Mapping the International Knowledge Base of Educational Leadership, Administration and Management: A Topographical Perspective

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**Abstract:**

This study mapped the international knowledge base of educational leadership, administration and management (EdLAM) from a topographical perspective. Altogether 1,651 publications from 18 peer-reviewed English journals published between 2007 and 2016 were reviewed. Combining bibliometric and content analyses, we identified 55 countries and regions that produced EdLAM publications. About half of the publications came from five Anglo-Saxon countries, a quarter from Europe and a quarter from four emerging regions (Asia, Middle East, Africa and Latin America). In each cluster of countries, key EdLAM research themes were identified and illustrated with reviewed literature. The overall development trends of EdLAM research include the continuous theorisation and empirical investigation of EdLAM, the increasing critical voices against Neoliberalism and the New Public Management in education, the growing awareness of contextualising EdLAM research locally, and the rising value of comparative studies.
Mapping the International Knowledge Base of Educational Leadership, Administration and Management:

A Topographical Perspective

Meng Tian\textsuperscript{ab} (corresponding author)

\textsuperscript{a}Department of Education, University of Bath, Bath, the U.K.

mt2017@bath.ac.uk    +44 7947 981281

\textsuperscript{b}Institute for the Management and Economics of Education, University of Teacher Education Zug, Zug, Switzerland

Stephan Gerhard Huber

Institute for the Management and Economics of Education, University of Teacher Education Zug, Zug, Switzerland

stephan.huber@phzg.ch

Dr. Meng Tian is a Lecturer/Assistant Professor at the Department of Education, University of Bath, the U.K. Her research interests cover distributed leadership, leadership for social justice and school leaders’ professional development. She has conducted several systematic reviews on mapping the development of educational leadership, administration and management research during the past two years when working as a senior researcher at the University of Teacher Education Zug, Switzerland.

Professor Dr. Stephan Gerhard Huber is the Head of the Institute for the Management and Economics of Education (IBB) at the University of Teacher Education Zug, Switzerland, Coopted Member of the Erfurt School of Education (ESE) University of Erfurt, Senior Research Fellow Hong Kong Institute of Education, and Adjunct Professor Institute for Education Research Griffith University Brisbane.
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Keywords: Educational leadership administration & management, literature review, bibliometric analysis, content analysis, science mapping

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Introduction

Past decades have witnessed a rapid development of educational leadership, administration and management (EdLAM) research. Since the 1980s, most EdLAM studies were conducted by Anglo-Saxon researchers and were about the Anglo-Saxon contexts (Hallinger and Bryant 2013a; Walker and Hallinger 2015). In the 1990s, publications from and about non-English-speaking countries started to increase (e.g., Gumus et al. 2018; Hallinger and Hammad 2017). Between 2015 and 2018, literature from Asia, Africa and Latin America had comprised over 40% of the full corpus in nine core EdLAM journals (Hallinger 2019).

Despite the expansion of EdLAM knowledge base, only few systematic reviews have synthesised the knowledge production and research themes from a topographical perspective. Following the post-modernist tradition, mapping the geographic spread of a research field enables us to acquire a better understanding of scholars’ choices of research questions and their interpretation of findings (Soja 1989). A review study also presents researchers’ explicative, comparative and heterogeneous academic discourses (Paulston and Liebman 1994). In this article, we aimed to map the EdLAM international knowledge base from a topographical perspective.

Method

This review employed the mixed-methods design, combining bibliometric and content analysis methods. In the Education Resources Information Centre (ERIC) database, we searched for peer-reviewed journal articles published in 2007-2016 that contained the keywords educational leadership, educational administration or educational management in titles, keywords or abstracts. From the 3,243 search results, 18 journals with a specific focus on EdLAM research and had published at least 20 articles were selected. The journals’ $h$-index ranged from seven to
87, suggesting a broad spectrum of research impact (Lacasse, Hodge, and Bean 2011). Then we refined the research context to K-12 education, excluding EdLAM publications about early childhood, higher, adult, special or vocational education. The whole literature review corpus contained 1,651 articles (Figure 1).

<Insert Figure 1 here>

The data analysis started with exporting the bibliometric information (i.e. author(s), publication year, title, journal, keywords and abstracts) from the ERIC database to a reference management software, Zotero. The bibliometric analysis identified the countries that had been empirically studied and the corresponding publications (Diem and Wolter 2013). Nations and regions with distinct education systems (e.g. England, Scotland, China and Hong Kong) and all the participating countries in comparative studies were counted separately. Based on the research production, countries were divided into clusters.

To identify research themes related to each cluster of countries, the bibliometric information was processed in the VOSviewer software (version 1.6.5). Based on the Kullback-Leibler divergence theory, keywords with a stronger connection had a higher chance to co-occur in publications (Van Eck and Waltman 2011). Keywords that were frequently shown together in publications suggested a research theme. In this review, the minimum occurrence threshold was set at five, meaning a keyword had to appear at least five times to be included in the analysis (Van Eck and Waltman 2013). The correlation strengths of the keywords were calculated and visualised in VOSviewer. Research themes were synthesised on the basis of keywords correlations.
Lastly, articles under each theme were examined using the content analysis method. Articles’ research questions, contexts and key findings were coded and synthesised. To illustrate various research themes, key studies were presented in the Findings as examples.

Findings

Knowledge production: the changing dynamics among Anglo-Saxon countries, European countries and emerging regions

From the 1,651 reviewed articles, altogether 55 countries and regions were empirically researched in 2007–2016 (Table 1). According to their knowledge production in EdLAM, the bibliometric analysis yielded three clusters of countries: five Anglo-Saxon countries, various European countries and four emerging regions.

<Insert Table 1 here>

The statistics confirmed the five Anglo-Saxon countries (i.e. The U.S., Australia, England, Canada and New Zealand) to be the most productive countries that contributed 51% publications to the whole corpus. The U.S. was leading with 354 articles. Australia and England yielded 171 and 194 articles respectively, followed by Canada with 69 and New Zealand with 54 articles.

Various European countries in total contributed about 25% to the corpus. Countries in the Northern and Western Europe (e.g. Denmark, Norway, Sweden, the Netherlands, Scotland and Wales) were relatively more productive than the ones in Southern and Eastern Europe (e.g. Italy, Malta, Portugal, Russia, Serbia and Spain).

Countries in Asia (n= 166 articles, accounted for 10% of the total corpus), Middle East (n= 117, 7%), Africa (n= 64, 4%) and Latin America (n= 56, 3%) formed four EdLAM emerging regions. Surprisingly, publications from Hong Kong, Israel and South Africa have surpassed
most European countries during the past decade. Singapore and Turkey followed closely. Furthermore, articles from Hong Kong, Thailand and Malaysia were often co-authored by Anglo-Saxon and indigenous researchers (e.g., Walker and Kwan 2012; Othman and Muijs 2013; Jones et al. 2015), suggesting scholars’ international collaboration has largely contributed to the EdLAM knowledge co-production and exchange.

**Knowledge content: Mapping research themes within country clusters**

**Five Anglo-Saxon countries**

The first research theme in five Anglo-Saxon countries was the impact of EdLAM on students, teachers and schools. In New Zealand, school improvement and accountability were examined in relation to students’ access to education, academic achievement and achievement gaps (e.g., Fletcher et al. 2011; Robinson, McNaughton, and Timperley 2011). In Australia, studies measured the impact of instructional leadership on school’s finance, school-based management and teachers’ job satisfaction (e.g., Eacott and Norris 2014; McShane 2012). In many U.S. states, legislation had mandated students’ academic achievement data to be used in teacher and principal evaluations. Several studies questioned its ethical foundation and measurement biases that affected schools’ personnel decisions and strategic planning (e.g., Shatzer et al. 2014; Urick 2016). Also, except for Asian-American students, white students outperformed other ethnic minority students on all standardised tests in the U.S. (e.g., Marx and Larson 2012; Templeton 2011). Meanwhile, schools with white students were better funded than the schools with multi-ethnic students. Scholars worried about the achievement-based funding system to further widened the performance gap (Rojas-LeBouef and Slate 2011).

The second research theme dealt with school leaders’ traits, leadership styles and values. Urick and Bowers (2014) found that American principals practised several leadership styles
simultaneously to match their school contexts. Other studies suggested instructional leadership and transformational leadership to be two desirable leadership approaches (e.g., Boberg and Bourgeois 2016; Mette and Scribner 2014). In England, studies revealed that the success or failure of a school reform largely depended on the school leader’s organisational capital management skills and networking competence with external stakeholders (e.g., Close 2016; Hargreaves 2011). Publications from the International Successful School Principal Project (ISSPP) scrutinised school leaders’ personal traits such as integrity, high energy, sensitivity, enthusiasm and persistence in Australia and England. Findings underlined that the meaning of successful principals had been expanded from enhancing students’ academic achievement to turning around under-performing schools and sustaining the achieved success (e.g., Drysdale and Gurr 2011; Ewington et al. 2008).

The third theme centred on different collective forms of leadership such as teacher leadership and distributed leadership. Studies from the U.S. agreed that extending leadership to more people entailed a complex change process (e.g., Bredeson 2013; McKenzie and Locke 2014). In Australia, positive correlations between teacher leadership and teachers’ job satisfaction as well as organisational commitment were found (De Nobile and McCormick 2008). Another multi-case study confirmed principal’s critical role in enabling senior executive teams’ leadership potentials, although it was challenging to synchronise principal’s leadership and distributed leadership in one context (Barnett and McCormick 2012).

The fourth research theme scrutinised EdLAM in the era of neoliberalism and the New Public Management. In the U.S., educational policies such as the No Child Left Behind Act 2001, Race to the Top, Common Core State Standards and Elementary and Secondary Education Act were heavily debated in academic discourses (e.g., Shanahan 2013; Williams 2015). When
facing the increasing competition and high-stakes accountabilities, not all the reforms had brought positive results. American principals often felt poorly prepared for their work (Cravens, Goldring, and Penaloza 2012). In England, neoliberalism affected education privatisation, school choices, inspection and educational leaders’ political attitudes. Alternative forms of schools such as Academies and free schools led to uneven development of schools’ visions, quality and ethos (e.g., Czerniawski 2012; Wilkins 2015). English principals constantly faced power tensions with local authorities, sponsors, parents and teachers (Salokangas and Chapman 2014). In Australia, the increasing competition between private and public schools appeared to widen the inequalities in resource provision and distribution (Smyth 2008). Against this background, researchers sought for different funding systems to bridge the gap. Nir (2007) suggested a needs-based funding system to enhance schools’ pedagogical potentials. In Bandaranayake’s (2013) study, a formula-based funding system for public schools was explored.

The fifth theme on school leaders’ well-being, resilience and spirituality was drawn from studies in Canada and New Zealand (e.g., Fitzgerald 2009; Stephenson 2013). Along with the societal changes, female principals in Catholic schools started to gain more leadership responsibilities to negotiate with religious authorities in a traditionally male-dominant work environment (Collins 2014). Another study confirmed principals’ spirituality to enhance their resilience at work (A. Gibson 2014). School leaders’ self-awareness, critical self-reflection, relational trust and personal resiliency also contributed to school leaders’ well-being (Notman 2012; Notman and Henry 2011).

Various European countries

From the research conducted in Europe, the first theme problematised the EdLAM quality assessment and quality control. In Germany, to better support principals’ leadership work,
internally generated data appeared more useful than external data produced by international student assessments and school inspections (Demski and Racherbäumer 2015). In the Netherlands, some school leaders found the school quality report to increase transparency while others perceived it to stimulate dishonesty and cheating (Hofman, de Boom, and Hofman 2010). Quality assurance and evaluation had been dominating the Danish education policy-making in recent years. Andersen, Dahler-Larsen and Pedersen (2009) criticised this policy for yielding unreliable results and arousing tensions. A Swedish study perceived quality to be an elusive concept and questioned the existing evaluation tools for not being grounded in theories (Flygt 2009).

The second theme centred on school leaders’ job satisfaction and coping strategies. In Cyprus, principals’ leadership autonomy seemed to affect their job satisfaction and work-related stress. In an ideal autonomy model, principals had the autonomy to decide on academic, managerial, financial and personnel issues, while educational authorities managed teaching materials, teacher placements, promotions, payroll and dismissals (Nicolaidou Solomou and Pashiardis 2016). In Germany, excessive administrative tasks had burdened principals and extended their working hours. To ease principals’ workload, an obligatory legal frame for regulating leadership responsibilities, rights, duties and work time allocation was proposed (Brauckmann and Schwarz 2015). Another German study found that vice-principals’ perceived competence and the meaning of work predicted job satisfaction. Hence, providing cross-mentoring with experienced principals and meaningful leadership work would enhance vice-principals’ job satisfaction (Schermuly, Schermuly, and Meyer 2011).

A study in Scotland reported excessive paperwork and multiple accountabilities to raise principals’ stress. In response, Scottish principals applied coping strategies including dutiful
compliance, cautious pragmatism, quiet self-confidence, bullish self-assertion and defiant risk-taking (MacBeath, O’Brien, and Gronn 2012). A Greek study identified seven key factors behind principals’ job satisfaction, including the superior’s role, salary and financial rewards, job satisfaction, cooperation among educators, school environment, promotion opportunities and school goals (Saiti and Fassoulis 2012).

The third research theme focused on school leaders’ impact on teachers’ collaboration, participation in decision-making and job satisfaction. When comparing primary and secondary school teachers’ collaboration in the Netherlands, Honingh and Hooge (2014) found that principal’s support was essential for both groups. However, primary school teachers also sought for active participation in curricular and instructional decisions. In Greek schools, principals tended to let teachers decide more on student and teacher-related issues but less on school administration. Even so, teachers’ job satisfaction was only weakly and indirectly linked to their actual participation in decision-making and this impact was mediated by school climate (Sarafidou and Chatziioannidis 2013). In Belgium, Hulpia, Devos and Rosseel (2009) found that teachers’ organisational committed increased when the leadership team provided cohesive support, shared goals and clear roles. Mediated by the organisational commitment, teachers’ job satisfaction was enhanced as the result of distributed leadership. In Swedish schools, Liljenberg (2016) discovered that depending on school leaders’ design, three teacher leadership modes were applied: coordinating, change-focused and learning-facilitating. These modes supplemented the existing teacher leadership findings from the Anglo-Saxon contexts.

The fourth theme surfaced challenges faced by school leaders. School mergers in the Netherlands brought communication problems to high schools. Zwijze-Koning and de Jong (2009) suggested school leaders to institutionalise participative decision-making and bottom-up
management, develop strong empathy and show more appreciation to teachers. One Italian study uncovered that in the era of the New Public Management, private school principals’ strategic decisions and autonomy were strongly directed by tests results (Agasisti, Bonomi, and Sibiano 2012). Meanwhile, public schools in Switzerland started to standardise its daily management work following a quality management framework (Hangartner and Svaton 2013). As part of the change, giving Swiss principals more leadership responsibilities was a new phenomenon, which challenged the school governing body as a traditional decision-maker (Huber 2011).

The fifth theme derived from several international successful school principal studies. In Denmark, one study showed that accountability, contracts and networks-based school governance had changed principals’ role from proactively setting school directions to reactively translating external expectations (Moos and Kofod 2009). Another Danish study explored how successful school principals had developed students’ academic competence and creativity simultaneously (Moos 2015). In Sweden, researchers revisited the case schools. Despite of the change of principals, they found that the teachers had sustained schools’ high performance by maintaining the culture of trust, dialogue and collaboration (Hoog, Johansson, and Olofsson 2009). Another study compared leadership in Swedish and American schools (Merchant et al. 2012). The findings revealed different philosophies about social responsibility and individualism in the two countries, although both systems aimed to achieve social justice in schools. One Norwegian study confirmed that successful principals positively enhanced teachers’ motivation, commitment and school development, although they faced constant contradictory external expectations (Moller et al. 2009). In Cyprus, one study summarised the successful school principals in rural schools to have the features of practising people-centred leadership, sharing
values and visions, emphasising learning, using external networks and managing competing values (Pashiardis et al. 2011).

**Emerging regions**

**Asia**

In Asia, instructional leadership was at the core of many EdLAM studies. A Japanese study explored how a principal turned around a low-performing school using lesson study to set learning as school’s top priority, to involve teachers and to integrate cognitive learning with social development (Saito and Sato 2012). An Indonesian study surfaced two pre-conditions for instructional leadership, school personnel transcending the leader-teacher boundaries and working collaboratively for enhancing students’ achievement (Sofo, Fitzgerald, and Jawas 2012).

Instead of directly importing the Western concepts and tools of instructional leadership, Asian scholars tried to incorporate local contexts in their theorisation. In Taiwan, due to the lack of legal authority, principals often executed instructional leadership indirectly by creating a supportive working environment for teachers (Pan, Nyeu, and Chen 2015). By contrast, Chinese principals appeared to have more power to directly supervise teachers’ teaching, but their instructional leadership was externally measured by educational authorities and inspectors (Walker, Hu, and Qian 2012). Another Chinese study revealed the curriculum reform had brought three conflicting cultural values to school leaders, the compliance culture, the examination culture and the new pedagogic culture (Yin, Lee, and Wang 2014). In India, non-indigenous principals working in indigenous schools appeared to struggle more with the instructional time, mandated external curricula and locally developed curricula (Blakesley 2012). Similar challenges were faced by school leaders in Thailand. Since the 1999 educational reform,
little had changed in Thai principals’ roles and behaviours due to the lack of systemic instructional leadership training (Hallinger and Lee 2014).

The second shared theme revealed the challenges brought by educational governance and reforms. A Chinese study discovered that less-efficient schools tended to use fiscal resources less effectively. To improve schools’ sustainability, scholars have been exploring different financial management models for public education (Hu, Zhang, and Liang 2009). A Malaysian study uncovered that the differences between urban and rural schools did not lie in educational resources or parental involvement but in teachers’ perceptions on school climate. Rural school teachers tended to experience the school climate more negatively when they were dissatisfied with students’ low socio-economic backgrounds (Othman and Muijs 2013). Other challenges including inconsistent educational policies, conflicts between old and new values, discrepancies between the reform goals and implementation and the lack of professional preparation of school leaders were discussed in the articles from Indonesia (Parker and Raihani 2011), Thailand (Maxcy, Sungtong, and Nguyen 2010), Taiwan and South Korea (Lo and Gu 2008).

Distributed leadership was the third popular theme. A quantitative study in Taiwan confirmed distributed leadership to positively affect teachers’ academic optimism, and through which, to indirectly enhance students’ learning (Chang 2011). In China, one study explored the co-principalship model applied by international schools operating in multicultural contexts (Bunnell 2008). A Malaysian study found that distributed leadership manifested in the principal selecting teacher leaders while the principal’s formal authority was never questioned. Consequently, teachers had a low readiness to take up extra leadership responsibilities (Tahir et al. 2016). A study in Singapore discovered that different leadership was distributed to different leaders. Senior management team performed transformational leadership, while middle
management team provided instructional leadership. Both leadership teams exercised emotional leadership and strategic resource management (Seong and Ho 2012). In Indonesia, school-based management devolved power and authority, which challenged school council members’ role as the decision-maker. To successfully implement distributed leadership, Bandur (2012) called for more training to develop principals’ strategic leadership and more clarification on power, authority and responsibility with the council members.

The fourth key theme centred on principals’ leadership in successful schools. One Pakistani study summarised similar features of successful principals like in other countries, such as developing a shared school vision, promoting a collaborative culture, distributing leadership and maintaining good interpersonal relationships (Salfi 2011). Pisapia and Pang (2013) compared how principals in Hong Kong, mainland China and the U.S. used their influence. They concluded that managing and transforming were the two commonly used strategies across these countries, while bonding, bridging and bartering were used differently in each context. Local values appeared more important than societal values in determining which influence actions the principals adopted. Raihani (2008) presented an Indonesian case and found that schools’ continuous success was based on the Islamic values and principals’ leadership capacity in setting a shared vision and strategies, developing teachers and establishing networks. A study in Vietnam confirmed that besides principal’s leadership, teachers’ faith in their profession and school’s good reputation also sustained the success (Saito, Khong, and Tsukui 2012).

Although fewer Asian studies discussed social justice leadership, several studies provided important findings. In India, Richardson and Sauers (2014) found that principals regarded human rights as the foundation for social justice, with poverty and gender inequality the two major concerns. Principals from affluent schools exercised social justice leadership by teaching
empathy and humility to the students. By contrast, principals leading schools in extreme poverty offered learning opportunities to marginalised students. In Hong Kong, Szeto (2014) followed a principal’s personal development from an administrative leader to a leader of social justice. He concluded that social justice leadership entailed a sense-making process and its impact went beyond the school level. In Vietnamese schools, Jazzar and Hamm (2007) developed a social justice leader’s guide, highlighting the importance of understanding ethnic minority students’ needs, and based on which, making concrete and consistent policies.

Middle East
Firstly, EdLAM research from the Middle East tended to adopt alternative research perspectives to illuminate under-studied phenomena. Different from the assumption, Shapira-Lishchinsky (2009) discovered that to enhance Israeli teachers’ teamwork, the mentoring style should be different from rather than similar to the team culture. This misfit better stimulated teachers’ innovative thinking. In Israel, Oplatka and Tamir (2009) investigated female deputy principals’ career aspiration and found their low readiness to become principals. The dichotomy of principalship versus deputyship appeared to match the dichotomy of masculine versus feminine leadership. Hence, female leaders found the deputy principals’ position to better match their gender role. Cerit’s (2009) study concluded that principals’ servant leadership positively and significantly affected teachers’ job satisfaction in Turkish schools. Looking beyond the causal relationship between leadership and test scores, several Israeli studies measured students’ academic achievement in relation to school leaders’ capacities in managing school finance, conflicts and parental participation (e.g., Gavish and Oplatka 2012; Shaked 2016).

Secondly, studies from the Middle East provided ground-breaking findings related to local cultures. Against the background of the Israel-Arab conflict, Arar and Oplatka (2016)
compared one Arab-Muslim principal’s and one Jewish principal’s perceptions on social justice. They found that principals’ personal history, education, status and culture had shaped their national awareness and political stances on social justice. Against the same background, another Israeli study discovered that female principals faced challenges of being culturally and professionally accepted by the Arab education system, although their contributions to the schools were significant (Shapira, Arar, and Azaiza 2011).

In the United Arab Emirates, principals’ professional standards and evaluation were newly introduced. Stringer and Hourani (2016) criticised the new principal appraisal system to treat low-performing school principals unfairly because it evaluated principals’ performance according to teachers’ teaching performance. In Turkey, the highly centralised education system assigned much authority to district governors. However, due to the lack of financial resources and the pressure from national and regional authorities, district governors had to creatively exercise their leadership to support local schools (Erdem et al. 2011). Also in Turkey, Aydin and Karaman-Kepenekci (2008) conducted a ground-breaking study on social justice leadership. They found that teachers constantly monitored their principal’s actions and reacted when injustice took place. Another Turkish study discovered that the tolerance between teachers and school leaders had a limit. Principals or teachers being overly tolerant towards each other tended to become intolerant to their own roles in school (Karaman-Kepenekci and Aypay 2009).

Africa

Africa comprises many countries with distinct sociocultural and political contexts. As to EdLAM research, however, this review found most publications from South Africa and only some from Ghana, Kenya and Tanzania. Literature from other African countries seemed scarce.
One prevalent research theme from the South African literature dealt with leading schools with multiple deprivations. Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) summarised key dimensions of effective leadership in South African schools. Besides having a strong focus on teaching, effective principals tended to spend more time on incorporating different cultural values, mobilising resources in local community, creating a safe learning environment and supporting the most disadvantaged students. Another South African study underlined that effective school leaders had a strong focus on instruction, staff stability, high parental involvement and a collective culture (Maringe, Masinire, and Nkambule 2015). A third South African study discovered that leading with school’s internal assets such as the learning philosophy, time, commitment and accountability appeared more effective rather than relying on external assets (Chikoko, Naicker, and Mthiyane 2015).

The second shared theme discussed the challenges faced by school leaders. In Kenya, bureaucratic regulations and educational authorities tightly controlled school leaders and teachers. The lack of policy consistency, resources and good practices caused leaders’ and teachers’ frustration at work (Wanzare 2012). Bisschoff (2009) investigated how the mandated law-based school reform in South Africa went wrong. He uncovered the challenges such as the lack of skills, the gap between knowing and doing, the teacher-student tension and bureaucratic red tape. In Tanzania, a study revealed that most novice principals only received ad hoc apprenticeship with more experienced principals. Consequently, the lack of professional training led to principals’ limited roles in schools (Onguko, Abdalla, and Webber 2012).

The third shared research theme centred on inclusion and exclusion. In South Africa, principals in disadvantaged schools tended to prevent teachers from implementing inclusion policy due to the fear of losing power (Oswald and Engelbrecht 2013). A comparative study
investigated ethnically diverse schools in England and South Africa. The findings suggested that because ethnic minorities tended to cover insecurity by showing colour blindness in educational discourses, they failed to acknowledge their own identities in the two systems (Lumby and Heystek 2012). Gender-based leadership was another key topic related to inclusion in the articles from Ghana and South Africa. In Ghana, a study found that female principals tended to use more transformational leadership and creative thinking than their male counterparts at school (Agezo 2010). Facing both gender and cultural challenges, two South African studies showed that female leaders relied on their own spiritual, moral and maternal values to shape their roles. Like their Ghanaian counterparts, they also demonstrated a more relational, inclusive and compassionate leadership style than male principals (e.g., Diko 2014; Faulkner 2015).

**Latin America**

Latin America in this study is defined as all the countries south of the United States in the Americas. In this region, the first research theme examined the impact of EdLAM on school effectiveness. In Chile, a study on improving students’ academic achievement in a challenging school proved two leadership strategies useful: nurturing teachers’ high expectations and sharing a common vision (Ahumada, Galdames, and Clarke 2016). Another Chilean study found that teachers used assessment standards to support reflection and instructional leadership (Rucinski et al. 2009). In Ecuador, a study discovered that incorporating moral leadership in leadership training had transformed school leaders and benefit the community at large (Menking 2008). All these findings echoed the literature from other parts of the world.

Besides these positive impacts, EdLAM leaders also faced problems in practices. In Jamaica, leadership resources congregated in the hands of school principals. However, when teachers facing the challenges of overcrowding, absenteeism and poor teaching resources, they
received little support from the principals (Hutton 2016). In Argentina, Meo (2015) discovered that because principals were both the actors and subjects of the inclusion policy, their limitations in policy interpretation sometimes led to inequality in education. In Chile, researchers criticised the managerial culture for using test-based teacher incentives to sabotage teachers’ trust and collegiality (Montecinos et al. 2014).

The second research theme on EdLAM policy benchmarking and comparison derived from comparative studies. Weinstein and Hernandez (2016) scrutinised school leadership policies in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Dominican Republic and Peru. They criticised policy makers for translating Anglo-Saxon policies uncritically into Latin American contexts, which led to the lack of knowledge about local school leaders’ needs and the poor internal policy coherence. Another comparative study examined how school principals in Mexico, Central America, Colombia and the Caribbean perceived school mission statements. Findings showed that most principals operationalised their mission statements in daily work, while a minority reported the mission statements useless and not reviewed in their accreditations (Fayad and Yoshida 2014).

Discussion

Taking a topographical perspective, this study mapped the EdLAM knowledge production and themes between 2007 and 2016. The five Anglo-Saxon countries contributed about half of the publications to the whole corpus. About one quarter of the articles came from various European countries and the rest from four EdLAM emerging regions. The uneven research production can be explained by two reasons. Firstly, English, as a lingua franca in academia, gives Anglo-Saxon scholars the advantage to publish in international peer-reviewed journals. Secondly, these Anglo-Saxon countries have a longer EdLAM research tradition and more scholars. Echoing several
EdLAM regional reviews (Hallinger and Chen 2015; Walker and Hallinger 2015; Hallinger and Hammad 2017), we identified the increasing number of publications from Hong Kong, Israel, South Africa, Mexico and Chile had contributed to the rapidly EdLAM developed during the past decade. Hallinger and colleagues underlined that the growing investment and the supportive academic culture in the higher education systems can boost the local EdLAM research development (Hallinger and Bryant, 2013; Hallinger and Chen, 2015). On top of this, this review study found other underlying reasons. For instance, the increasing cross-national research projects (e.g. ISSPP, PISA) and scholars’ international mobility created more comparative studies and joint publications. In general, the traditional Western versus Eastern division of scholarship continued to blur.

Drawing on the identified research themes presented in the Findings, we synthesised the following EdLAM research development trends. Firstly, scholars have further developed EdLAM theories on instructional, transformational, distributed and system leadership by viewing leadership as a complex process (e.g., McKenzie and Locke 2014; Halverson and Clifford 2013). The transformation from a leader-centric to a practice-centric perspective was observed. When investigating the impact of EdLAM, researchers started to look beyond the causal relationships between leadership and test scores. More studies examined how EdLAM affected leaders’ and teachers’ wellbeing, job satisfaction and organisational commitment (e.g., Kose and Lim 2010; Margolis and Huggins 2012).

The second EdLAM development trend was the increasing critical voice from scholars. Neoliberalism and the New Public Management brought privatisation, marketisation, competition, standardisation and high-stakes accountability to many education systems around the world. On the one hand, scholars criticised the ongoing educational reforms for having a
narrow focus on performativity, eroding school leaders’ professional autonomy and creating unhealthy competition between schools (Serpieri, Grimaldi, and Vatrella 2015). On the other hand, Hall et al. (2013) warned that many EdLAM studies produced under the paradigm of New Public Management conceptually lacked the capacity to challenge this paradigm. In this review study, we found both critical voices worth listening. They revealed the risks of education globalisation that spread the same sets of standards and norms worldwide uncritically.

Although at the policy-making level, similar educational policies and reform attempts were found across different countries. The third EdLAM development trend, in fact, indicated the local scholars had become more aware of the local contexts. Instead of blindly applying many Western EdLAM concepts, theories or models, indigenous researchers conceptualised and theorised their EdLAM understandings in relation to the local societal changes and school demographics. Many findings had challenged some long-standing assumptions in the field or enriched the knowledge base with more substantial evidence.

Lastly, comparative studies in EdLAM played a key role in sustaining and expanding the research field. The reviewed corpus contained about 10% (155 articles) comparative studies. Both large-scale international research projects and small-scale transnational studies brought overarching research frameworks, designs and questions and produced valuable context-independent and context-specific findings. Being part of the comparative research, many traditionally under-represented countries had been investigated, and their unique contexts and findings became visible for international readers.

**Implications and limitations**

This study has several implications. For researchers, mixing bibliometric and content analyses allowed researchers to classify a large number of publications by clusters of countries and then
by research themes. With the increasing number of EdLAM studies, science mapping as a method has great potentials (Hallinger 2019). For policy-making, Hallinger and Bryant (2013b) worried about policymakers overly relying on research findings from the Western contexts. Indeed, our review detected some educational ideologies that had travelled around the world and caused shared challenges in practice. Therefore, this review is expected to inform policymakers about the critical voices from academia. For school leaders and teachers, from this study they could find some best practices from other contexts as well as many shared problems across different countries.

Lastly, this study had three limitations. Different from several reviews that used an exhaustive search method (Hallinger and Bryant 2013b; Walker and Hallinger 2015), this review used keywords search in the ERIC database to extract a larger number of articles from a wider selection of journals. Our selected journals had a specific focus on educational leadership, administration and management. Hence, the data selection may have excluded literature that did not contained the exact search keywords or published in other important educational journals such as Compare, Comparative Education Review and Comparative Education. This review was limited to the empirical EdLAM studies in K-12 education and excluded studies on higher, vocational, early childhood, adult and special education. Lastly, being limited to peer-reviewed articles published English, this review did not cover articles in other languages. To make indigenous research and regional scholarship more visible to international readers, we encourage scholars with language competences to publish in English as well as in their native languages.
References

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Figure 1. Eighteen core journals, the numbers of publications and h-index, 2007—2016.
Table 1. Fifty-five countries and their publication volumes in the 18 core journals 2007-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Publication volumes</th>
<th>Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Above 300</td>
<td>The U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100–200</td>
<td>Australia, England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50–100</td>
<td>Canada, Hong Kong, Israel, New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–50</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–25</td>
<td>Cyprus, Denmark, Germany, Greece, Mexico, Norway, Singapore, Sweden, the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Netherlands, Scotland, Turkey, Wales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5–10</td>
<td>Belgium, Chile, China, Finland, India, Japan, Malaysia, Northern Ireland,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taiwan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 5</td>
<td>Egypt, Ghana, Indonesia, Iran, Ireland, Italy, Jamaica, Jordan, Kenya,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Luxembourg, Malta, Morocco, Pakistan, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russia,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saudi Arabia, Serbia, South Korea, Spain, Switzerland, Tanzania, Thailand,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>United Arab Emirates, Vietnam</td>
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</tbody>
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