

School Leadership and School Management

Asmah binti Ahmad

Faculty of Education and Social Sciences, Universiti Selangor, Selangor.

* Corresponding e-mail: drasmah@yahoo.com

Abstract

This article seeks to understand the types of leadership for headteachers and how it impacts schools' effectiveness. Increasing recognition is being made that headteachers' leadership style is one of the key factors in attaining quality educational outcomes. A literature analysis is presented on the differing leadership styles for headteachers, where participative or collaborative leadership style is increasingly seen as the preferred model, instead of the top-down, hierarchical style of leadership common in the Malaysian context. Participative leadership encourages creativity and teamwork among teachers and the school community. It empowers educators in achieving educational goals by holding them responsible and accountable for the initiatives made, yet still providing additional support via a collegiate setting from fellow colleagues. Participative leadership places high demands on headteachers, requiring principals who have superior human management skills, while being an agent of change in the school system. Transforming the paternalistic style of leadership, to a more collaborative style in Malaysian schools requires a large investment not just from the headteachers who manage and oversee the change, but also input from educators as well as the close involvement of parents.

Keywords: School leadership/professional leadership, team management, collaboration, power and empowerment.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the literature on effective schools, the importance of the principal's leadership is emphasised among the input or process variables of a school system such as school climate, curricular materials and organisation, instructional tactics and strategies, facilities, equipment, financial resources, and parental and community involvement in education (Sergiovanni, 1994; Cheng, 1991). In the field of organisation and management, numerous studies have also suggested that leadership is a critical factor for organisational performance and effectiveness by shaping organisational process and structure, patterns of social interactions, and members' beliefs, attitudes, and job behaviours (Troman, 1996; Mortimore et al., 1994).

However, what they do not do is to describe exactly how effective schools came to be this way and the role that the headteacher played in this process. This is particularly true especially of headteachers' involvement with their staff in the management of collaborative cultures and school improvement. There are a few notable exceptions (see Nias, 1993; Rosnah Selamat, 2009) of ethnographic accounts of the work of headteachers. These exceptions are the closest we can get to

descriptions and analyses of the headteacher's role in school improvement in the management of change.

Looking at the positive signs of being collaborative and democratic shown by the Western researchers, the Malaysian Ministry of Education came out with the directive that schools should accommodate these styles.

2.0 SCHOOL LEADERSHIP / PROFESSIONAL LEADERSHIP

Walaupun The understanding of the various models of leadership can be used to illuminate the work of headteachers and then considers the problems faced by headteachers in the schools. Some models of leadership may be more appropriate to schools than others. The models that were often cited by researchers are the structural functional model, which uncritically accepts the appropriateness of notions of role, role differentiation, and hierarchy as means of understanding organisational processes (Hughes, 1990); the open system model, which focuses on how people within an organisation relate to each other functionally within a hierarchical framework (Jones, 1987); the cultural pluralism model, the model considered by Busher and Saran (1994) as the most pertinent to schools within an organisational framework and the political model of organisations which provides a micropolitical perspectives (Ball, 1987).

Cheng (1994: 313) creates a hypothetical model of the relationship of principal's leadership to organisational characteristics, teachers' performance and students' performance (Figure 1). According to him, a principal's leadership may have direct effects on organisational characteristics and teachers' performance and then the latter two (i.e. authority hierarchy and participation) may have effects on students' performance. In other words, the effect of the principal on students may be mainly indirect, however some direct effect is still possible. In this model, headteachers' leadership styles were described in 5 dimensions: structural leadership, human leadership, political leadership, symbolic leadership, and educational leadership. The structural leadership refers to the extent to which the principal thinks clearly and logically, develops clear goals and policies, and holds people accountable for results. The human leadership refers to the extent to which the principal is supportive and fosters participation. The political leadership refers to the extent to which the principal is persuasive and effective at building alliances and support and solving conflicts. The symbolic leadership refers to the extent to which the principal is inspirational and charismatic. Lastly, the educational leadership refers to the extent to which the principal emphasises and encourages professional development and teaching improvement (Cheng, 1994: 300).

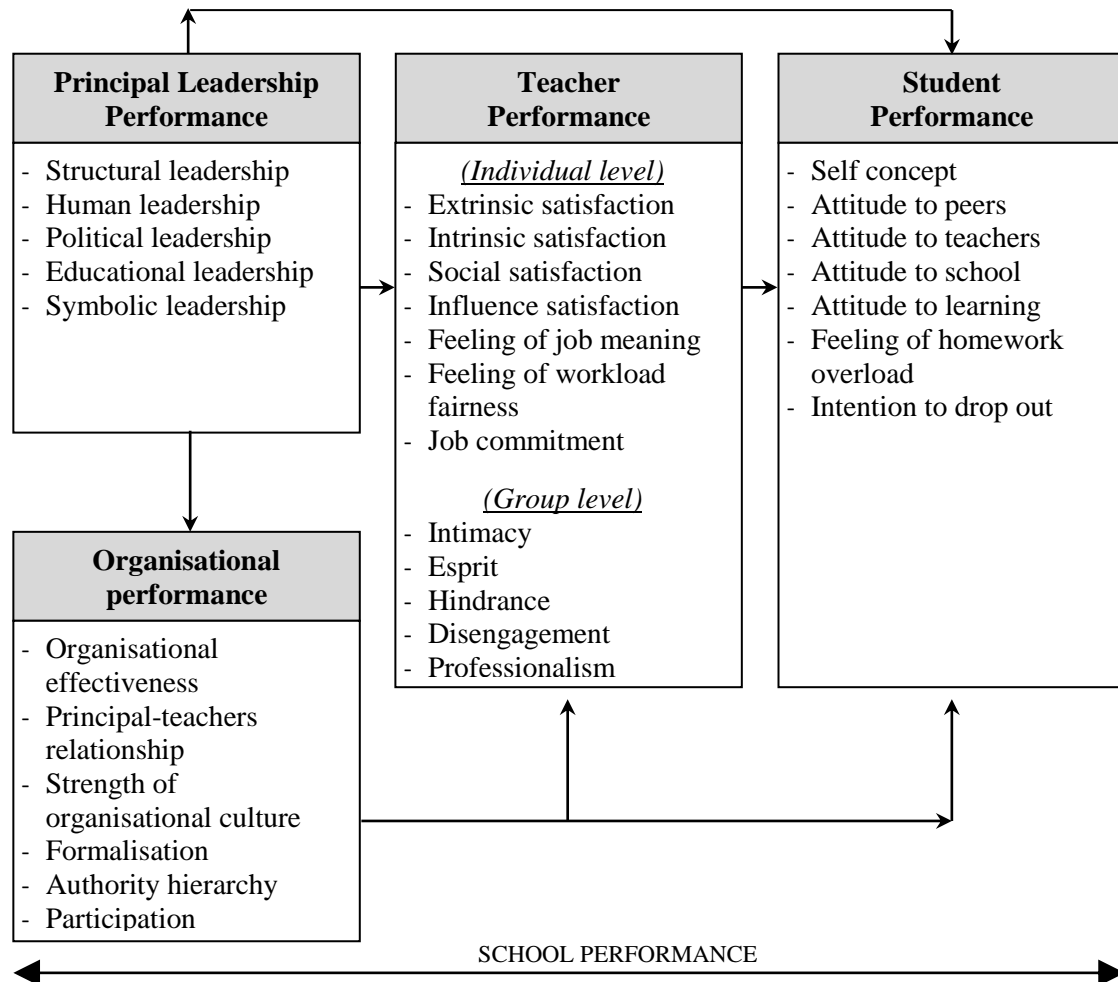


Figure 1: A Hypothetical Model on the Relationship of Principal Leadership to Organisational Characteristics, Teachers’ Performance and Students’ Performance (Cheng, 1994: 313)

Among the factors mentioned that contribute to effectiveness in schools, strong professional leadership is the most distinguished, especially leadership in which professional goals are clearly identified and the role given a missionary quality. Hoyle (1986) refers to Hodgkinson’s (1985) analysis which hints at this priority. For Hodgkinson, the priority in leadership is the development of ideas, values or a philosophy which is translated into plans and policies. These are then brought into the political arena when people are persuaded to adopt them, and in turn are implemented at the action stage when things are managed and monitored. Rosnah Selamat (2009) research came out with the same conclusion.

Leadership is basically about having the ability to influence and to be influenced by individuals and groups to take them in a desired direction. In practice this means ensuring that their needs are met and agreed tasks performed so that a team spirit and team-work are established and maintained and the resources of the group are maximised. In a school context this means identifying educational tasks and possible constraints on them, establishing priorities and setting standards, briefing people clearly about the expected standards of behaviour and academic performance and monitoring and evaluating the progress. Leadership in schools however, is not only confined to staff but also involves students. Early studies of effective schools consistently

identified the strong building-based instructional leadership of the principal as an important characteristic in such schools (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979).

Peters and Waterman (1984) have listed what they regarded as the criteria for success and excellence in the management of large business organisations in the USA. Though there is much debate on the applicability of business, or even service, management resources and practices to school management, Handy (1984) did relate their criteria to schools. Among the criteria mentioned were:

- i. Hands-on, value-driven schools should know where they are going and managers should do all they can to make everyone aware of and supportive of their values. Professionals in schools should be welded together by a good leadership which transforms people's energies into a 'collegium' with a shared commitment to a cause.
- ii. Simple form, lean staff organisation should have simple structures, be 'loosely coupled' (consist of autonomous groups bonded together by a central leadership), and management should not be top-heavy. Schools on the other hand go in too much for complex and bureaucratic patterns of command committees, and hierarchical structures. However, less hierarchy might give less opportunity and less scope for career promotion for teachers.

How can leaders exercise good leadership in professional staff organisations? Etzioni (1975: 213) implies that professional leaders are well placed to gain the confidence and co-operation of professional staff because they share the same professional values. Co-operation is more easily gained when a head's leadership takes the form of professional culture, rather than the form of line management directives reflecting the interests of the senior management of the organisation. The latter type of management might easily lead to confrontation between leaders and staff, especially if it is assumed that management values are not shared by staff, let alone that administrative imperatives are more important than professional codes of practice (Busher & Saran, 1994: 11).

A participative style of management was already established in some areas of the UK in the 1970s (Conway, 1978). However, it requires of the heads and other senior staff highly developed interpersonal skills. On these skills, Mintzberg's (1973) collection of industrial managers' skills seems to relate to the work of Murgatroyd and Gray (1982: 286). The list consists of empathy, warmth, genuineness and focusing concretely on current issues rather than speculating on the future or harking back to the past.

Andy Hargreaves (1991) sees no contradiction between genuinely collaborative (he calls it collegial) patterns of working between heads and teachers and the maintenance of functional differences between them which arise out of their ascribed roles. In Hughes' (1975) terms, chief executives of schools can also be leading professionals so long as they share the same professional values as the teachers. Again, Busher and Saran (1992) found many heads trying to work in this way with the teachers in their schools and teachers responded positively to this approach.

3.0 LEADERSHIP MANAGEMENT STYLES AND EDUCATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

E-SMS Since the early 1970s, educational researchers have become interested in the topic of what constitutes an effective school and how to make one. This is of course a highly complex and much debated concept. Does management style influence educational outcomes? The discussion here will be both cognitive and affective via its impact on the organisational environment. The discussion too will be based mainly on the ideas given by Keith and Girling (1991) and some other writers.

The three dimensions shown in Figure 2 below are graduated along a continuum. Maximum educational effectiveness calls for an appropriate blend of management style and organisational climate. The professional work climate is affected by management style, which is constantly interacting with general organisational characteristics. It can be said that management style, in most cases, is limited by organisational characteristics. In some hierarchical organisations, for example, it is generally difficult for line managers to diverge from highly formalised rules, procedures, and policies, whereas in less hierarchical organisations, management often has the latitude to improvise.

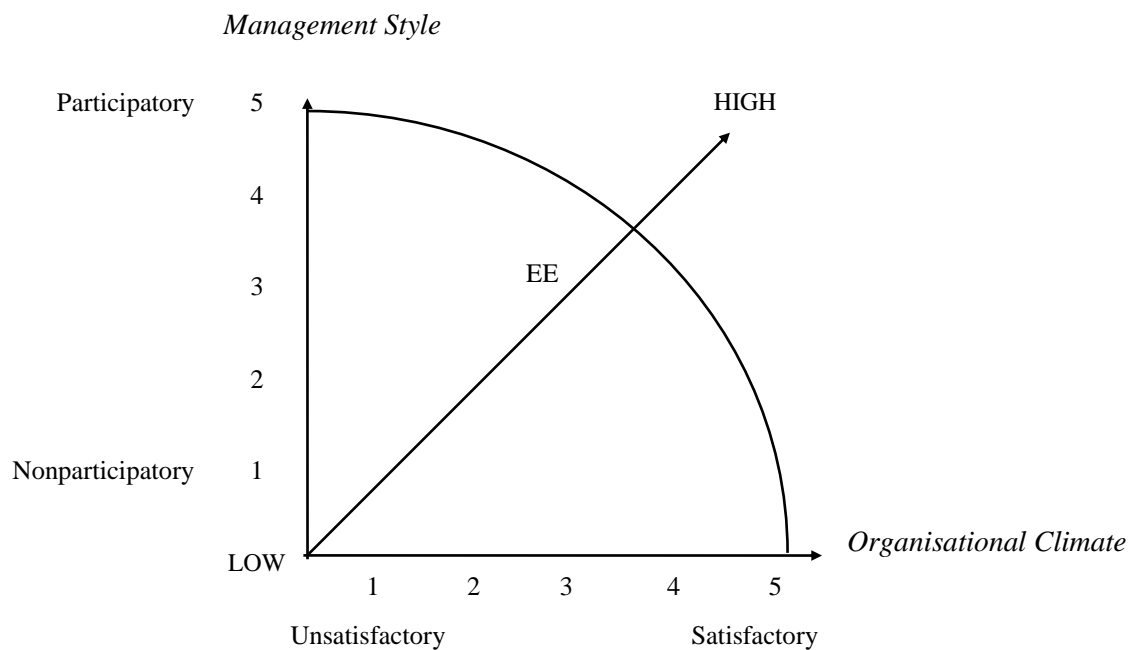


Figure 2: Relationship Between Management Style, the Organisational Environment, and Educational Effectiveness (Keith & Girling, 1991: 31)

The interdependency of management style with organisational climate, which act together to influence the degree of educational effectiveness (line EE) is also illustrated in the Figure below. If management style, educational effectiveness and organisational climate are measured on a scale of 1 to 5, in which 5 is high, then the optimal score is 5,5,5. Thus this diagram illustrates that generally a high degree of educational effectiveness is associated with participative management styles and satisfactory organisational climate. It is clear that other factors are also associated with school effectiveness, for example the adequacy of resources, parental SES and parents'

educational level. Keith and Girling (1991) firmly said that although a participative managerial style is not a panacea nor is it appropriate in all situations, it is nevertheless significant.

Educational effectiveness, measured by the outcomes the school sets for itself, or set by the policy makers and stakeholders, is the result of the interaction of management style, organisational characteristics, and the professional work climate. More participatory management styles appear to produce a better organisational environment, which in turn leads to more effective educational outcomes. Results from research by Girling and Keith (1989) showed that schools in which the teaching staff reported that they were involved in developing the schools' goals, making decisions, designing staff development plans, and learning from colleagues had significantly higher student performance in standardised test measures than others with less involvement.

According to Schein (1990), we need a deeper understanding of cultural issues in organisations, not only to decipher what goes on in them, but also to identify what the priority issues for leaders and leadership may be. Table 1 below shows the characteristics and consequences of the three leadership styles mentioned earlier.

Table 1: Leadership Styles and Consequences (after Keith and Girling, 1991: 63)

Laissez-Faire	Participatory	Heroic (Autocratic)
<i>Characteristics</i>		
No goal setting	Group goal setting	Leader sets goal
Decisions by avoidance	Group mechanism for making decisions	Leader decides
Ad hoc problem solving	Group mechanism for solving problems	Leader solves problems
Self – motivation	Group efforts to identify motivators	Leader uses carrot and stick
No feedback on peer performance	Informal feedback on performance	Leader gives praise and appreciation
Individuals identify and seek professional opportunities	Organisation-wide training and professional development assessment	Leader determines professional development needs
Most vocal client gets the response	Seeks staff input on various client needs	Leader decides on client priorities
Complete freedom of individual action	Leader gives suggestions	Leader gives orders
Leader provides materials and answers questions when asked	Leader stimulates self-guidance	Leader often uses non-constructive criticism
<i>Consequences</i>		
Lack of organisation	Friendliness	Hostility and discontent
Poorer quality and lower quantity of work	Spontaneity	Demands for attention result in leader stress and burnout
Frustration	Cohesiveness	Submissiveness
Aggression	Moderate productivity	High short - term productivity
Low group unity	High group unity	Low unity and high worker turnover

The different types of headteachers' leadership styles and their consequences could be useful for headteachers to refer to and to choose and use when managing their schools. It would also be useful for these to be included in the curricula for headteachers' management training courses especially in Malaysia. Hersey and Blanchard (1988) came out with the situational leadership approach. The situational approach is said to be appropriate to be used in schools as headteachers use different leadership styles with different people in the school (pupils and staff). The model is based on the dimensions of task behaviour and relationship behaviour. According to Hersey and Blanchard this is a powerful and effective model which does not prescribe a particular style but simply allows one to respond more effectively to different situations, either as a leader or as a follower. Doyle and Wells (1996) in their research on the managerial climate in some English schools used the authoritative and the interpersonal type of leadership. According to Handy (1990), it is possible to identify these two main leadership styles present in a variety of models which includes the three types of leadership: autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. The interpersonal type emphasises the need for the head to be friendly and approachable to all staff, the relationship is informal. In other words it is more or less describing the democratic type of leadership.

4.0 TEAM MANAGEMENT AND COLLABORATION IN SCHOOLS

In recent years, two major changes have taken place as to how scholars look at principalship. First, principalship and its related management techniques have been linked to school effectiveness. Leadership strategies, particularly in curriculum instruction, are expected to have a great impact on the effectiveness of the schools in which they are practised (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Heck at al., 1991). Second, principalship is often spoken of in terms of joint responsibility. This is where the principal and key associates (the management team or administrative team) collaborate in decision making.

Woodcock and Francis (1981) define a management team as a task-oriented group representative of the important subsystem of the organisation, which interacts and shares some organisational roles with a formal role structure, with mutual influence between the two. The management team is considered as a formal part of an organisational structure, and is legitimised by some formal policy that establishes the team. In a school it may include the principal and the heads of department, and be characterised by group processes in decision making.

With reference to the process aspect of the management teams, several authors (Blumberg, 1968) argue that there are a number of possible modes of operation for such a team. In the autocratic mode, the school principal provides the team members with information, but they do not contribute their ideas or suggestions. Decisions, direction and supervision remain the realm of the principal alone. The consultative mode, also known as decision making by consultation, has two versions. According to the first, the principal seeks general information and suggestions from subordinates prior to making a decision, but does not ask them to generate or to evaluate alternative solutions. Decision making and direction are still in the principal's hands, but team members and other teachers may be consulted. In the second version, the principal presents a problem to the team members and other teachers, who may then offer advice. Here, the principal presents the problem that he or she seeks to solve. Thus the team members have an opportunity to

work together with the principal in considering all possible consequences of a proposed action. However, here too, the principal retains the right and responsibility for making the final decision.

The last mode discussed here is the participative mode, in which the principal and team members share and analyse problems together, generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt either to reach agreement by compromise (the consensus version) or to arrive at the decision by majority (the democratic version). Many people believe that the creation and availability of senior management teams (SMTs) and the leadership of principals in a school can shape students' and teachers' perceptions, feelings and overt behaviours and thus increase the effectiveness of schools.

The suitable approach to management, particularly curriculum management is where headteachers delegate curricular responsibilities to teachers with the teachers accepting the curricular responsibility and leadership. The professional role is to be shared between members of staff according to their curricular strengths and responsibilities. Heads can avoid their enormous desire/liking for decision making and teachers are to take on a bigger workload (Azmi Zakaria, 2004). However, unfortunately, although collegiality is being advocated until today, Campbell and Southworth (1992) say, collegiality is more of an ideal image than a reality.

The idea of the collaborative culture in improving schools has been suggested by many writers (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). Collaborative school culture assumes that consensus among the staff of a school is more powerful than overt control. Central to the concept of a collaborative culture is the more equitable distribution of power for decision making among members of the school. Such an environment promotes collaborative planning, collegiality, supportiveness and an atmosphere that adopts experimentation and creativity. It is not surprising that many schools use improvement teams as their approach.

Collaborative school culture at the same time does not deny the leadership role of headteachers. A study by Leithwood and Jantzi (1990), on how principals can help reform school cultures used the 'transformational' leadership approach. This states that "principals have access to strategies which are 'transformational' in effect, and hence, assist in the development of collaborative school cultures" (p.30). This entails a change in staff members, individual and shared understanding of their current purpose and practices, and "an enhanced capacity to solve future problems, individually and collegially" (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990: 30).

A point to ponder; Collaboration can connect, but it can just as easily divide (Hargreaves, 1994: 213). There are certain kinds of collaboration that divide, that separate teachers into insulated and often competing sub-groups within a school. Hargreaves uses the term 'balkanized' to represent this culture. However balkanised culture is often found in large secondary schools. Fullan and Hargreaves (1992) explain that balkanized teacher culture is defined by particular patterns of interrelationships among teachers. These patterns mainly consist of teachers working neither in isolation, nor with most of their colleagues as a whole school, but in smaller subgroups within the school community, such as junior and primary divisions within the primary school. There are good and bad effects of balkanisation. However, simply working and associating with colleagues in small groups does not amount to balkanisation. Andy Hargreaves explains:

Balkanization is characterized by strong and enduring boundaries between different parts of the organization, by personal identification with the domains these boundaries define, and by differences of power between one domain and another (1994: 235).

To counter the above from happening, Nias et al. (1992) suggest that a sense of ‘wholeness’ in school should be constructed. This situation is what teacher collaboration in primary schools is all about. They further explain that ‘whole school’ is to belong to a community, to share the same educational beliefs and aims about working together as a team, to acknowledge and activate the complementary expertise of colleagues, to relate well to other members of the group, to be aware of and involved in classes beyond one’s own, and to value the leadership of the school principal.

Other than the barriers to collaboration (Beeson & Matthews, 1993), there are also dangers to it. Andy Hargreaves (1994: 247) says, “collaboration carries with it great dangers also, in ways that can be wasteful, harmful and unproductive for teachers and their students”. Some of the problems mentioned by him are: collaboration can create greater comfort and complacency in atmosphere and reduces challenge; collaboration can be conformist leading towards group-work, suppressing individuality and creativity; collaboration can also be contrived and controlled and thus becoming unproductive and wasteful of teachers’ energies and efforts. Collaboration is sometimes cooptative, used as an administrative and political ruse to secure teachers’ compliance with and commitment to educational reforms decided by others. Collaboration therefore can be helpful or harmful, and therefore its meaning and usage ought to be inspected repeatedly to ensure that their educational and social benefits are positive.

Lawrence (1994: 103) gave an informal definition of collaboration which he described as the “joint work for joint purposes”. To him, to explain further on collaboration, the question that we have to ask is: “who collaborates with whom?”; “over what?”; and “why?”. To him any number of people from two upwards may collaborate or if more it can be a team. Collaboration in this instance is frequently referred to as ‘team-work’. Hoyle (1986) said that when teachers of equal status collaborate to improve their teaching, this is labelled ‘collegiality’.

Regarding the second question, over what do partners collaborate, Nias et al. (1989) found that in primary schools, the teachers often collaborate on identifying curriculum goals and implementing them. As to the third question of why people collaborate, it is because they choose to engage in joint work to achieve joint goals. Collaboration is to a significant degree a voluntary partnership, distinguishable from a relationship of domination and compliance. Motives for collaborating may be more or less overt, varying from the intrinsic enjoyment of mutual support to joint work as a means of favouring individuals’ career prospects.

Bottery (1992: 165) was quite cautious about the word collaboration and on this he said:

Such phraseology can be rather woolly, for there are considerable variations as to the meaning and applicability to the term. Firstly, it needs to be specified whether this participation is, pseudo-participation (where no real decision making is allowed), partial participation (where equality of decision making is not allowed, but influence is), or full participation (where there is equality of decision-making).

Dill (1964) gives many reasons on the goodness of adapting participation in decision making, and they are:

- i. to ensure that decisions do get made, and that there is somebody with whom to talk over and evaluate the results;
- ii. to involve and motivate more people through making them feel that the decision was partly of their own creation;

- iii. to improve the quality of decisions by involving more of those who know something about the task at hand;
- iv. to train people in the handling and motivation of others;
- v. to make decisions efficiently and without wasting time or manpower.

Dill points out that these different reasons argue for different degrees of participation, and for participation by different people. These forms of participation are again seen as the gift of management and as Hoyle (1986: 99) says, “a balance between two forms of power, the legal authority of the head, and the professional authority of teachers”.

Holt and Murphy (1993: 175) suggest:

Before (some time ago) being a headteacher gave a person the power to act and behave like a “lord”. Now, power and influence are acquired from different sources. The contemporary school leader must be politically astute, a successful professional entrepreneur, a skilled mediator and an effective agent of change. Therefore, the bases of power now are sound knowledge of how organizations function, interpersonal relations, group dynamics, personal management and people’s value sets.

In the school situation the emphasis on academic results is clear, at the same time better relationships within the working environment are also important. This is in line with the assumption that when better relationships are achieved, and people are happier, better results occur as well (Bottery, 1992). Though there is much argument and evidence suggesting that increasing participation does produce better results, common sense will say that an organisation that can harness the enterprise, initiative and interest of its workers, and use their individual and local knowledge, can do better than one which does not use such energies.

5.0 THE MICROPOLITICS OF SCHOOLS AND THE CULTURAL PLURALISM

The political model of organisations provides a micropolitical perspective (Ball, 1987). In such models, the structures of organisations are created and recreated continuously through the interactions of parties interested in them. This model, unlike the interpersonal model, offers a framework for understanding the interplay of power differentials between people with a stake in an organisation (Bacharach & Lawler, 1980). The study of school micropolitics and an increased understanding of how power is exercised in social institution will help us map out the ways in which different approaches to leadership affect the life of teachers in schools and which is very much related to the working situations and effectiveness/progress of schools.

Blase and Anderson (1995: 15) explain that leadership style refers to types of political strategies employed by leaders and the forms these strategies take. Micropolitically they demonstrate open and closed leadership. At the open end principals’ actions are more towards diplomacy and subtle forms of control and at the closed end are characterised by avoidance, defensiveness and protection. The understanding of leadership styles is important for generally they are adapted by headteachers in achieving larger goals for example to increase effectiveness of schools.

Adding to that, Blase and Anderson (1995: 16) remark that when this type of leadership and ‘followership’ become part of the school culture, the higher purposes of the educational enterprise often get lost or distorted amidst political bargaining. The transactional leaders adopt either closed (authoritarian) or open (facilitative) administrative styles. Transactional leadership in reality seldom raises issues related to urgent social realities. Even in schools with open leaders, transactions tend to be around narrow, individual concerns.

Transformative leaders according to Burns (1978) exhibit a more proactive style and attempt to move a school towards a larger vision or set of ultimate goals:

Such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.... Power bases are linked not as counterweights but as mutual supports for common purpose.... But transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus, it has a transforming effect on both (p. 20).

It is normal for transformative leaders to adopt either the closed or open leadership style. Closed transformative leaders often rely on their charisma and what they view as the moral rightness of their positions. Open transformative leaders blur the distinction between leadership and followership and attempt to find common purposes through dialogue. However, it is important to point out that all leaders, even transformational ones, do engage in transactional leadership to some degree.

The matrix above delineates two key dimensions of analysis, one representing micropolitical leadership styles and the other the goals of micropolitical leadership. Two independent dimensions are presented here, that is, one represents the open-closed continuum of leadership style and the other the transactional-transformative distinction within the leadership theory. Blase and Anderson however note that these approaches are seldom found in pure form, and should not be used as rigid categories. They are rather conceptual models meant to serve merely as aids in the analysis of such school micropolitics and leadership.

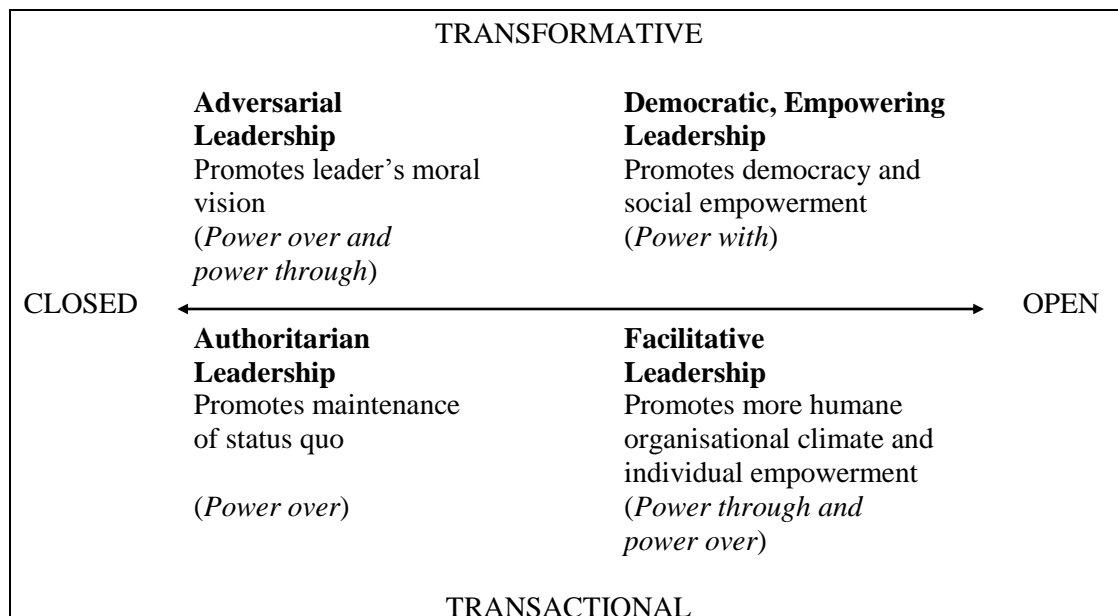


Figure 3: The Micropolitical Leadership Matrix (Blase & Anderson, 1995: 17)

In Figure 3, the closed transactional approach or authoritarian style of leadership is where the principals in these schools attempt to avoid, disable or ignore teachers, suppress dialogue, and exercise control through formal structures and the enforcement of policies and rules. This leadership style is a classic authoritarian style in which, at least, the ‘rules of the game’ are fairly clear to both teachers and principals. Transactions are usually formalised or ‘by the rules’. There is minimal negotiation and if there is any, it tends to be achieved covertly or openly.

Under the closed transformative approach or adversarial leadership, these principals, although fundamentally authoritarian in style, tend to be more proactive and are engaged in politics more publicly and with a greater appearance of openness. They too tend to be more confrontational and aggressive in achieving their goals. Adversarial principals are closed for they rarely share power. They are transformational in that they have strong ideological commitments that they promote aggressively.

As Ball (1988) describes,

There is a recognition of competing interests and ideologies in the school, and these are allowed to enter the formal procedures of discussion and decision making. Decision making is described by participants in the language of confrontation. They speak of ‘rows’, ‘battles’, and ‘challenges’. Here, then, headship is very much a public performance; the emphasis is on persuasion and commitment (p.104).

The reliance on a social style and the public exchange of views means that any challenge to the head’s authority must be a challenge to the person, or at least their views. Nonetheless, challenges are an accepted part of the form of micropolitical process generated by the adversarial style. The important point is the head’s ability to handle, to deal with these challenges. Crucial to this is the awareness, cultivation and the use of allies. The head’s allies, and opponents, come to be recognised as a part of the normal terrain of competing interests and ideological division among the staff. Allies must be encouraged, at times rewarded; opponents must be neutralised or satisfied, as the occasion demands.

Adversarial leaders have an aggressive bargaining style, and paternalistic leaders win allies through a warm, charismatic and dynamic style. The adversarial style of leadership represents a view of power as ‘power over’. Principals of both the authoritarian and adversarial styles tend also to exercise power in more traditional ways, both through decision making in public arenas and the avoidance of decision making. Adversarial leaders, because they are often highly motivational, often also exercise power through the mobilisation of efforts by teachers, and other members of the school board.

Open principals have succeeded in using less reactive and more diplomatic micropolitical strategies. However as Blase (1989: 389) says, “leaders are also willing to employ tactics that were indirect, subtle and somewhat covert. Such tactics are considered manipulative because the ‘target’ remains unaware of the influence”. Nevertheless, we can say that some form of micropolitical manipulation is probably inevitable in organisations, regardless of leadership style. Open ‘human relations’ styles of leadership are now routinely regarded as more effective mechanisms of bureaucratic control.

Open transactional approach is also often referred to as ‘cultural’ or ‘facilitative’ leadership. Commonly found in the USA, the management style is currently chosen by the site-based management and the school restructuring movements. It follows a discourse of change and

participation while engaging in bureaucratic manipulation towards pre-established goals. This style is much better than the 'power-over' orientation in the sense that there is increased opportunity for participation and a more humane and professional school climate. Power is exercised by achieving goals through motivation of others and still depends on a hierarchical system in which overall goals are determined at the top.

The open transformative style is democratic in its approach and in its processes of decision making as well as in its fundamental concern with goals of equity and justice within educational institutions and in the broader communities. Micropolitics becomes a genuine exchange of opinions because of the emphasis on a 'power with' approach to decision making, in the sense that virtually anything can be questioned or challenged without fear.

The emphasis in this quarter is on leadership as a form of empowerment. In this situation teachers need not look to a particular role-player (e.g. headteacher) to empower them. Rather, empowerment points to the capacity of individuals in collaboration to empower themselves. Power is not so much transferred as it is released through interpersonal transactions.

This form of empowerment does not simply have teachers alone to be autonomous professionals within their own classrooms, but engages them in a larger mission of students and community empowerment. Democratic / empowering leadership defines democracy as more than mere participatory management or teacher empowerment. Democracy is closely identified with issues of equity and justice at all levels of institutional and social life. However Blase and Anderson (1995) comment:

Unfortunately, the field of education and particularly the subfield of educational administration tend to promote very narrow definitions of democracy and empowerment, both in terms of who is viewed as worthy of holding power and in terms of what issues are legitimate for power-sharing (p. 22).

In the Malaysian context, the type of management desired is the open human relations style described as a more effective mechanism of bureaucratic control. However, as is the case everywhere, there are headteachers who still apply the closed paternalistic type of management despite the call by the Malaysian Ministry of Education otherwise (Wan, 1993).

6.0 POWER AND EMPOWERMENT

Power and empowerment are directly linked with democratic leadership. Therefore, it is important to understand their principles and usage. Being empowered means to have choice and control. Empowerment has two dimensions: structural and psycho-social (Keith & Girling, 1991). Structural changes can affect the positional power and increase employees' satisfaction. Flat, as opposed to hierarchical-structured organisations appear to increase satisfaction for there is greater opportunity to exercise authority by all members of the organisation. Carpinter (1971) said that the possibility of participating in the definition of the organisational goals and strategies contributes to a person a greater sense of mastery and esteem. Employees at the lower levels of the organisational hierarchy feel fulfilment of their psychological needs, experience greater identity, and are more co-operative.

Headteachers who empower their teachers with the relevant organisational and educational matters unlock hidden capabilities. The psychological aspect of empowerment is the degree to which the school community as a whole has a perceptual sense of control over its environment. In this case the level of empowerment is often fragile and in such a situation it is the personalities involved that most often influence the level of empowerment.

Leaders who practise the principle of power investment, in a way are bonding together their subordinates. They distribute power among others in an effort to get more power in return. These leaders know that it is not power over people and events that counts, but power over the likelihood and possibility that accomplishments and shared goals and purposes will be realised. To gain control over the accomplishment of shared goals leaders recognised that they need to delegate or surrender control over to other people. As Sergiovanni (1991: 137) said, “In a non-linear and loosely connected world they are resigned to the reality that delegation and empowerment are unavoidable”.

Teachers, when directed and fuelled by empowerment, will respond not only with increased motivation and commitment but with ability as well. Intelligent headteachers should thus follow the empowerment rule set by Sergiovanni (1991: 138), “everyone is free to do the things that make sense to them providing the decisions they make about what to do embody the values that are shared”.

7.0 RESTRUCTURING OF SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

To succeed in future undertakings, Malaysian policy makers and educators must be able to restructure their institutions and the people involved (Jemaah Nazir Sekolah, 2007). Andy Hargreaves (1994) notes on restructuring and the importance of collaboration:

If restructuring is, in some fundamental sense, about the construction of school power relationships, then we would expect the working lives of teachers to be organized not around principles of hierarchy and isolation, but ones of collaboration and collegiality. Indeed, while there are many meanings of restructuring, the principle of collaboration has become central to almost all of them, be this collaboration among teachers, or between teachers and principals, students, parents and the wider community (p. 244).

The challenge of restructuring in education and elsewhere is a challenge of down-sizing ‘bureaucratic controls’, ‘inflexible mandates’ and only obeying orders from the ‘top’ to something which is ‘good’ for everybody- partnership and collaborative management at all levels. It is a challenge of opening up broad avenues of choice which respect teachers’ professional discretion and enhance their decision making capacity. It is a challenge of building trust in the process of collaboration, risk and continuous improvement as well as more traditional kinds of trust in people. And it is a challenge of supporting and empowering school cultures and those involved in them to develop change themselves on a continuing basis (Institut Aminuddin Baki, 2006). Andy Hargreaves (1994: 260) also points out that:

In relaxing or relinquishing administrative control, the challenge of restructuring in post-modern times is also one of not losing a sense of common purpose and of commitment with it. In trading bureaucratic control for professional empowerment, it is important we do not trade community for chaos as well.

It must be remembered that restructuring is not an end to overcome problems in Malaysia but a beginning; a chance to set new rules for new purposes and new learning in a newly constructed world. In tune with the post-industrial paradigm, there is no one best model and no singular certainty. There will be better and worse forms of practice, and practices that suit some contexts more than others. The important task, therefore should be to identify, portray and assess a range of restructuring models to create menus of choice for educators to apply and adopt in their own settings, rather than mandates of imposition with which they must comply, whatever their circumstances.

Though the prospects for the future remain uncertain, Andy Hargreaves (1994: 261) says, “The one sure thing is that we cannot cling to the crumbling edifice of the modernistic and bureaucratic present with its departments, hierarchies and cubby-hole structures of schooling”. This situation is yet to be seen happening in Malaysia. Murphy (1991: 69) in his concluding comment pronounced this:

The traditional bureaucratic structure which has characterised school systems for over a century will quickly disappear. Some people may view such possibility with great scepticism, but many unbelievable changes have occurred in recent years. One only has to consider advances in communication technology to realise the pace.

8.0 CONCLUSION

I discussed the increasing complexity of schools, new curricular arrangements and the community responsibilities of schools which have all served to focus minds on the need to develop alternative styles of leadership. McMullen (1991:167) claims that schools which make a positive contribution to an individual teacher’s development are characterised by certain features, such as free-open discussions of issues, ownership by teachers of both problems and solutions, an effective evaluation system, and a school management with a directed vision for the future. It is suggested therefore, rather than relying upon the traditional, hierarchical models of managerial leadership there has been a determined exploration of alternative styles, which seek to engage others in a commitment to change, to involve others in decision making, rather than being the recipients of handed-down decisions.

When teachers are empowered to act, they become more self-confident, more willing to take the initiative, solve problems, take decisions and develop policies for the schools. In such circumstances, staff become more responsible for their work, they are more likely to become motivated, receptive to change and creative. This in the end will benefit the children in the school.

Lastly, in this paper I have tried to show the relationship between management style, the organisational environment, and educational effectiveness in schools. This issue is problematic because it is difficult to pinpoint exactly the cause of effectiveness in schools. The literature mentioned tried to see the connection and reasons why collaboration is to be studied and how it is

important in achieving school effectiveness. Perhaps this will be useful later for other researchers to explore and discuss the connection between school effectiveness and collaborative management styles of headteachers, if there is any.

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