders must make tough but calculated choices, and considers the actors and the relationships which are underlying impacts. They need to regularly update their organizational system and track the effect on their organization of actions, initiatives from both internal or external elements (Earley and Greany 2017). System leaders in the educational context need to also interact with all the organization's stakeholders because they cannot just assume that today's leadership strategies and success will work forever in this era of complicated education systems (Gurr et al. 2020; Boylan 2016). This is not an overnight operation but can be done with efficient preparation. Therefore, they need to take advantage of their opportunity to appreciate the job of their subordinates and how it ties into their current framework (Gurr et al. 2020; Leithwood et al. 2020).

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Chapter 10
Technology Leadership for Schools in the Twenty-First Century

Yuting Zhang, Donnie Adams, and Kenny S. L. Cheah

Introduction

Principals are vital and influential people in their school as they supervise all activities that occur within the organization (Kempa et al. 2017; Walker and Hallinger 2015). It is now widely acknowledged that a principal's leadership contributes to better school performance (Harris et al. 2017; Hallinger et al. 2017). To sustain such performance, principals require broad and deep levels of understanding, skills, and resilience (Adams et al. 2017). Notably, principals need to have a deep understanding of their own leadership abilities to balance them with the contexts they confront. In today's fast-changing context, particularly, it is imperative to update the standards of school principals and rethink their roles in achieving educational goals and preparing the young generation of digital citizens to face the dynamic and technological world of the twenty-first century.

Indeed, the introduction of ICT in schools has demanded the effective utilization of technology over the past decades. Its applications can be seen in the teaching–learning process, such as multimedia classrooms, electronic boards, e-teaching platforms, online management systems, and mobile learning methods (Omar and Ismail 2020; Wei 2017; Yucesoy and Dagli 2019). In addition to enhancing educational productivity, proper technology usage can be particularly beneficial in improving

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schools' administrative effectiveness. This has led to the emergence of technology leadership as an important component in schools (Weng and Tang 2014).

Principals are now expected to be technology leaders to meet the demands of the Digital Economy, and teachers, as facilitators of learning, are tasked with re-engineering the way students think in digital classrooms (Roblyer and Doering 2014; Thannimalai and Raman 2018). Teachers are unlikely to successfully implement ICT in classrooms unless they have the support and leadership of their school principal (Shyr 2017). Thus, it is the principal's role to drive the effective implementation of technological transformation in their school (Saad and Sankaran 2018). Principals with the necessary skills of technology leadership are more likely to integrate educational technologies and manage technology usage in schools (Chang 2012; Sincar 2013; Webster 2017). Research has long verified that technology leadership has a great impact on the successful application of educational technology in schools (Anderson and Dexter 2005; Flanagan and Jacobsen 2003; Yee 2000). However, there is a gap between the effects of technology leadership and the implementation of ICT in schools (DasGupta 2011; Jameson 2013; Richardson et al. 2012).

Therefore, this chapter begins with the conceptualization of technology leadership from the literature. We then discuss the characteristics of a technology leader and elaborate on some technology leadership practices along with their challenges. A conceptual model of technology leadership is subsequently presented. Finally, the chapter provides insights on the impact of technology leadership on followers, schools, environments, and innovation advancements.

Conceptualization of Technology Leadership

Chang (2012) described the global backdrop of technological leadership as "… emerging within the increasingly diversified educational leadership world" (p. 328). In this era of digital technology, greater emphasis has been placed on the concept of technological leadership in schools (Anderson and Dexter 2005; Shyr 2017; Oh and Chua 2018; Weng and Tang 2014), as principals are the key pedagogical leaders through whom new technologies become embedded in the teaching and learning process (McGarr and Kearney 2009; Mohammed Sani et al. 2013).

In the early stage of conceptualizing technology leadership, scholars emphasized leaders' responsibilities in leading the application of new technologies. For example, Ertmer et al. (2002) described technology leadership as principals' efforts in supporting and motivating teachers' technology usage. In this sense, principals are to act as role models and coaches in building a shared technology vision. Creighton (2003) broadened this definition by stressing that principals should possess technology skills, know about new technologies, follow innovative trends, and lead teachers and students to use technology in schools. Later, Chua and Chua (2017) defined the technology leadership practice as a type of "influence that consists of both the expertise in using ICT and the expertise in leading and managing the educational institution" (p. 73). This definition underscores the principal's knowledge,

application, and operation of technologies in educational leadership. Therefore, the concept of technology leadership signifies the combination of people and technology, as well as the integration of innovation and management.

A careful review of the recent literature shows that studies on principals' technology leadership have been focused on schools' organizational culture and ICT infrastructure (Banoğlu et al. 2016), management systems (Chang 2019), and virtual learning environment (Chua and Chua 2017). In these studies, technology leaders are suggested to adapt their behaviors in response to the demands of technological advancements. More recently, Dexter and Barton (2021) discussed technology leadership in regard to leaders' capacity to choose technologies for students' learning and provide opportunities for teachers' innovation integration. The evolvement of the technology leadership concept shows a trend towards more profound and broader recognition in this research field.

Characteristics of a Technology Leader

Given its unique features, technology leadership is distinct from other leadership styles, and the specific characteristics that should be displayed by a technology leader have been identified by various scholars. First, Yee (2000) established eight characteristics of technology leaders: (i) *Equitable providing*, whereby principals are 'providers' of school ICT hardware, software, and complementary resources; (ii) *learning-focused envisioning*, or the ability of principals to transmit a vision or sense of mission as well as to create enthusiasm among followers, which is also a characteristic of transformational leadership called charisma (Bass 1990); (iii) *adventurous learning*, where principals demonstrate a desire to be an ICT learner along with staff members and students; (iv) *patient teaching*, which describes how principals are 'close to the classroom', 'very keen to teach' students and teachers, and attempt to create many flexible learning opportunities; (v) *protective enabling*, referring to principals' creation of shared leadership activities for teachers and students; (vi) *constant monitoring*, through which principals ensure that teachers and students are using ICT according to the vision of the school; (vii) *entrepreneurial networking*, which describes principals as skilful 'partnership builders' with school district administrators, ICT vendors, and higher education personnel; and (viii) *careful challenging*, wherein principals are innovative educators 'on the edge of knowledge' regarding ICT and learning.

Rather than as individual traits, Anderson and Dexter (2005) viewed technology leadership as an organizational characteristic which can be dispersed among leaders with formal authority, like the director of the ICT center or the ICT coordinator. Accordingly, they proposed eight indicators (see Fig. 10.1) to evaluate technology leadership characteristics in American schools. *Technology committee* refers to whether a school has an ICT committee, which principals need to develop consensus on technology visions and ensure that resources, coordination, and climate are in place to realize them. *Principal days* denotes that principals spend at least five

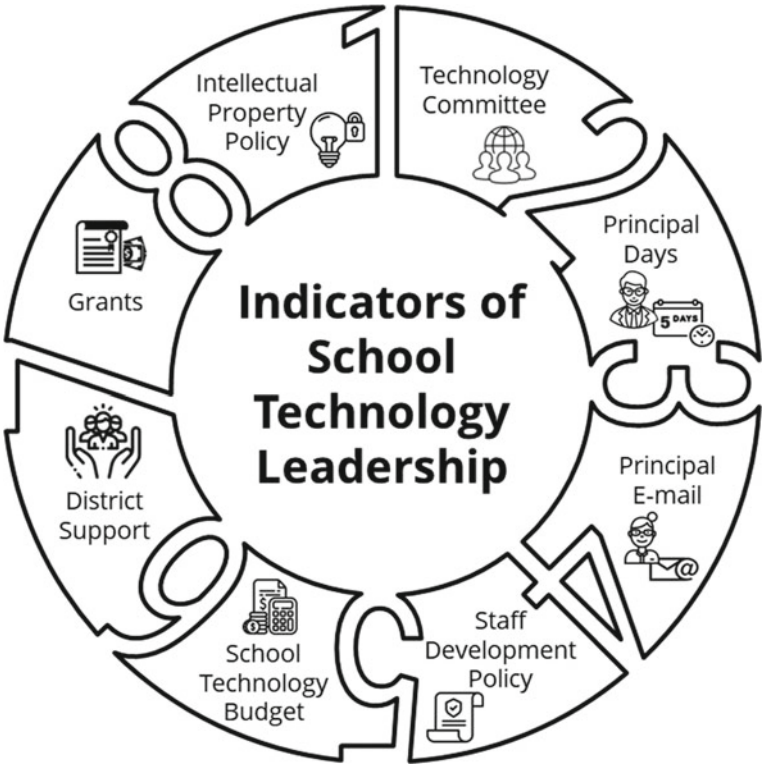

Fig. 10.1 School technology leadership indicators

days on the planning, maintenance, or administration of technological matters. *Principal e-mail* means the daily usage of e-mails by principals to communicate with teachers, administrative staff, students, and parents. *Staff development policy* represents the school's policy focus on periodic staff development programs in relation to technology. *School technology budget* indicates the school's technological budget for equipment, networks, software, staff, and support services of all types. *District support* signifies the principal's shrewdness in ensuring their district supports technology costs relatively more than other districts. *Grants* refers to the school or district obtaining a special grant dedicated to computer-related costs. Finally, *intellectual property policy* represents principals' establishment and refinement of policies that address issues of equity of access, safety of users, and compliance of staff and students with legal and ethical guidelines for technology use. These eight indicators have the potential to facilitate the improved utilization of information technology throughout the school (Anderson and Dexter 2005).

Furthermore, Richardson et al. (2013) argued that school principals must perform the following technology-related functions: understanding the value of technology, recognizing the functions of digital equipment and systems, knowing the qualities

in the selection of software and hardware, developing a technology vision in school, and providing resources for technology usage. Weng and Tang (2014) added that the competencies of a successful technology leader further include seeking potential ICT resources that promote management effectiveness and using technologies to evaluate circumstances. Other scholars have stressed that for any technology leadership strategy to be successful, leaders should have the ability to develop and explicitly communicate a shared vision; otherwise, it may set off a chain reaction of adjustments. Basic leadership behaviors, such as direction, supervision, facilitation, mentoring, communication, and encouragement, are also indispensable (Hickman and Akdere 2017; Uysal and Madenoğlu 2015).

Technology Leadership Practices of a Principal

It is well-acknowledged that successful twenty-first century schools operate on the backbone of effective leadership and management (Adams 2018; Bellibas et al. 2016; Harris et al. 2015; Jones et al. 2015). Accordingly, principals play a crucial role in initiating and integrating technology into their school's curriculum (Gallego-Arrufat et al. 2017; Razzak 2015). They also serve as instructional experts by providing advice, methods, and strategies for executing technology in classroom pedagogies (Esplin et al. 2018; Thannimalai and Raman 2018).

As mentioned earlier, the strength of technology leadership depends on the successful integration of both ICT and leadership skills (Chua and Chua 2017). ICT skills include the knowledge and maintenance of applications (e.g., technical, functional, customer experience-related, and product-related) whereas leadership skills involve competence in leading and managing the organization (e.g., vision, invention, sense making) (Hüsing et al. 2013). Principals' ICT knowledge and skills influence their technological leadership performance (Shyr 2017; Webster 2017) and development of clear specific actions for ICT integration in schools (Razzak 2015). According to Kannan et al. (2013), principals can drive up to 30% of change and improvement when they identify themselves as technology leaders. Thus, leadership in technology means adjusting to changes and leading others through change (Egekvist et al. 2017; Du Plessis 2016).

The problems facing the application of technological leadership are generally organizational culture, the lack of readiness of principals and staff, and the unwillingness to adapt and change (Chua and Chua 2017; Hung 2016; Jameson 2013). Moreover, although there is much demand for technology leadership practices throughout all levels of e-learning and teaching in schools, there remains a lack of focused training on technology implementation (Jameson 2013). Consequently, the resultant scarcity of technology leadership practices in schools often ends with the failure in implementation (Shyr 2017).

Prior research on principals' technology leadership has addressed various topics, namely organizational culture (Banoğlu et al. 2016), type of leadership for implementing ICT (Hadjithoma-Garstka 2011), performance of technology-related functions (Fisher and Waller 2013), technological competence (Drake 2015), risks in adopting technology, principals' technological innovations (Van Niekerk and Blignaut 2014), and technology integration in the classroom (Gallego-Arrufat et al. 2017). However, scholars concur that there is a dearth of school technology leadership research (Chua and Chua 2017). DasGupta (2011) reviewed 77 journal articles on technology leadership and summarized that "there does not appear to be any serious disagreement amongst scholars on technology leadership; however, there is agreement that this is a new field and that more research needs to be conducted" (p. 30). Notably, extant contributions to the literature on technology leadership have mainly come from the West, such as the USA, Australia, and European countries. This necessitates future exploration across cultures for principals to successfully implement technology policies and deal with technology more effectively.

Challenges of Technology Leadership

The roles of school principals have changed considerably in today's educational era (Stringer and Hourani 2016), giving rise to significant expectations and demands on school principalship (Adams and Muthiah 2020). According to a recent OECD report, the three key elements to build a twenty-first century school are educators who believe in their teaching capability, readiness for innovation, and dedicated school principals who create the appropriate environment in the school to empower the former two elements to thrive (Schleicher 2015). However, a review of the literature on technology leadership in recent years indicates various barriers to practising technology leadership in schools. Sincar (2013) found that a lack of professional training for pre-service and in-service staff, insufficient skilful technology coordinators, the isolation of institutional technological development, potential bureaucracy, limited resources, and resistance to innovative approaches are the main challenges of technology leadership. Further research in other contexts, such as Malaysia and the USA, has revealed other barriers, namely unstable online networks (Yieng and Daud 2017), internet speed (Webster 2017), funding issues (Hickman and Akdere 2017), organizational preparedness, and individual hindrances (Chua and Chua 2017).

Interestingly, Gonzales (2020) shared that school administrators encounter challenges such as internal budgeting, acquiring external funding, and negotiating and setting expectations or norms in their schools. The balancing act between navigating instructional laptop use in the classroom and budgeting scarce resources to effectively maintain ICT initiatives reflect both external (funding) and internal (compromising with teachers) difficulties school administrators face. In Bahrain, it was found that public schools that undergo ICT integration are encumbered by inadequate high-quality teaching software, hardware, and infrastructure equipment, indicating that available technology resources are outdated or in constant need of repair (Razzak

2015). In Saudi Arabia, Alenezi (2017) discovered that Saudi teachers are under pressure regarding ICT implementation because it is in conflict with traditional offline methods of education and conventional educational environments. The long-expected shift from ICT adoption to ICT implementation has been slow. Saudi schools have had problems making ICT tools available in working condition, while Saudi teachers lack their own initiative to effectively implement ICT. Hence, evidence from the literature indicates that principals still encounter numerous challenges that negatively affect the implementation of ICT in schools. Some of the challenges appear universal, while some are unique or specific to certain countries. Therefore, we recommend that more studies be carried out on the challenges faced by school leaders in Asia and South America, especially in terms of principals' technological leadership in supporting and motivating teachers' technology usage in schools.

Model of Technology Leadership

Technology leadership theory differs from traditional leadership theories as it is not a separate theory that focuses on a leader's features or actions (Esplin et al. 2018); rather, it emphasizes the leader's ability to develop, guide, manage, and apply technology in an organization and improve its performance. In this regard, the technology acceptance model (TAM) (Davis et al. 1989) describes technology users' individual attitudes, willingness, and intention by measuring their perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness of a technology in the organization. The TAM has been widely used for empirical investigations of technology leaders' behaviors (Akcil et al. 2017; Weng and Tang 2014). On this basis, Venkatesh et al. (2003) extended the TAM to include social influencing factors and cognitive instrumental processes, which can be used to examine not only technology leadership, but also its effects on technology integration (Omar and Ismail 2020; Raman and Shariff 2017; Tondeur et al. 2021).

As for a conceptual model of technology leadership, the International Society for Technology in Education (ISTE), a non-profit professional networking organization in the USA, developed the ISTE Standards for Education Leaders (2018). The ISTE standards delineate the knowledge and skills that technological leaders must master to successfully initiate and support the integration of technology in schools (Banoğlu et al. 2016), as grouped into the following five sets of standards (see Fig. 10.2): equity and citizenship advocate, visionary planner, empowering leader, systems designer, and connected learner. Studies have reinforced the importance of the ISTE standards as a basic framework for educational practices (Thannimalai and Raman 2018; Zhang et al. 2022). The standards are used to evaluate the condition of technology leadership practices or as a practical guideline for the development of educational technology, specifically in light of technological changes.

Of the five standards, *equity and citizenship advocate* describes leaders' use of technology to increase equity, inclusion, and digital citizenship practices. This involves leaders: ensuring all students have skilled teachers who actively use technology to meet student learning needs; making sure all students have access to

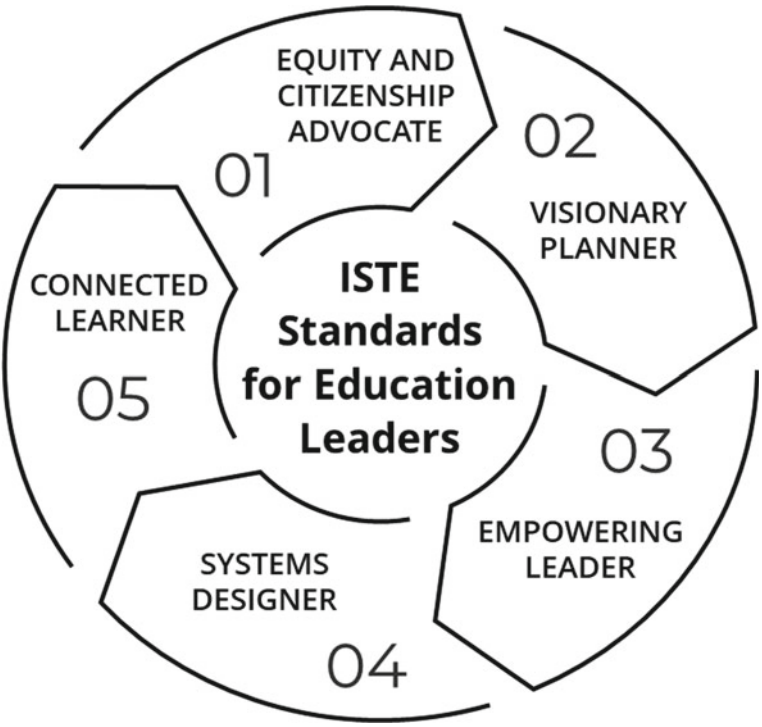

Fig. 10.2 ISTE standards for education leaders

the technology and connectivity necessary to participate in authentic and engaging learning opportunities; modelling digital citizenship by critically evaluating online resources, engaging in civil discourse online, and using digital tools to contribute to positive social change; and cultivating responsible online behavior, including the safe, ethical, and legal use of technology.

Visionary planner describes leaders engaging others in establishing a vision, strategic plan, and ongoing evaluation cycle for transforming learning with technology. This includes leaders: engaging education stakeholders in developing and adopting a shared vision for using technology to improve student success, as informed by the learning sciences; building on the shared vision by collaboratively creating a strategic plan that articulates how technology will be used to enhance learning; evaluating the progress of the strategic plan, making course corrections, and measuring impact and scale-effective approaches for using technology to transform learning; communicating effectively with stakeholders to gather input on the plan, celebrate successes, and engage in a continuous improvement cycle; and sharing lessons learned, best practices, challenges, and impacts of learning with technology with other education leaders who want to learn from this work.

As an *empowering leader,* leaders create a culture where teachers and learners are empowered to use technology in innovative ways to enrich teaching and learning.

This encompasses leaders: empowering educators to exercise professional agency, build leadership skills, and pursue personalized professional learning; building the confidence and competency of educators to put the ISTE Standards for Students and Educators into practice; inspiring a culture of innovation and collaboration that allows the time and space to explore and experiment with digital tools; supporting educators in using technology to advance learning that meets the diverse learning, cultural, and social-emotional needs of individual students; and developing learning assessments that provide a personalized, actionable view of student progress in real time.

Systems designer describes leaders building of teams and systems to implement, sustain, and continually improve the use of technology to support learning. This includes: leading teams to collaboratively establish the robust infrastructure and systems needed to implement the strategic plan; ensuring that resources for supporting the effective use of technology for learning are sufficient and scalable to meet future demand; protecting privacy and security by ensuring that students and staff observe effective privacy and data management policies; and establishing partnerships that support the strategic vision, achieve learning priorities, and improve operations.

Finally, *connected learner* refers to how leaders' model and promote continuous professional learning for themselves and others. This means leaders: set goals to remain current in emerging technologies for learning, innovations in pedagogy, and advancements in the learning sciences; participate regularly in online professional learning networks to collaboratively learn with and mentor other professionals; use technology to regularly engage in reflective practices that support personal and professional growth; and develop the skills needed to lead and navigate change, advance systems, and promote a mindset of continuous improvement on how technology can improve learning.

Impact of Technology Leadership

Existing research on technology leadership has provided a large amount of evidence that confirms its importance and impact in education, mainly through the role it plays in technology-related outcomes (Tondeur et al. 2021; Zhang et al. 2022). This section summarizes the effects of technology leadership on principals' followers, schools, environments, and innovation advancements. It also highlights the outcomes of technology leadership concerning innovations in school management, technology-supported instructional practices, teaching assessment, learning effectiveness, and technology integration in the twenty-first century.

At the organizational (i.e., school) level, scholars have verified that technology leadership functions as a significant predictor of school technology usage (Anderson and Dexter 2005), ICT infrastructure (Tan 2010), and administrative effectiveness

(Weng and Tang 2014). Anderson and Dexter (2005) found that technology leadership has a stronger effect on desired effectiveness than ICT construction and investments. Based on data collected from school principals and ICT coordinators, their research results noted that technology leadership is more important than technological infrastructure for the effective use of educational innovations in school. School technology leadership has also been identified as one of the strongest predictors of the level of technology use in schools. Furthermore, Weng and Tang (2014) found that school leaders who execute sufficient technology leadership strategies are significantly linked to effective school administration.

Additionally, a number of correlations between technology leadership and teacher-related factors have been discovered. Chang (2012) first verified the close link between principals' technology leadership and teachers' technology literacy and teaching effectiveness. Then, Thannimalai and Raman (2018) demonstrated the significant relationship between school principals' technology leadership and teachers' ICT integration in Malaysia. Most recently, Zhang et al. (2022) identified the positive effect of technology leadership on teachers' ICT competency in the Chinese university setting.

Empirical evidence further proves that technology leaders have a transformative power over learning through teaching and school structure. It has been verified that principals' leadership practices directly influence teachers' teaching and organizational effectiveness. In turn, teachers' teaching impacts their instructional practices, through which they have a positive influence on student performance (Chang 2012; Tan 2010). Dexter and Barton's (2021) findings also support that principals' technology leadership affects teachers' pedagogical practices, and eventually, student learning.

Despite the substantial expenditures governments and local authorities have invested in technology, there is still doubt as to whether this has actually improved teaching and learning outcomes. Scholars have investigated the level of technology leadership practiced by school administrators (Akcil et al. 2017; Chua and Chua 2017; Yieng and Daud 2017) or as perceived by their followers (Keengwe et al. 2009; Weng and Tang 2014), and argued that the failure of e-learning and e-teaching implementation in schools is largely due to the lack of technology leadership practices.

School principals who motivate their teaching staff to integrate ICT may support a generation of digital citizenship, increase learners' creativity and diverse thinking, and contribute to the production of competent workforces. Therefore, principals must have thorough knowledge on implementing technology in teaching and learning to integrate ICT effectively and efficiently in their schools (Thannimalai and Raman 2018). They should also find ways to support and equip their teachers with the competencies needed to effectively use ICT in classrooms (Khan et al. 2012; Sarker 2020). In this sense, principals should be visionary leaders, creating a school environment that empowers teachers to utilize digital resources for teaching (Anderson and Dexter 2005; ISTE 2018). Given the broad range of technology leadership outcomes, we need school principals who can function as coordinators between national investments and institutional effectiveness, as well as between general ICT policies and

members' actions (Cifuentes Álvarez and Vanderlinde 2015; Sincar 2013). When leaders have positive beliefs in the power of technology innovations, they have more confidence and strong initiative in implementing technology leadership activities, which may enhance overall organizational outcomes (Razzak 2015; Richardson et al. 2013).

Conclusion

This chapter began with the conceptualization of technology leadership from the literature. It then discussed the characteristics of a technology leader and technology leadership practices. In addition, the chapter highlighted the challenges faced by technology leadership and provided insights on the impact of technology leadership on followers, schools, environments, and innovation advancements. Despite the growing research interest in this field, there is a relatively limited knowledge base on technology leadership compared to other leadership paradigms. This calls for more empirical research on the indicators and outcomes of technology leadership practices in different contexts for the effective implementation of ICTs. In conclusion, principals' technology leadership practices must respond to the advancement of educational technology. In designing professional development programs, attention should be given to enhancing principals' breadth of technology skills to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of technology utilization in schools.

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