

**CHALLENGES AND
CONSTRAINTS:**

**A CASE STUDY
OF THREE TEACHER LEADERS IN A
TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL.**

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ABSTRACT

Many changes have occurred in the South African education field since 1994. New education policies came into existence that were aimed at shifting from the management practices, which have been traditionally top-down and authoritarian, to more democratic and participative styles of leadership and management. However, despite all the policies that have been put in place, relationships in the majority of schools remain hierarchical with very little shared decision-making. Many South African schools in reality are still organised as hierarchies. Despite the introduction of democratic decision making structures such as the School Management Team and the School Governing Bodies, in practice in many schools principals still make all the decisions and hand them down to the rest of the staff. Many principals find it difficult to change from a highly authoritarian, hierarchical way of thinking to one that requires sharing of control with teachers, parents and students. Therefore, the aim of this study was to find out how teacher leadership was enacted by Level one teachers in one township high school and to investigate the factors that either enhanced or hindered this enactment.

The whole study was conducted within an interpretive paradigm. I used this paradigm because as a researcher I believe that people define their actions by providing different interpretations of the situations they find themselves in. I also agree with Guba and Lincoln (1989) who state that the “evaluation outcomes are not descriptions of the ways things really are or really work” instead they “represent meaningful constructions that individual actors or groups of actors form to make sense of the situations they find themselves in” (p.8). Case study methodology was used to frame the investigation of the research questions. Quantitative data were collected through a survey questionnaire from all staff members who were my secondary participants. Qualitative data was collected from my three primary participants, through the use of focus and individual group interviews, self reflective journals and observations.

Findings show that participants were found to be leading mostly within the classroom and beyond the classroom working with other teachers in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities. Level one teachers' participation in the decision-making process was minimal and restricted to minor decisions. On crucial decisions their participation was not sought, instead they were given orders of what has to be done. Level one teachers were mostly involved in the management of administrative work or performing technical functions, they were not involved in leadership. Barriers to the development of teacher leadership that were identified were: hierarchical school structure, (specifically the School Management Team), lack of leadership capacity by level one teachers, lack of mentoring and resistance to change. Factors that can enhance the development of teacher leadership are: support by the SMT and other teachers as well as professional development initiative aimed at helping both SMT members and Level one teachers to develop a collegial relationship.

I therefore argue that Level one teachers are capable of taking on leadership roles provided the conditions are created and that the SMT support their leadership. For this kind of informal leadership to emerge a collaborative culture must be created so that Level one teachers can be part of the decision-making process on crucial matters pertaining to school life. The person who should be a leader is the one who possesses expertise on that particular matter, where position, level or experience does not matter.

DECLARATION

I, GOODNESS SIBONGILE NENE, declare that the work presented in this document is my own. Any references to work by other people have been duly acknowledged.

Signed:

I declare that this dissertation has been submitted with/without my approval.

Signed: Supervisor

Pietermaritzburg

Date: 15 December 2009.

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to make a contribution to the research and scholarship on teacher leadership in the South African school context. My interest in the study was motivated by a module on Teacher Leadership which constituted part of my course work for a Master of Education degree; I found that more studies had been conducted internationally about teacher leadership than in South Africa. Those studies are about the understanding of the concept teacher leadership, teacher leadership as a practice, barriers to teacher leadership development, benefits of teacher leadership as well as the conditions that promote the development of teacher leadership in schools. I then desired to know if the notion of teacher leadership could be applied in our South African school context or may be the difference in our context would be a key distinguishing factor.

The studies that have been conducted in South Africa show that teacher leadership is a relatively new concept both at the level of practice and at the level of research. The studies that have been conducted are about the *perceptions* of teachers of the concept of teacher leadership. I then identified a gap in the South African research viz. that there is very little research on the *enactment* of teacher leadership in South African schools, hence I decided to make this the focus of my study.

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the whole study. This is done by firstly, discussing the background and the context of the study, where I look at the South African education system in general and in particular, in the field of education leadership and management. I then justify the rationale for the study in greater depth than I have done above, and discuss the conceptualization of the study as a group research project. I then briefly present the research design and methodology. Lastly, I present an outline of what is contained in the coming chapters.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.2.1 South African society during the apartheid era

When the National Party came into power in South Africa in 1948, it ushered in a forty-six year period in which the government dedicated itself to securing “social, economic and political privileges of white minority at the expense of Africans, Coloureds and Indians” (Fiske and Ladd, 2004, p.24). This is where the policy of apartheid (separateness) was introduced to the South African society. Apartheid as a political and a social ideology was based “on the premise of preserving the national identity of South Africa’s four ethnic groups each of which has its own language, culture, history and social tradition” (Hyslop, 1999, p.51), which meant that they must live and develop independently of each other.

The introduction of apartheid led to the creation of homelands. The Nationalist party theory was that every African was linked by ancestry to a particular geographic area and he should be a citizen of that homeland rather than of South Africa (Fiske and Ladd, 2004). Those Africans, who were not needed by white employers for work in urban areas, were expected to physically move to their designated homelands and the ‘useful’ ones were allowed to remain close to urban areas, without political rights where they mostly lived under conditions of poverty. Christie describes how “the system of herding Blacks to their own geographic areas left 70 percent of the South African population with access to only 13 percent of the land, and most of that land was economically nonviable” (1985, pp. 235 - 236). This contrived social system required an elaborate set of laws that needed constant revision as opponents of apartheid discovered and exploited loopholes (Bush, 2006). The most hated regulations were the so called Pass laws, which required Black South Africans to carry, at all times, a personal reference book, or ‘pass’, documenting their racial identity and to present this to authorities on demand (Hyslop, 1999).

1.2.2 Apartheid education: a divisive and socially unjust system

The policy of apartheid did not only affect the society at large but it also brought massive changes to the education system, and the education of Black South Africans. The National Party passed the Bantu Education Act of 1953 which meant that this policy of apartheid was institutionalized in schools. During this era “schools were rigidly stratified on racial criteria” (Bush, 2006, p.443). Students had to learn and teachers had to teach within their own imposed racial categories of white, black, indian and coloured. As schools were structured in a racial hierarchy, white schools were the key beneficiaries of the resources and black schools were the most disadvantaged ones (Motala and Pampallis, 2001). The education Black South Africans received was poor in quality and “designed to keep them out of the modern sector of economy, thus ensuring a steady supply of cheap labour particularly for the agricultural, mining and domestic service sectors” (Fiske and Ladd, 2004, p.42).

This policy of apartheid resulted in the complete fragmentation of the education system with the creation of 17 education departments that were responsible for schools. Consequently, “education was separated from the world of work and training; schools had very little contact with the institutions for training teachers; in-service educators had little or no contact with colleges of education” (DOE, 1996, p.17). During the apartheid era, the administration of education was characterized by an approach which led to a “rule-driven, secretive and hierarchical management structure, infused with authoritarian and non-consultative management styles and cultures” (Department of Education, 1996, pp.19-20). Schools reflected the government’s hierarchical structure. Principals and teachers were at the receiving end of top-down management structures. They worked in a regulated environment and become accustomed to receiving direct instructions from department officials.

Power and control was not based in schools but rather it was exercised from the top, from the Minister of Education, the Director General for Education and the different racially defined Departments of Education (DOE). In schools, enormous power resided with the principals who controlled their schools unilaterally and autocratically. Similarly,

teachers 'controlled' students but they were also 'controlled' by the Department of Education which determined the curriculum to be taught and what not to teach. However, when it came to policy making, principals had very little power (DOE, 1996). A principal's task was to run the institution on a day to day basis but managerial decisions were in the hands of the Department of Education. This meant that the principal was more of an administrator rather than an educational manager.

1.2.3 Resistance to apartheid policy

Apartheid as a political and social ideology was strongly resisted by black South Africans from the time it was introduced. Some of the consequences of apartheid were that townships were overcrowded and there were inadequate facilities, like transport and housing (Hyslop, 1999). Problems like the Pass laws, influx control and compulsory homeland citizenship (Christie, 1985), were some of the conditions that made black people resist apartheid.

The economy of the country prior to June 16th Soweto uprising of 1976¹ was in recession. Many black workers were laid off, and unemployment rose. Many black matriculants faced poor employment opportunities, there was high inflation and food prices soared (Motala and Pampallis, 2001). Moreover, in the majority of black schools there was a shortage of classrooms and teachers. There was overcrowding and a high student-teacher ratio. Most black teachers were poorly qualified, buildings and equipment in black schools were of poor quality and there was a high failure rate among black learners. I agree with authors such as Christie (1985) who argues that the 1976 Soweto uprising was not solely about Afrikaans and Bantu Education; it was a part of a larger campaign of resisting the apartheid policy.

During the 1980s black schools became battle grounds against the apartheid system (Christie, 1985). Many schools were totally destroyed. This is where a culture of

¹ On 16 June 1976, 20 000 black students marched through Soweto in protest against the use of Afrikaans language as required by the apartheid government. The police opened fire and students responded with violence. Some students died. I am aware that the history of South African schooling is a complex one, which may require further discussion; however discussing it further was not the aim of this study.

resistance among staff and learners developed and in many schools the legitimate role of school management and leadership was undermined (McLennan and Thurlow, 2003). The consequences of resistance to the apartheid system, which lasted more than a decade, was that many black schools became dysfunctional and this led to the collapse of teaching and learning in many African schools. Resistance to apartheid “discredited many conventional education practices such as punctuality, preparation for lessons, innovation, individual attention and peer group learning” (DOE, 1996, 18). Black school principals found themselves in a dilemma because, on the one hand, they had to implement the Department of Education policies and, on the other hand, they faced criticism from the community (DOE, 1996). Resistance towards apartheid policy continued throughout the 80s in different ways and in different parts of the country until 1994.

1.2.4 South Africa as a democratic country

The year 1994 brought many changes to South African society. This was a year where people of all races were given a right to elect their own government. The African National Congress won the elections and they began the hard work of changing the constitution so that it reflected the characteristics of the democratic country that most South Africans envisaged. Many South Africans saw the democratic reform process as the start of essential changes to the state and its organs of governance and administration (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002). There was a profound hope amongst the vast majority of South Africans that a democratic state would, through its administrative and governance structures rapidly change society to achieve the goals that the majority of South Africa had articulated in the struggle for liberation and in the new, democratic constitution (Motala and Pampallis, 2001). The expectation was that the democratically elected government would “act decisively to redress the hatred that has been visited on the majority of the people by the exploitative and racist system of apartheid” (Hyslop, 1999, p. 142). Drastic changes were expected to effect the delivery of social services to the majority and “even to limit the power of conglomerate capital” (Fiske and Ladd, 2004, p.204).

Subsequent to 1994, South Africa has gained a significant measure of political freedom in the context of its apartheid past. However, initial feelings of excitement, of a sense of new beginnings and possibilities, have unfortunately been replaced by the reality of the shortage of resources available to respond to the large number of problems that the country faces. Levels of criminal violence are exceptionally high. People are angry and frustrated due to high numbers of unemployed people causing a multitude of social problems (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002). These cycles of violence and anger often spill over into schools and other educational institutions. Gang warfare threatens the lives of teachers and youth at schools, drugs and drug dealing occurs at many schools and schools are regularly torn apart by theft and vandalism (Motala and Pampallis, 2001). In addition to psychological issues such as violence and substance abuse, South Africa is facing the consequences of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. This challenge relates to all aspects of our life, including education.

1.2.5 Education in a democratic South Africa

Many changes have occurred in the education field since 1994. There has been a “marked deracialisation of the previously white or Model C schools” (Motala and Pampallis, 2001, p.42). Participation of parents, students and communities has been insitutionalised through the creation of School Governing Bodies (SGBs²). However, the legacy of apartheid is that some black schools still lack a culture of teaching and learning. Even today, South African educators complain that the students see little economic or other payoffs in academic achievements (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002). Teachers trying to battle such attitudes get little support from parents or other caregivers, most of whom are “struggling with a host of poverty-related issues raging from safety to psychological depression” (Fiske and Ladd, 2004, 84).

In respect of school leadership, new education policies came into existence which were aimed at shifting from the traditional authoritarian control to a more democratic and participative style of leadership and management. The South African Schools Act

² The South African Schools Act (84 of 1996) or SASA, made provision for the establishment of School Governing Bodies

required all public schools to review their management practices, which have been traditionally top-down and create a new way of leading and managing schools. The new approach calls for management to be “seen as an activity in which all members of an educational organization engage” and should “not be seen as the task of the few” (DOE, 1996, p.27). According to the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000), the Level one teacher is required to take on leadership roles in respect of subject / learning areas, contribute to professional development of colleagues and foster administrative efficiency within the school. Furthermore, in the Employment of Educators Act (76 of 1998), it is stated that management in education should be able to draw on the professional competencies of educators, build a sense of unity of purpose and reinforce their belief that they can make a difference. In a nutshell, this means that Level one teachers have a role to play in managing or leading the school. Therefore, my study is about finding out about the leadership role that Level one teachers play as scope for a leadership role is implicitly inferred in the above mentioned policy documents.

However, despite all the policies that have been put in place, relationships in the majority of school remain hierarchical with very little shared decision-making. The DOE has introduced democratic decision making structures such as the School Management Team (SMTs), comprising the principal, the deputy principal and heads of department in all public schools; as well the School Governing Body (SGB). However, in practice, in many schools’ principals still make all the decisions and hand them down to the rest of the staff. Many principals find it difficult to change from a highly authoritarian, hierarchical way of thinking to one that requires sharing of control with teachers, parents and students. “New principals are often unprepared professionally for management roles and lack leadership skills that are required when dealing with a crisis situation” (McLennan and Thurlow, 2003, p. 247). The reason for the current status quo is further compounded by the lack of capacity on the side of the SGBs on the roles that they are supposed to play, together with a lack of capacity of the principals on how to run schools in a democratic way.

1.2.6 A need to engage in teacher leadership

If South Africa is to break decisively with its past and implement its vision for an education system which has the improvement of teaching and learning at its heart, it needs to draw on the benefits of different approaches to education management and leadership. The Task Team Report on Education Management and Development of 1996 recommends three steps that South Africa need to take in order to achieve this desired outcome. The first step is to develop structures and systems appropriate to devolved decision making within the context of new policy legislation. The second step is to develop the leadership skills needed to manage people, lead change and support the process of transformation. The last step is to develop individual and team competencies, which refers to the understanding, knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to the day-to-day management of education. Furthermore, what is needed is the “development of structures in terms of planning and organizing, developing leadership skills and democratic leadership as well as facilitating collaboration and participation of all stakeholders in the school” (McLennan and Thurlow, 2003, 319). Similarly, the Task Team Report on Education Management and Development proposes an approach that is an “integrative and collaborative one; collaborative, in that it involves all staff and stakeholders, and integrative, in so far as it informs all management processes and outcomes in an organized setting” (1996, p.30).

This can be done through the process of distributing power by those who are in formal management positions. I argue that Level one teachers, through the concept of teacher leadership, can play a meaningful role in managing and leading school through informal leadership roles that they take on. As Harris (2004) argues, the relationship between a democratic, participatory style of leadership and a collegial school culture is one of the key factors in school improvement. This is in line with the Task Team Report on Education Management and Development of 1996, which says:

Decentralised leadership will be both formal and informal. Customarily formal leadership is exercised by people in positions of authority. More and more, informal leadership will be exercised by anyone in the education community who, by virtue of their skills or resources, is able to exercise influence on the conduct

of others. It is not always the person in authority who has most influence over decision making and practice. (DOE, 1996, p.40).

However, we would do well to heed Jansen's warning that, in the case of South Africa, "while an impressive architecture exists for democratic education, there is still along way to go to make ideals concrete and achievable within educational institutions" (2004, pp. 126 – 127).

1.2.7 Context of the case study school

It is self evident that schools exist within particular community contexts and that these contexts are part of what shapes the school and gives it its identity (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002). The case study school in my study is a township high school. The community where the school is situated is faced with many socio-economic challenges such as crime, a high rate of unemployment, poverty, drug abuse and the effects of HIV/AIDS. Family lives have been destabilised and some of these learners come from single parent families, either through separation or through mothers not having married their children's fathers. Often children do not live with their parents, but rather with grandparents or other relatives either because a child is orphaned through HIV/AIDS or the mother is working far away from home. In some families, the grandmother's pension money or the child grant is the only source of income.

The socio-economic problems faced by the community spill over to the school. In the case study school, these problems pose a lot of challenges and create a culture of apathy. Both teachers and learners are demotivated. Some of the basic school practices are not adhered to. For example, late coming of both teachers and learners is a problem and there is no plan in place to deal with this problem. In a process of dealing with these challenges, Davidoff and Lazarus (2002) remind us that schools are particular kinds of organisations because they are not autonomous. Therefore, a particular kind of leadership is needed in a situation like this. This is because almost all the solutions that the school can come up with to solve problems are "constrained by a whole range of policy, political and legal issues" (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002, p.6).

As a consequence, the school culture affects what happens in the classroom. Tolerating late coming in the case study school results in many learners arriving late in the morning, with some coming only when the first period after break begins. This has become part of the 'culture' of the school. This impacts directly and negatively on the teaching and learning. Many of the classrooms are overcrowded with a shortage of desks. The relationship between teachers and learners is strained as some of the learners are over age for the classes that they enrolled for. In certain subjects there is a shortage of textbooks. Learners are unable to afford additional resources that are needed in certain subjects such as calculators, computers, art and crafts materials to do arts projects, due to their family's socio-economic problems. All these problems affect the learners' ability to concentrate and focus on their studies.

The effects of the local community on the school, and the effects of the school culture in the classroom, lead me to one question: What can we do about the problems that learners and teachers experience in our schools which have adverse effects on the classroom environment and the quality of learning and teaching? Level one teachers spend most of their time in classrooms; they are first in the line to deal with the problems brought by learners to schools. This means that they cannot confine their leadership to the classroom, as what happens beyond the classroom affects what happens within the classroom and vice versa.

As a Level one teacher being confronted by these challenges, I saw a need to challenge my own enactment of leadership and to see where I could play a leadership role in dealing with some of these issues. For the purpose of this study a post Level one teacher refers to the educator in a public school, whose rank is a teacher. Her job is to engage in class teaching, including the academic, administrative, educational and disciplinary aspects as well as to organize extra and co-curricular activities so as to ensure that the education of the learners is promoted in a proper manner (Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998). Therefore, the purpose of this dissertation is to highlight the challenges that Level one teachers face in taking on leadership roles in my school and to illuminate the factors that would help them to take on leadership roles. I saw it as important to understand the context of my school as

teacher leadership enactment can differ depending on the context of the school. In addition, school context needs to be understood within the context of the community where the school is situated. This is because schools “both reflect and perpetuate broader societal values, they can and have perpetuated policies such as apartheid and they can and hopefully will support the development of a democratic South Africa” (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002, p.6).

1.3 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The motivation to conduct this study emanated from the challenges that I encountered in the process of implementing the National Curriculum Statement in 2007 - 2008, as a teacher in my school. This new curriculum demands teachers to plan their work together and to jointly take decisions with the management of the school. For successful implementation of this curriculum, Level one teachers have to be in charge of their work, both inside and outside the classroom. Their leadership is challenged to go beyond the walls of the classroom. The implementation of this curriculum is challenging to most educators, and especially the principals. This is because so much pressure is exerted on them for their schools to perform.

As a Level one teacher in a township high school, I came to the realization that it is not only principals who are responsible for the good performance of the school. All educators are responsible, even those who are Level one teachers. I then realized that if there is any meaningful role that Level one teachers can play, not only in the implementation of new curriculum but in all matters pertaining to school life, there should be a devolution of power where every educator can lead at every level irrespective of position, level, gender and experience. Unfortunately, this was not the case in my school. Leading beyond the classroom and taking crucial decisions’ pertaining to school life was reserved for those who were in formal positions and appointed by the Department of Education.

As indicated at the start of this chapter, it was during the coursework component of the Master of Education programme, and especially the Teacher Leadership module, that I

learned about the benefits of teacher leadership from the international literature such as Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999), Wasley (1991), Smylie, (1995), Silins and Mulford (2000), Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), Muijs and Harris (2003) and Gunter (2005). I then wondered about the benefits of teacher leadership for our South African context. Looking at the studies that have been conducted in South Africa such as Grant (2006), Rajagopaul (2007), Singh (2007), Khumalo (2008), Ntuzela (2008), Chattergoon (2009) and Pillay (2009), I found that teacher leadership is a relatively new concept, both at the level of practice and at the level of research. But the few studies of a qualitative nature that have been done are about the perceptions of teachers on the concept of teacher leadership rather than on the 'practice' or enactment of the concept.

In the light of the above, I determined that the following key questions would guide this study:

1. How is teacher leadership enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg?
2. What factors enhance or hinder this 'enactment'?

1.4 CONCEPTUALIZING A GROUP RESEARCH PROJECT

The following section provides a brief description of the process of conceptualizing the group project, of which my study is one component.

During the coursework component of the Master of Education programme, and especially during the Teacher Leadership module, brainstorming took place on conducting a research project as a group. There were 11 members in the group. Before agreeing to be part of a group research project, I decided to find out more about it from the Bachelor of Honours students, who had participated in a similar project of such nature. After much deliberation we then agreed to conduct a study as a group. After an extended engagement with relevant literature, we collaboratively developed our project research questions and designed our study. Furthermore, we planned contact sessions to meet and work on our group project. We met during those contact sessions and worked together in designing and refining the data collection tools. Our group project

was conducted in four high schools, three primary schools and one Further Education and Training College. The group of students which comprised the research team was made up of both males and females and there was a mix of Principals, Deputy Principals, Heads of Departments and Level one teachers. We agreed that in total we were going to track 30 teacher leaders and three lecturer leaders over a six month period. In my case this meant that I was going to track three teacher leaders in a township high school. We decided to conduct our individual studies in our own schools so that we could have a chance to get more nuanced answers to our research questions.

This meant that as a group we developed and worked with the same research questions, the same data collection tools but each tracked three teachers in our respective case study schools completely independently. We then each collected data using common instruments over a six month period, from October 2008 up to March 2009. What emerged were different findings which were 'context bound', in line with the view that the case study methodology (the approach used in this study) produces data that is context bound (Stake, 1999). The collection of the data, discussion of the findings and the actual writing of the dissertation was done individually by each of the 11 students in the group. Thus, the uniqueness of our individual studies is in the uniqueness of our three teacher participants enacting leadership in a particular school context.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

A case study methodology was used to frame the investigation of the questions in this study. In my study, three teacher leaders of a township high school in Pietermaritzburg were tracked over two school terms to examine how they enacted leadership. Opportunistic and convenience sampling was used to choose my school as a site of research as I decided to conduct the study in the school where I am currently teaching. This study was conducted within the interpretive paradigm because, as a researcher, I believe that people define their actions by providing different interpretations to their actions due to different contexts, and that knowledge is created through an interaction

between the researcher and the participant. The primary participants in my study were the three teacher leaders while the rest of the staff in my school were secondary participants. The data collection methods that I used were survey questionnaires, a focus group interview, individual interviews, self-reflective journals and observation. Thematic and content analysis was used to analyse data as was Grant's (2008) model of teacher leadership. The discussion of the findings was done through the theoretical lens of distributed leadership.

1.6 CONCLUSION

In this section I present the summary of what is contained in each chapter of the dissertation and indicate the links that exist between these chapters. In this first chapter of the dissertation, I introduced the whole study by discussing briefly the background and the context of my study, including a brief overview of the research methodology and design. This is because I believe that before finding out how teacher leadership is enacted in my school, it is important to understand the context of both the community and the country in which my school is situated. I also provided some insight into my motivation for conducting the study which is linked to the challenges that I faced in and beyond the classroom as a Level one teacher. Lastly, I discussed the group research project and briefly provided the research design and methodology.

The second chapter reviews the literature and the research published on distributed leadership and teacher leadership. I also look at the contested definition of distributed leadership, its potential benefits to a school, as well as critiques of the notion, mostly stemming from the shortage of research linking it towards improving teaching and learning.

The first part of Chapter Three describes the research design and the methodology used in greater detail. The second part of the chapter concentrates on data collection. A detailed description of how each tool was used is provided. Moreover, weaknesses and strengths for each tool are explicitly stated as well as how those weaknesses were dealt with. The third part of this chapter focuses on

data analysis where I explain how both quantitative data and qualitative data were analysed and presented. The last part of the chapter focuses on trustworthiness as well as the limitations of the study.

In the fourth chapter I present and discuss the findings which emerged from the data gathered using survey questionnaires, self-reflective journals, a focus group interview, observation and individual interviews as outlined in the methodology chapter. In presenting my findings, I use direct excerpts quoted from the data in order to illustrate the emerging categories and themes, to see whether they are divergent or convergent. I merge the data analysis with the discussion of findings. This is where I look at whether the practice of leadership in the case study school is authorized, dispersed or democratic (Gunter, 2005); in other words whether it is delegated, or emergent. Lastly, I discuss the barriers to the enactment of teacher leadership in the case study school as well the conditions that promote the development of teacher leadership in the school.

The final chapter of the dissertation presents the conclusions of the entire study. Firstly, I present the summary of the key findings that were discussed in Chapter Four. Secondly, I reflect on the case study methodology that I used in this research by discussing its strengths and limitations and making a judgement whether it was the best methodology or not, to use to answer the research questions. My reflection continues where I discuss the group research project as it was introduced in Chapter One; to see what worked and what challenges were experienced. I also make suggestions regarding whether I would recommend it or not to someone who wants to be part of a group research project. Based on the key findings, I then discuss a few recommendations on what can be done to promote the development of teacher leadership in schools. I conclude by suggesting a few research questions for further research on the topic of teacher leadership.

The next chapter reviews local and international literature on both distributed leadership and teacher leadership.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The Task Team Report on Education Management and Development of 1996 challenges school managers to move towards democratic and participatory styles of leadership and management. This is because the leadership of many South African schools remains with the traditional formal management structure at the top of the hierarchy. This is where the potential for teacher leadership is relatively untapped and, where it is enacted, it is often restricted (Singh, 2007). More recent research calls for distributed forms of leadership where all teachers are viewed as having the capacity to lead and where power is redistributed across the organisation (Grant, 2008).

The aim of the study is to find out how teacher leadership is defined and enacted in a South African high school context. Thus, the aim of this chapter is to review literature relating to the concept of teacher leadership as it is understood and practiced and also to look at what factors enhance or hinder this enactment. This is done by looking at the concept of teacher leadership within the framework of distributed leadership theory. Furthermore, this review is based on the premise that all teachers can take on a leadership role irrespective of their position or level. In this review I start by discussing the definition and understanding of the concepts of educational leadership, management and administration by different authors both internationally and locally. I then discuss the traditional view of leadership, where leadership is equated to headship. After that I move to a discussion of distributed leadership as my theoretical framework. Specifically I look at how distributed leadership is defined and understood by different authors, and I also comment on the forms of distributed leadership which I use in relation to my research in Chapter Four of this dissertation. Furthermore, I look at the barriers to the development of distributed leadership and the criticism leveled against the theory. The last part of this chapter focuses on the concept of teacher leadership specifically discussing how it is defined by different authors, looking at the factors that

promote its development and lastly discussing the barriers to the development of teacher leadership.

2.2 EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP, MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

The concepts of leadership, management and administration overlap in their usage and the usage of these concepts varies at different times, in different countries and across different professional cultures (Coleman, 2005). In the United Kingdom (UK) at present, (Coleman, 2005) leadership is seen as the most important of these concepts, management relates to operational matters while administration relates to tasks which are routine. However, previously (before 2005), management was seen as the broader concept and leadership was a subset of it. In contrast, in the United States of America (USA), the term 'administration' is held in high regard. Educational Administration in the USA means more or less the same as Educational Leadership in the UK. In South Africa, administration is understood to be more clerical and technical. It includes secretarial work, the management of information and material resources such as photocopy machines, administrative work such as the filling in of departmental forms etcetera (Grant, 2006).

2.2.1 Contestation between leadership and management

As suggested above, the field of educational leadership and management is "pluralist, with many competing perspectives and inevitable lack of agreement on the exact nature of the discipline" (Bush, 2006, p. 391). One key debate has been whether educational leadership is a distinct field or simply a branch of a wider study of management (Bush, 2006). On the issue of describing leadership and management, one finds that different authors describe these concepts in a different way. On the one hand there are those who make a distinction between leadership and management, and on the other side some authors argue that these concepts are related and they overlap in their usage.

2.2.2 Leadership and management as distinct concepts

Gronn (2000) distinguishes both these concepts by saying that leadership has a qualitatively different function from management. Furthermore he sees leadership as a quality that does not automatically come with status. Leadership is concerned with personal initiatives and new activities while management has both proactive and reactive aspects (Fiedler, 1996, cited in Thurlow, 2003). Moreover, West-Burnham (1992) writing in the UK context, states that leadership is concerned with values, vision and mission while management is concerned with execution, planning, organizing and developing. Added to that, Louis and Miles (1990) argue that leadership relates to mission, direction and inspiration, while management involves designing and carrying out plans.

Similarly, Bush (1996) uses concepts such as inspiration, mission, change, direction and doing the right thing to describe leadership. Terms such as designing and carrying out of plans, transaction or negotiation, systems and doing things right, are used to describe management. Kotter (1990) differentiates between these two concepts by stating that management is involved with activities such as planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing as well as control and problem solving. Leadership is about establishing direction, aligning people, motivating and inspiring them. In a rather different view, Bush (1998, 2003) links leadership to values or purpose while management relates to implementation of technical views. Davidoff and Lazarus (2002), writing in the South African context, state that leadership is about moving forward and having a sense of direction while management is about holding the school, establishing certainty, confidence and security and allowing for rest and reflection. Similarly, Cuban (1988) links leadership with change while management is seen as a maintenance activity. He believes that while management will often exhibit leadership skills, the overall function is towards maintenance.

2.2.3 Leadership and management as related concepts

A different set of authors describe leadership and management as related concepts that overlap in their usage. Davidoff and Lazarus (2002) argue that it is important to note that leadership and management are closely associated functions which cannot be attended to separately. I agree with Davidoff and Lazarus because in practice one person can be leading and managing at the same time. It becomes very difficult to draw a line as to which functions can be clearly categorized as leadership or management. They both involve deciding what needs to be done, creating networks of people and relationships that can accomplish an agenda and then they try to ensure that those people actually get the job done (Kotter, 1990). They are both in this sense complete action systems, neither is simply one aspect of the other. Sterling and Davidoff (2000) argue that in reality leadership and management work together and that they view these concepts as “two sides of the same coin” (pp. 12 – 13). I agree with them in saying a teacher in a leadership position cannot be an effective leader if he is an incompetent manager. This is because the functions of leadership and management are inseparable. I believe that they support each other and that there is also an area of overlap. This is because certain functions within the school involve both leadership and management functions. For example, functions such as strategic planning, vision-building, liaison with communities and parents can be identified as leadership functions, while functions such as staff meetings, co-coordinating the duty roster and administering the text books falls under the banner of management (Sterling and Davidoff, 2003). This raises questions about where would one classify functions such as decision-making, delegation, conflict resolution and staff appraisal. I believe that these functions fall into the categories of both management and leadership as it is impossible to clearly distinguish between them in practice. Added to that, Coleman (2005) argues that despite the different interpretations that can be put on them, the words leadership and management are often used interchangeably in everyday speech.

Looking at the South African situation, McLennan and Thurlow (2003) argue that the use of the concepts leadership and management is inconsistent and confusing. In the new legislation and policies, there is an emerging preference for

the use of 'management'. Courses and programmes in the field of Education, Leadership and Management offered in tertiary institutions are often similar in content and focus, and are variously designated as courses in "educational management, educational administration, educational leadership and even educational leadership and management" (Thurlow, 2003, p.26). Moreover, as mentioned earlier, the Task Team Report on Education Management and Development of 1996, challenges schools to review their management practices which have been traditionally top-down. This is where management is "seen as an activity in which all members of educational organisation engage" (DOE, 1996, p. 27). Grant (2008) state that in the context of South African government legislation the term 'educational management' is often used in preference to 'educational leadership'. According to her this means that there is a potential slippage in usage of the two terms or an emphasis on management processes at the expense of leadership.

Despite the above discussion and contestation of the meaning, understanding and/or definition of leadership, I agree with most authors who believe that leadership and management are equally needed in the school. The definition or description of leadership and management that frames this study is based on the idea that a leader cannot guide the staff team towards realizing a long term vision if the day to day management functions are not there to give structure and support. Similarly, "the managerial work of someone to co-ordinate day to day functioning of the school is undermined if there is no holistic view of the school long term development" (Grant, 2006, p.524).

As to whether more leadership or more management is needed depends on the situation of the individual school. Cuban (1988) attaches no special value to either of these terms as different settings and times calls for varied responses. For example, South Africa's underperforming schools (Ministerial Review, 2004; Pandor, 2006) require a greater emphasis on basic management, making the school functional, rather than a visionary approach. This may involve ensuring regular and timely attendance by learners and educators, maintaining order and

discipline in the classroom. Once schools are functional, leaders can progress to developing vision, and outlining clear aims and policies with confidence that teaching and learning is taking place (Bush, 2006). “Leadership and management is about balance, it is about having a picture of the whole, but attending to the parts; moving forward at the right time and staying put when it’s time to reflect” (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2000, p.287).

Looking at the concept of leadership specifically, Spillane (2006) states that leadership has been defined in numerous ways, and many perspectives on leadership have focused on "group, process, personality and its effects" (Bass, 1990, p.11, cited in Spillane, 2006, p.10). Bass, for example, defines leadership as the “interaction between two or more members of a group that often involve a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the expectation of the members” (1990, p. 12, cited in Spillane, 2006, p.11). On the other hand Harris and Muijs (2005) define leadership as providing vision, direction, and support towards a different and preferred state. Similarly, Spillane (2006) argues that leadership is not something that is done to followers, but followers in interaction with the leaders and situation contribute to defining leadership practice.

What emerges from these definitions is that effective leadership is inherently about challenging the status quo in order to bring about desired change. Furthermore, as the above definitions suggest, this desired change cannot be brought by an individual person, although, as the next section will show, the traditional view of leadership (which is still commonly found in schools around the world), equates leadership with an individual person.

2.3 THE TRADITIONAL VIEW OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

Traditional notions of school leadership usually focus on the ‘heroic’ leader. This refers to an individual, a sole leader, usually a principal, and it is also hierarchically focused (Wilkinson, 2007). This individual is viewed as a superhero who has worked so hard in bringing about the desired change to the organization (school). For example, Spillane (2006) discusses the story of Brenda Williams who

took over as a principal at Adams College on Chicago's South Side in the US. She became a success story as she managed to turn things around. This school was underperforming and the teachers were demotivated. This charismatic individual was even dubbed the 'superwoman' because of her hard work in that school. There are also numerous accounts of principals who are seen as the champions of their schools because of the difference they have made to their respective schools. These actions become the source of media attention, research investigation and policy making (Harris, 2005). All of these reinforce the message that leadership is primarily a singular rather than a collective activity. This individualistic view of leadership dominates the field of school leadership. It may be "typified as naive realism or belief in the power of one" (Gronn, 2000, p.219). It is based on the assumption that performance by an individual, team, or school depends on the leadership of an individual with skills to find the right path and encourage others to take it (Yukl, 1999). Gronn explains that:

Implicit in this kind of reasoning is a crudely abstracted leader – follower(s) dualism, in which inter alia, leaders are superiors to followers, followers depend on leaders and leadership consist of doing something to, for and on behalf of others (2000, p.319).

This would mean that principals as leaders in their schools are superior to their teachers, especially Level one teachers who depend on the principal for guidance and leadership, rather than taking a lead themselves.

2.3.1 Problems associated with 'heroic', individual leadership

There are a number of problems which are associated with the heroic view of leadership. The first is that it equates school leadership with school principals and their 'great' actions (Spillane, 2006). This is problematic because a principal often does not work alone to turn around the school and to bring about desired changes. Other leaders (who are usually cast in minor or supporting roles) such as Level one teachers, administrators and other professionals, are sometimes not mentioned. It is only the principal who receives all the praise, glory and recognition, yet the other role players just mentioned, also play an important role

towards the success of the school. This fixation with a heroic leader continues despite evidence generated on school research, which reveals that a school principal does not have the monopoly on school leadership (Spillane, 2006).

Harris and Spillane (2008) maintain that in the increasingly complex world of education, the work of leadership will require “diverse types of expertise and forms of leadership flexible enough to meet changing challenges and new demands” (*ibid*, p.31). This does not mean that a principal is no longer important but that the “dawning realisation that roughly two-decades long pre-occupation with visionary champion is flawed” (Gronn, 2000, p. 33). A principal may have a good vision for the school, and be geared to work towards achieving it, but if it is not properly communicated to all concerned, it will just become his vision alone. In addition, most accounts of school leadership pay little attention to the practice of leadership (Spillane 2006). This is because they dwell mostly on people’s roles, structures, functions and routines. Spillane (2006) argues that they focus on the “what” rather than the “how” of leadership. His main argument is that while knowing what leaders do is important, knowing how they do it is also essential in understanding the practice of leadership. This is important as my study is concerned with how teacher leadership is enacted in my school i.e. I am mostly interested in “how” it happens.

Another feature worth noting in the literature on traditional leadership practice is that it is mostly described in terms of its action, success or failure of one or more great leaders. The problem with this, according to Spillane (2006), is that concentrating on an individual’s actions, for example the principal, fails to capture the significance of *interactions*. In other words, if something goes wrong in a school framed by traditional leadership practices, only the principal should be blamed. However, if attention is given to *interactions*, it is clear that if a particular desired outcome is not achieved, a principal alone must not take the blame as he may not have been working alone. Thus, even though it is not acknowledged within the traditional leadership tradition, there is always an interaction that takes place between the principal and others that he works with.

A third problem with the heroic leadership tradition relates to the fact that leadership is defined mainly in terms of its outcome. This is problematic because leadership can occur without evidence of its outcome (Spillane, 2006). Even if a desired outcome is not achieved, this does not mean that there is no leadership but perhaps only that the leadership is weak. By this I mean that even if the desired outcomes were not achieved, leadership practice could have taken place as people interacted in a particular situation to try and solve the problem (*ibid*).

The point has been made already that heroic, charismatic leaders can bring success to a school. However, there are limitations when it comes to securing sustainable change in an organisation such as a school (Harris, 2005). The biggest problem comes when a charismatic leader leaves for another school or is promoted to a higher position. As some schools rely heavily on the principal, his departure may create a situation where the school goes back to what it was before he came to that school. It means that the situation can be worse than before because some of the teachers may become cynical about change and just no longer believe in it. Thus, the success these charismatic leaders bring can often be short lived and sporadic. As Fullan (1999, p.52) warns, the most “egregious error is to search for the super leader”.

Against the traditional view of leadership just discussed, I argue that we need to have a distributed perspective on school leadership as an alternative or an opposition to challenge the traditional view of leadership with the ‘great acts’ of one leader in the school. A distributed perspective on leadership means moving beyond the principal to include other potential leaders such as Level one teachers. However, that shift is just the tip of an iceberg according to Spillane because a distributed view on leadership must “shift focus from school principal and other formal and informal leaders to the levels of leaders, followers, and the situations that gives form to leadership practice” (2006, p.3). In the following section, I discuss the theoretical perspective of distributed leadership in greater depth.

2.4 DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP

Gronn (2000) suggests an alternative view to traditional notions of leadership. His argument is that traditional ways of thinking about leadership should be replaced with the view that leadership is something that takes on a distributed form.

2.4.1 Definitions of distributed leadership

There are few clear definitions of distributed leadership and it has been said that those that exist appear to differ from each other, sometimes considerably and sometimes more subtly (Bennett *et al*, 2003). It is best to think of distributed leadership as a way of *thinking* about leadership rather than another technique or practice (Bennett *et al*, 2003). Similarly, Spillane (2006) states that distributed leadership is best thought of as a framework for thinking and analysing leadership. It is a tool for helping us to think about leadership in new and unfamiliar ways. However, I agree with Harris and Muijs (2005, p.28) who also state that “distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organisation rather than seeking this only through formal position or role”. The important issue is whether an individual teacher has the expertise or not irrespective of the position that she holds in a school. Spillane (2006) concurs with Harris and Muijs (2005) when he says “leading schools requires multiple leaders” (p.13). Grant (2005, p.46), writing in the South African context, is also of the view that “distributed leadership is about maximising the human resource capacity within the school by engaging many people in leadership activity, according to their expertise”.

Different authors may define distributed leadership in different ways. However what emerges as common from their definitions is that distributed leadership should be linked to the expertise of individual teachers but it must not be vested in one person. To help us think more clearly about what this means, Spillane (2006) suggests that we consider the performance of a two-partnered dance. While the actions of each partner (principal or Level one teacher) are crucial, much (if not all) of the performance of the dance takes place throughout the interactions of the dance partners (principal and staff). For example, by their actions, educators, parents, learners, School Governing Body and

non-teaching staff work together to solve some problems in the school, they are engaged in leadership practice, (*ibid*, 2006). The point here is that distributed leadership is not restricted to any particular pattern or form of delivery. It is also not premised on a specific organizational structure; rather it emerges from the actions as interactions of individuals engaged in solving a problem (Harris and Muijs, 2005). Similarly, the actions of one person only makes sense as part of the pattern of relationships which form the collective activity (Ross, 2005).

Distributed leadership is thus best conceived as a group quality or a set of functions which should be carried out by the group and it can be either “concentrated, monopolized or focused” (Gronn, 2000, p.345). Moreover, distributed leadership is defined as “engaging many people in leadership activity” (Harris and Muijs, 2005, p.6). It is more than what individuals in formal positions do. People in both formal and informal roles can take responsibility for leadership activities. Distributed leadership attempts to recognize and incorporate the work of all the individuals who have a hand in leadership practice. It forces us to assess “who does what in the work of leadership” (Spillane, 2006, p.13). This raises a question of where to look for distributed leadership in practice. I agree with Harris and Muijs (2005) who say an obvious place to look for distributed leadership in action has to be with teachers. Collectively they offer the greatest, yet often untapped leadership resources in school. Educators, especially Level one or those not in formal leadership positions, often do not often see themselves as leaders. This is because some of them “equate leadership with formal role and responsibility rather than individual capacity or capability” (Harris and Muijs, 2005, p.8). The focus in terms of leadership is on power not residing with one person (Spillane, 2006). It is not linked to the formal or informal position of a teacher.

A distributed perspective on leadership is about shifting the focus from those who are in formal management positions to concentrate also on those who lead informally. This means that one will be able to consider the leadership practices that occur daily through informal interaction and collaboration (Harris and Muijs, 2005). This is why I am using distributed leadership as my theoretical framework because my focus is on the enactment of teacher leadership by Level one teachers, those who are not in formal

management positions. My argument is that even though these teachers are not in formal management positions, if they have the expertise on certain issues they must be 'allowed' to lead. This is where leadership rests "on immediate expertise rather than position and is exercised through *ad hoc*, rather than formally constituted groups which may have to exist a long time" (Bennett *et al*, 2003, p.5). Principals as people who are in formal management positions should be willing to relinquish their power to others so that the "fixed leader-follower dualism is abandoned in favor of the possibility of multiple, emergent leadership" (Gronn, 2000, p.325). In terms of leading, it means that those who are in formal positions i.e. the members of the School Management Team can alternate with those who are in informal positions depending on who has the expertise to manage a particular matter. If this were to happen, this would reflect a situation which shows that leadership need not be something that is done to followers; followers in interaction with leaders and the situation that they find themselves in, can contribute to defining leadership practice (Spillane, 2006).

Distributed leadership allows for the flow of influence in an organisation where the leader influences the follower and vice versa. It is also separate from an automatic connection of leadership to principalship. From a distributed perspective I agree with Spillane who says "leadership involves mortals as well as heroes. It involves the many and not just the few. It is about leadership practice, not simply roles and positions. Leadership practice is about interaction, not just the action of heroes" (2006, p.4). In keeping with the notion of distributed leadership, "teachers need to be encouraged to find their voices, take up their potential as leaders and change agents to produce a liberating culture in their schools" (Grant, 2006, p.513).

2.4.2 Forms of distributed leadership

Different authors have characterized distributed leadership in different ways. Some of their characterization is similar and they just use different words to mean the same thing, while sometimes the characterization is completely different. Bennett *et al* (2003) suggest three distinct elements of distributed leadership. Firstly, distributed leadership describes leadership as an emergent property of a group or network of interacting

individuals. This is where educators pool their expertise and work together. Consequently “the resultant outcome is a product greater than the sum of their individual actions” (Harris and Muijs, 2005). Bennett *et al* (2003) do not indicate whether it is those who are in formal management positions only or not that they are referring to. Secondly, distributed leadership suggests openness of the boundaries of leadership. For example, others not typically involved in leadership roles and duties (Level one teachers) might have something useful to add to how a school is effectively run or managed. This form of distributed leadership recognizes the importance and value of those who are not in formal positions. Thirdly, varieties of expertise are distributed across the many (even those who are not in formal positions) not the few (SMT). While some acts of leadership may be started by a small number of people, “it is then for others to adopt, adapt and improve them for their local circumstances” (Bennett *et al*, 2003, p16).

Gunter (2005) characterizes distributed leadership as authorized, dispersed and democratic. These characterizations are useful as they offer the framework for describing and analyzing the context of teacher leadership in my research. Firstly authorized distributed leadership or delegated leadership is where work is distributed from or by the principal to his subordinates. In a school situation, a Level one teacher may accept this leadership because it is regarded as legitimate within the hierarchical system of relations as it comes from someone in a leadership position and in authority; and because it also gives status to the person who takes on the work (Gunter, 2005). In contrast, in this form of distributed leadership, I feel that a Level one teacher may have no choice to refuse to do the task due to power relations with the principal. Furthermore, this delegation may have nothing to do with leadership but everything to do with performing the administration tasks of the SMT which have been imposed on the Level one teacher.

The second characterization of distributed leadership, according to Gunter (2005), is dispersed distributed leadership. This refers to the situation where the workings of the school are not delegated but take place without the formal working of the hierarchy. This is more autonomous, bottom up and emergent. It is acceptable because of the skills, knowledge and personal attributes of those members of the individual who takes on

leadership roles (Gunter, 2005). I agree with Gunter (2005) because Level one teachers may not be in formal positions but if they have knowledge on a particular issue they should have the space to take initiative to lead. In all South African government schools there is a structural hierarchy, however in dispersed distributed leadership, I feel that hierarchical relations become flatter when it comes to distributed leadership practice. Here, the emphasis is located with whoever has the expertise and the experience to be able to lead irrespective of position or level.

The third characterization of distributed leadership according to Gunter (2005) is democratic distributed leadership. This characterization is different to dispersed distributed leadership in that “it does not assume political neutrality but instead question the status quo” (Woods, 2004, p. 7). It is about fairness and social justice. Furthermore, democratic distributed leadership lacks a distinct hierarchy, unlike authorized distributed leadership. However, democratic distributed leadership is similar to dispersed distributed leadership in that both have an emergent character where initiatives circulate widely (Woods, 2004) and “both have the potential for concertive action” (Gunter, 2005, p.56). Singh (2007), writing in the South African context, indicates that her research shows that the kind of distributed leadership that is prevalent in South Africa is authorized distributed leadership. This is because those who are in formal positions (SMT) are holding on to power and they are not letting go of it.

I use Gunter’s characterizations of distributed leadership as one tool of analysis in Chapter Four to see how teacher leadership was enacted in my school and to investigate the factors that promote or hinder this enactment. Thus, more will be said about these characterizations later.

2.4.3 Benefits of distributed leadership

Varieties of studies have been conducted in England in different contexts to show the benefits of distributed leadership. One of those studies, commissioned by the Department for Education and Skills, (Harris, 2004) was about successful leadership, and pointed towards the importance of distributed leadership in securing school

improvement. Case study methodology was used to investigate leadership practices within a group of ten schools. The prime aim of this task was to capture the 'thick description' of leadership practice. In-depth data were collected from ten schools facing challenging circumstances. The central message emanating from the study was that successful heads recognized the limitation of a singular leadership approach and saw their leadership role as primarily concerned with empowering others to lead (Harris, 2004). Furthermore, it was found that distributed leadership prevailed in these schools which directly influenced the approach to problem solving and decision-making. It was also found that principals used a number of strategies for distributing leadership. These included involving others in decision-making, allocating important tasks to teachers and rotating leadership responsibilities within the school. This confirms what Harris and Muijs (2005) says viz. that the possibility of distributed leadership in any school will depend on whether the principal (or SMT) relinquish power, and the extent to which the staff (Level one teachers) embrace the opportunity to lead.

The success or otherwise of any education theory can be assessed by looking at the extent to which it contributes to the quality of teaching and learning. Harris (2004) poses a challenge by stating that we need to know whether distributed forms of leadership contribute to improved student outcomes and if so, in what form. This is because, if it impacts positively upon the quality of teaching and learning, it will encourage schools to operate more openly and encourage teachers to work together. The positive benefits of distributed leadership have been shown by King (1996) and Griffin (1995) who found that distributed leadership resulted in positive effects on pedagogy, on school culture and on educational quality. Furthermore a variety of studies have also found clear evidence of the positive effects of distributed leadership on teachers' self efficacy and levels of morale (MacBeath, 1998, Mitchell and Sackney, 2000). Evidence suggests that where teachers share good practice and learn together the possibility of securing better quality teaching is increased (Little, 1990 and Lieberman, 2000).

Even though some studies have been done I believe that more studies are needed, particularly in South Africa, as Harris (2004) warns that "if we do not have studies which support the effectiveness and efficiency of distributed leadership, it will just add to the

growing number of leadership theories and constructs that cannot be linked to school improvement or student learning outcomes” (p.223). I agree with Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (2003, p.420) who argue that there is an “urgent need to enrich the concept with systemic evidence”.

2.4.4 Barriers to distributed leadership

2.4.4.1 Different pay scales

Having looked at the benefits of distributed leadership one cannot ignore the barriers that prevent the distribution of leadership. As Harris and Muijs (2005) state, there are inevitable and inherent difficulties associated with widespread adoption and adaptation of this form of leadership. Schools as traditional hierarchies with the demarcation of positions and different pay scales are not going to be instantly responsive to a more fluid and distributed approach to leadership. In South Africa, some teachers are not taking on leadership roles because they still associate leadership with principalship (Singh, 2007). They go as far as refusing to perform certain duties because they are not being paid to do that. Therefore, finances are a barrier especially where formal management positions in schools carry additional investment.

2.4.4.2 Holding on to power by those in formal management positions

In South Africa there are those in formal management positions (SMT) who need to relinquish power to others (Level one teachers). This is very challenging as some of these SMT members have previously worked under the apartheid government and they have inherited an understanding of leadership as equated with headship and hence control. “Top–down approaches to leadership, together with internal hierarchical school structures provide internal impediments to the development of distributed leadership” (Harris Muijs, 2005, p.325). The current hierarchy of management within both primary and secondary schools means that power resides within the management teams (SMT). These structures can “actively prevent teachers’ attaining autonomy, and taking on leadership role and responsibility” (Harris and Muijs, 2005, p.34).

2.4.4.3 Teachers themselves as barriers to distributed leadership

Some teachers are threatened by others who take on leadership roles. There may also be conflict between groups of teachers such as those who do or do not take on leadership roles which can lead to separation amongst teachers. Research has shown that colleagues can at times be hostile to distributed leadership being exercised because of inertia, over cautiousness and insecurity (Barth, 1999, cited in Harris, 2004, p. 35). Lastly, distributed leadership is essentially about a “shift in culture away from top – down model to a form of leadership that is more organic and spontaneous” (Muijs and Harris, 2003, pp. 22 – 23).

2.4.5 Criticisms of distributed leadership theory

2.4.5.1 Lack of conceptual clarity

As noted above, when different authors try to define distributed leadership, a variety of concepts are used. People frequently use the terms "collaborative leadership, shared leadership, co-leadership, situational leadership and distributed leadership interchangeably" (Spillane, 2006, p. 22). Similarly, Bennett *et al* (2003) uses the term devolved leadership, while Kets deVries (1990, cited in Harris and Spillane, 2008) defines distributed leadership in terms of effective team work linked to social activity theory. The use of all these concepts results in both "conceptual confusion and conceptual overlap" (Harris and Spillane, 2008, p.22). Consequently, the accumulation of these concepts, according to Harris and Spillane (2008) “not only serves to obscure the meaning of distributed leadership but it also presents a real danger; that distributed leadership will simply be used as a 'catch all' term to describe any form of devolved, shared or dispersed leadership practice”. Using all these concepts as synonyms of distributed leadership is wrong, claims Spillane (2006). He feels that distributed leadership is a relative not a replica of these constructs or approaches.

Spillane (2006) firstly argues that while collaborative leadership is by definition

distributed, all distributed leadership is not necessarily collaborative. Similarly, a distributed perspective on leadership allows for democratic leadership or autocratic leadership. From a distributed perspective, leadership can be stretched over leaders in a school but is not necessarily democratic (Wood, 2004). On the other hand, co-leadership reflects a distribution of leadership, but the “distributed perspective involves more, urging us to move beyond a leader- plus aspect to consider how leadership practice takes shape in the interaction of leader, follower and aspect of the situation” (Spillane, 2006, p.23). In terms of comparing distributed leadership to transformational leadership, Wilkinson (2007) argues that these two concepts do not mean the same thing. While the literature provides no agreed upon definition of transformational leadership, it is typically contrasted with transactional leadership (Spillane, 2006). Transformational leadership is usually defined as “the ability to empower others with the purpose of bringing about major change in the form, nature, and function of some phenomenon” (Leithwood, Begley and Cousins, 1992, cited in Spillane, 2006, p.24). In contrast a distributed perspective on leadership differs conceptually from transformational leadership. It does not privilege a transformational perspective over a transactional one. This is because from a distributed perspective, leadership can either be transformational or transactional. Furthermore, distributed leadership puts leadership practice at the centre stage rather than the principal. It allows for others such as administrators and Level one teachers, to be key players in leadership practice either by design or default (Wilkinson, 2007).

Critics of distributed leadership argue that it is little more than another term for delegation, as someone has to do the distributing. Bennett *et al* (2003) raise a question of whether distributed leadership is top-down or bottom-up. Is it a form of leadership which acknowledges and depends upon the formal leadership positions within an organization or is it more likely to occur organically or spontaneously from the activities of the teachers working together? These authors however argue that it is possible the development of distributed leadership may be found in the shape of a “top-down” initiative from a strong charismatic leader. In contrast, Harris contends that “to think this way is to misunderstand what distributed leadership means and to confuse it with traditional, hierarchical notions of power” (2004, p.9). Implicit within distributed

leadership is collective leadership responsibility rather than top down authority. It is not about giving others tasks or responsibility but it is about recognizing that “leadership is constructed through shared actions and interaction (Harris, 2005b). Similarly, Spillane (2006) argues that distributed leadership is not just delegated leadership. This is because others such as teachers and parents take on leadership responsibility at schools on their own initiative.

I believe that distributed leadership is not about delegation only; delegation may be the first step of distributing leadership. Looking at the South African context where the Level one teachers are used to being led or controlled by the principal, delegation may be the first step towards other characterizations of distributed leadership (Gunter, 2005). Moreover, I believe that distributed leadership can be both top - down and bottom – up, depending on the context of the school. In addition, I assert that once the conditions for Level one teachers to lead have been created by the SMT at the top, then Level one teachers will be able to initiate the enactment of leadership (bottom-up). Therefore, we cannot prescribe whether distributed leadership is top - down or bottom – up; that will be determined by the unique context of the school in which educators find themselves in.

In conclusion, to expect one person to single handedly lead efforts to improve instruction in a complex organization like a school is impractical. Similarly, no one person is an expert on everything, even the principal. Therefore the key activities within the school are performed by specialists (including Level one teachers) who rely on a collaborative and reciprocal relationship (Wilkinson, 2007). This eliminates assumptions about leadership only ever residing in one individual (Gronn, 2000). In addition, we must avoid moving from description to prescription. Distributed leadership is essentially a way of analysing leadership practice – it is not a blue print (Harris, 2005b). Furthermore we must not assume that distributed leadership in itself is an assurance of improvement, much depends on the context and situation (Spillane, 2006).

Despite the growing enthusiasm for distributed leadership within the research community, it is clear that we need to know much more about its effects and influence. Furthermore, Leithwood et al (1991) suggest that there is an urgent need to enrich the

concept with systematic evidence, and this I believe, is especially true in the context of South Africa, and as (Harris and Spillane) warn: “If distributed leadership is not to join the large pile of redundant leadership theories, it must engage teachers, principals, support staff and other professionals” (2008, p.33). In addition the existing research base has not addressed the issue of contextual differences between the schools and how this influences their ability to promote and implement different forms of distributed leadership (Harris, 2005a). More importantly, it is unclear how distributed leadership impacts on schools, educators and learners. We urgently need contemporary, well researched studies of distributed leadership in practice. This is the main reason why I am using it as my theoretical framework. I aim to find out how teacher leadership is enacted in my own school and what the possible factors are that hinder or promote this enactment, considering that not many studies of teacher leadership within a distributed leadership framework have been done in South Africa. Thus, in spite of all the criticisms of distributed leadership, I am of the view that the concept as characterized above, is powerful in that it opens up a variety of possibilities for teachers to lead in different areas, at different times and with different purposes in their professional lives (Grant, 2008).

Having discussed distributed leadership, I now explore some of the literature related to teacher leadership specifically, particularly how it is understood and the factors that enhance or hinder its enactment

2.5 TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Looking at the South African situation, Grant (2005) argues that teacher leadership is critical in the transformation of South African schools. Furthermore, she states that the concepts of teacher leadership and distributed leadership are implicit in current South African education policy, but that insufficient research into teacher leadership in the South African context exists. As indicated earlier, despite a large research base by international authors such as Yarger and Lee (1994), Smylie (1995), Wasley (1991), Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999), Silins and Mulford (2000), Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), Muijs and Harris (2003), Harris and Muijs (2005), Gunter (2005); there is

a need to establish a similarly extensive research base in South Africa.

2.5.1 Definitions of teacher leadership

As has been the case for all the key concepts and terms employed in this study so far, the concept of teacher leadership too, is understood and defined differently by different authors. From the international literature, it is clear that there are overlapping and competing definitions of the term teacher leadership (Muijs and Harris, 2003). Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p.5), for example, describe teacher leaders as “teachers who lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders and influence others towards improved educational practice”, while Harris and Muijs (2005) find Katzenmeyer and Moller’s definition quite controversial. They say of this definition that the phrase “teachers who are leaders” suggests that only teachers who have been chosen to undertake designated leadership roles fall in the category of teacher leadership. Furthermore, they argue that this definition implies that any teacher who has not been chosen by someone in a position of authority (an SMT member, for example) cannot be considered to be a teacher leader. However, they do not reject the definition completely. Their take on teacher leadership, and which I agree with, is that, in reality, leadership is often exercised by teachers regardless of position or designation.

Some authors, for example Steyn (2000), support the view that teacher leadership involves a move from a top-down, hierarchical management approach towards shared decision – making, teamwork and community building (Wayne, 2002). Boles and Troen (1994, p.14) on the other hand, characterize teacher leadership as a form of “collective” leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively. In contrast, Barth (1999) sees teacher leadership going beyond just collaboration, or participating in decision – making. He views teacher leadership as fulfilling some of the more demanding and critical functions often only undertaken by senior management including: choosing text books, shaping the curricular and designing staff development programmes. Wasley (1991) defines teacher leadership more loosely, and simply as the ability to encourage colleagues to change, to do things they would not ordinarily

consider without the influence of the leader. This view tends to endorse Singh's (2007) research that shows that many teachers take on leadership activities without calling this teacher leadership.

In 2003, the General Teaching Council for England and the National Union of Teachers commissioned research into teacher leadership as a distinctive form of professional collaboration for school improvement. Five dimensions of teacher leadership were identified viz:

shared decision – making, collaborative, active participation by teachers in core tasks and hence contributing to school improvement, professional learning involving teachers learning individually as well as with colleagues and activism where teachers take up issues on behalf of the school (Harris, 2005a).

These five dimensions reflect a view of teacher leadership well suited to the imperative that schools transform themselves and, in so doing, demonstrate for communities how that transformation can be managed positively and effectively (Crowther and Kagaan, 2002)

Harris and Lambert (2003) state that the different definitions of teacher leadership tend to have one point in common which is that "teacher leaders are, in the first place expert teachers, who spend the majority of their time in the classroom but take on leadership roles at times when development and innovation is needed" (p.4). This is the definition of teacher leadership that frames this study. Similarly, they define teacher leadership as a model of leadership in which teaching staff at various levels within the organisation have the opportunity to lead. On the other hand Muijs and Harris's (2005) definition concurs with that of Harris and Lambert (2003) by focusing on the capacity for the teacher to exercise leadership for teaching and learning within and beyond the classroom. In the South African School context, Grant (in 2006) defined teacher leadership as:

teachers becoming aware of and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond. It includes teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders towards a shared vision of their school within a culture of mutual respect and trust (p.516).

Singh (2007), also writing in the South African context, criticises Grant's definition by arguing that it focuses on informal leadership yet the scope and nature of teacher leadership allows for it to be examined in terms of teachers who lead both formally and informally. I share a similar view with Ash and Persall (2000) that the role of head of department falls within the traditional boundaries of teacher leadership, which links it to formal position. This shift is captured in Grant's revised definition of teacher leadership:

A form of leadership beyond headship or formal position. It refers to teachers becoming aware of and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond. It includes teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders towards a shared and dynamic vision of their school within a culture of fairness, inclusion mutual respect and trust (Grant, 2008, p.88).

Within an understanding of teacher leadership as described above in place, the following discussion extends the one begun above with regard to teacher leaders taking up a variety of roles, both formal and/or informal.

2.5.2 Formal and informal teacher leadership roles

According to Berliner (1983, cited in Muijs and Harris, 2003) informal leadership can be seen in terms of classroom-related functions such as planning, communicating goals, regulating activities and creating a pleasant workplace environment. In contrast, formal leadership roles refer to responsibilities such as subject head or coordinator, or head of department, which often involves moving away from the classroom (Ash and Persall, 2000). For Level one teachers taking on leadership roles beyond the classroom, this does not mean that classroom duties are ignored. On the contrary, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) and Grant (2006) argue that teachers can and should continue with the business of teaching and being expert teacher leaders in their classrooms. This means that to be able to take on leadership roles does not mean that one has to be in a formal management position.

In the South African context, Rajagopaul (2007, p.12) states that formal leadership roles include being a "representative on a School Governing Body, Union representative, member of the staff development team, being a staff representative on the SMT and chairing learning area committees". Singh (2007) argues that the type of leadership that

is mostly found in South Africa is through the delegation by those in formal management position, which is what Gunter (2005) refers to as authorized distributed leadership. In contrast, Lambert (1995, p. 33), writing in the United States context, explains that leadership "like energy, is not finite, not restricted by formal authority and power, it permeates a healthy school culture and is undertaken by whoever sees the opportunity". In the American context teachers also lead in the classroom as they take up roles such as facilitator, coach, provider of feedback and counselor. Beyond the classroom, teacher leaders serve as mentors, peer coaches, and curriculum specialists (Lambert, 1995). Other writers have identified further dimensions of teacher leaders such as undertaking action research (Ash and Persall, 2000), instigating peer classroom observation (Little, 1995), or contributing to the establishment of a collaborative culture in the school (Liebermann *et al*, 1988). Of all the above mentioned roles, those of mentoring, induction and continual profession development of colleagues are considered crucial by Sherill (1999, cited in Harris 2005b, p.24), as is developing collaborative relationship with colleagues that allow new ideas and leadership to spread and impact on the whole school (Little, 2000).

To reiterate an important point, and a thesis central to this study, teachers do not *have* to divorce themselves from focusing on teaching and learning to be leaders. A commonly held belief is that if you are a teacher, the only way to become a leader is to leave the classroom and possibly the school. This results in schools losing good teachers because being in a formal management position comes with financial incentives. In contrast, the professional teacher is first of all competent in the classroom through the facilitation of student learning. This is where a teacher leader is recognized as a capable teacher of the learner in the classroom. My take on this matter is that leadership is not about the formal or legal position one holds but what people do in these positions that makes them leaders; it's not about the position itself. It is also about the leadership of people who do not hold any formal management position. This is because a principal in a leadership position may not be leading.

Having presented some of the roles that teacher leaders can enact, I now turn to discuss some of the factors that enhance teacher leadership development in a school.

2.5.3 Factors that promote teacher leadership in a school

In this section I present two factors that help to promote teacher leadership development in a school, namely, a collaborative school culture and availability of time.

2.5.3.1 A collaborative school culture

Different authors provide different factors that help to promote the development of teacher leadership in schools. However, the culture and structure of a school seem to be the determining factors in this regard. When considering the effectiveness or otherwise of teacher leadership, the study referred to earlier i.e. the one commissioned in 2003 by the General Teaching Council for England in conjunction with the National Union of Teachers is a useful source. The case studies that were conducted in this research project suggest that for teacher leadership to be successful it has to be a carefully orchestrated and deliberate process (Harris, 2005b). The data also suggests that for teacher leadership to be successful “there needs to be a fundamental cultural shift in the vision and values of the organization” (Muijs and Harris, 2007, p129). This requires all staff to understand and want to engage in leadership activities. “Teacher leadership needs to be deeply embedded in the culture of the school as its success is directly related to school culture” (Grant, 2006, p.528).

I agree with Singh (2007), writing in the South African context, who argues that principals should create an organizational culture and infrastructure with leadership opportunities for everyone, including all members of the SMT as well as Level one teachers . Equally, Rosenholtz (1989) argues for teacher collegiality and collaboration as a means of generating positive change in school. In this case collaboration represents “a horizontal power distribution within the school and is at the heart of teacher leadership” (Day and Harris, 2002, p.162). Recent studies by Silins and Mulford (1989) have explored the relationship between organizational learning and student outcomes. They also highlight the importance of teachers working together in collaboration for successful school re-structuring and school improvement to occur. In

addition, Leithwood *et al* (1990) describe how effective school leaders provide opportunities for teachers to participate in decision making and school development. These include “distributing the responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school, sharing decision-making powers with the staff, taking staff opinion to account, providing autonomy for teachers and creating opportunities for staff development” (Leithwood *et al*, 1990, p.411 – 412). The relevance of these suggestions for South African schools is self-evident.

Teacher leadership, according to Smylie (1995), occurs in, is influenced by and exerts influence on the structural, social, political, and cultural dimension of the school. Thus, it is very difficult to understand teacher leadership without first understanding the context in which it functions. Hence Ritzvi (2008, p.98) writing in the Pakistan context, argues that “successful implementation of education reform requires leaders who involve teachers integrally and meaningfully as team members in the change implementation process”. Therefore, for teacher leadership to flourish, traditional top-down leadership styles will need to be replaced by an emphasis on more devolved and more shared decision-making processes (Pellicer and Anderson, 1995). The findings of a South African study conducted by Grant (2006) with 11 university tutors, many of whom were classroom based teachers, reveals that the majority of the tutors argued that the success of the concept teacher leader would be directly related to school culture. This means that a school that wishes to embrace teacher leadership needs to “develop a culture that supports collaboration, partnership, team teaching and collective decision making” (Grant, 2006, p.526).

A collaborative culture helps to enhance the development of teacher leadership as opposed to a non-collaborative culture which has been frequently identified as a barrier to the development of teacher leadership. What seems to be common in many schools is an isolated professional culture (Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach, 1999), along with “norms of egalitarianism, privacy, politeness and contrived collegiality” (Griffin, 1995, p.69). In situations like these teachers are unable to use or benefit from the leadership abilities of their colleagues. This situation also presents fewer opportunities for teachers to provide leadership to other teachers and does not present teachers with opportunities

to develop their own leadership. In contrast, collaborative cultures encourage the exchange of ideas and “endorse mutual problem solving, thereby providing rich opportunities for the exercise of teacher leadership” (Leithwood *et al*, 1999, p.142). Moreover, a collaborative culture is beneficial because teacher development can take place simply as a result of mutual respect i.e in a context where the group and individual are inherently and simultaneously valued (Rozenholtz, 1989). This is in contrast to a culture that is contrived, imposed from the top management and collaboration determined by administrators and not by teachers, because that type of culture is a barrier to the development of teacher leadership. Stoll (1991) argues that if a school culture works against one, there is nothing much one can get done. I agree with Singh (2007) that the way that most schools are structured results in teachers working in their own classrooms surrounded by children all day with limited interaction with adults. I strongly support the view Harris and Lambert (2003) hold that a shift from isolation is needed for teachers to become active contributors outside the classroom walls.

A key question for researchers and practitioners of teacher leadership is: “What factors support the development of teacher leadership in schools which have traditionally been characterized by hierarchical leadership structures”? (Muijs and Harris, 2007, p.113). This is a very good question especially in the context of South Africa where schools have been and still are characterized by hierarchical management structures. Based on the body of research in Australia and North America the answer to this question is “shared norms and values and collaborative practice between teachers” (Muijs and Harris, 2007, pp.113 – 114). This is because the evidence suggests, as already established above, that teacher leadership flourishes most in collaborative settings, and that creating a culture of trust that allows collaboration to grow is crucial to the development of teacher leadership (Little, 1999).

2.5.3.2 Time for teachers to plan together

Time is also one of the dominant factors when it comes to the conditions necessary for teacher leadership development. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) argue that arranging common planning time for teachers encourages collaboration on curriculum and

instructional matters. For example, in a secondary school, teachers who share the grade in terms of teaching the same subject in that grade, need time to plan together. Day and Harris suggest that “if schools are to become better at providing learning for students then they must also become better at providing opportunities for teachers to innovate, develop and learn together” (2002, p.145). On the other hand Harris (2003) suggests that heads (principals) need to encourage teachers’ continuous learning by providing time and resources for continuing professional development activities. As Grant (2006) suggests, principals need to be supported as they learn to delegate authority and teachers need to be supported as they take up their leadership roles. Underpinning these ideas is an understanding that learning and leading are not solitary events but ongoing social interactions. In summary, “time is needed for professional development, for teacher leaders to engage in collaborative relationship, for extensive planning for high-level learning and for performing leadership responsibilities” (Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2001, p.108)

In the 2003 study that was commissioned by the General Teaching Council for England in conjunction with the National Union of Teachers, some factors for promoting teacher leadership emerged. These included factors such as school culture, collegiality, shared vision, structural changes, professional development opportunities, opportunity for internal promotion within the school and support from school management. Most of these factors are similar to those discussed above, which raises a question as to whether these factors would apply to different context within the South African school landscape. Thus, in this study I investigate the factors which enhance teacher leadership in the context of my case study school.

2.5.4 Barriers to teacher leadership development

A number of barriers exist to the development of teacher leadership in schools. Some of them are described as universal and some of them are context bound. The key barriers to teacher leadership viz. hierarchical organization structure, fear of loss of power by principal and teachers themselves as barriers have all been identified and discussed either in Chapter 1 or in this chapter. For this reason, they are assumed to be in place in

terms of their relevance to this study.

2.6 CONCLUSION

In summary, this chapter reviewed literature on the definition of management and leadership and noted that some authors make a clear distinction between these two concepts while others say they overlap and one cannot clearly distinguish between them. I indicated that I am of the view that leadership and management are closely related concepts, and though one may try to describe them as distinctive processes in theory, in practice it is difficult to draw a line as these processes can be interchangeably performed by one person depending on the situation. In a study such as this one, it is critical that the researcher's position on leadership and management is made clear as it influences the researcher's engagement with the theory and practice of distributed leadership, and that of teacher leadership. However, as this chapter has shown, the evidence we currently have is incomplete and generally inconclusive about the precise nature of distributed leadership in action (Harris and Muijs, 2005), and that more studies need to be done in this area. For this reason, this chapter has also established the value of this particular study.

The next chapter presents the research design and methodology of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The reader now knows that the aim of this study was to find out how teacher leadership was enacted by three Level one teachers in my school and the possible factors that either enhanced or hindered its 'enactment'. Based on the work done by Wasley (1991), Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), Gunter (2005), Harris and Muijs (2005) and Grant (2008), it has been established that I brought in distributed leadership theory as the lens to help me to understand the enactment of leadership by the participants

As stated many times already, my thesis in this dissertation is that Level one teachers can take on leadership roles, irrespective of the position or level that they are in. On the other hand those who are in formal management positions (SMT) need to create conditions for Level one teachers to take on leadership roles. Although the key research questions were presented in Chapter 1, I will repeat them here so that the reader need not search back for them. They are:

1. How is teacher leadership enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg?
2. What factors enhance or hinder this 'enactment'?

In terms of how this chapter is organized, the first part focuses on setting up the research design. Here, I describe the research paradigm used, the methodology, the research site (including access and ethical issues), and sampling of the school as well as the participants. The second part of the chapter concentrates on the data collection process and techniques. Detailed descriptions of how each tool was used are provided, together with a rationale for their use, and a critique of their effectiveness. Literature relevant to each method is used to substantiate and

validate the choices made. The third part of this chapter focuses on data analysis where I explain how both quantitative and qualitative data were analysed and presented. The last part of the chapter focuses on trustworthiness as well as the limitations of the study.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Differences that exist between the interpretive, critical and positivist paradigms in terms of ontology, epistemology and the purpose of inquiry, made me conduct my study within the interpretive paradigm. This is because in the positivist approach the researcher believes that the world is stable and that there are patterns and orders that can be discovered (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993). Furthermore, in this paradigm the researcher is an objective outsider, because if the researcher becomes too involved with the respondent this can affect the validity of the data collected. On the other hand critical theorists work specifically to uncover relationships of power and are particularly concerned with issues of social justice and transformation. Thus, they are firmly grounded in the belief that people's realities are shaped primarily by social, political, and economic factors. Another aim of conducting research in the critical paradigm is thus "to empower people to change society radically" (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993, p.345). The interpretive researcher, on the other hand, tends to focus on how people define their actions by providing different interpretations to their actions due to different contexts (Neuman, 2000). The emphasis here is mostly on description rather than social change, although interpretive research findings very often contribute to critical research scholarship.

The way in which a researcher sees the world influences the way in which the researcher conducts her study. This study was conducted within the interpretive paradigm. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000, p.22) state that the "central endeavour in the interpretive paradigm is to understand the subject of human experience". Hence, in this study, I tried to find out how teacher leadership was enacted and I also investigated from the three teacher leaders themselves, the

factors that hindered or promoted the development of their teacher leadership capacity, based on their everyday lived experiences. As a researcher, I share Cohen *et al* (2002) belief that people define their actions by providing different interpretations due to different contexts and that knowledge is created through an interaction between the researcher and the participants.

According to Neuman (2000, p.71), the interpretive approach is the “systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through direct and detailed observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social world”. This definition motivated me to use observation as one of my data collection methods because I realized how rich my data could be if I observed the three teacher leaders in their natural setting (a school). Furthermore, since I had to see things through ‘their eyes’, watching them in action seemed to be one of the most efficient ways to do this. I was very aware that I had to try and avoid making my own judgment although I recognized that researcher subjectivity is always a problematic in interpretive research.

The similarity between the critical and the interpretive paradigms is that they do not believe that as a researcher you can be an outsider and collect ‘objective knowledge’, and thus take the position that knowledge is created through the interaction between the researcher and the participant. I also agree with Usher (1996, cited in Cohen *et al*, 2000) who argues that everyone has a particular position in society. As I conducted the research in my school, and as a human being who has her own values, it is possible that either of these factors affected or influenced the data that I collected as I am very aware that I do not engage in the world in a neutral way.

Researchers in the interpretive paradigm also believe that “knowledge is comprised of multiple sets of interpretations that are part of the social and cultural context in which it occurs” (Kim, 2003, p. 235).

I can sum up this section by saying that, as a researcher in this study, I believe that ‘truth is many’ and that multiple knowledge exist – which is why I tracked three teacher leaders and used a variety of data collection methods to answer my research questions. Lastly, the advantage of working within the interpretive paradigm was that the approach allowed for a “thick description” of social reality. Nevertheless, such an approach is limited in abstraction (Singh, 2007) as it reveals the “meanings, values and rules of living used by people in their daily lives” (Neuman, 2000, p.73), rather than universals.

3.3 METHODOLOGY

3.3.1 Methodological Approach

Case study methodology was used to frame the investigation of the research questions. A case study is an in-depth exploration of a bounded system (Creswell, 2007). For example, in this case study, a school was a case and my three teacher leaders were my units of analysis. This case study is descriptive in nature as I aimed to provide a “rich, thick, description of a phenomenon under study” (Merriam, 1998, p. 29). Three teacher leaders of a township high school in Pietermaritzburg were tracked over the fourth term of 2008 and the first term of 2009. The reasons for choosing these terms was that firstly, during the last term schools are traditionally busy preparing for the final year examination, conducting the examination and preparing for next year. Secondly, in the first term, schools are traditionally busy with registration of learners, coping with the demands of the new year such as class sizes, duty load, exercise and textbook distribution to learners and so forth. Therefore, these two terms provide an opportunity where teachers can take on leadership roles. This meant that through observation I was able to see where and in what ways these three teacher leaders were leading. Observing these three teacher leaders in their school confirms Yin’s (1984) view that case studies are “an empirical inquiry that investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context especially when the boundaries between

the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p.23).

Case studies are usually qualitative in nature (Mouton, 2004) and allow for large amounts of data. The advantage of this is that large amounts of data allow the researcher using the case study approach, to go into greater depth and get more detail on the case that is being examined (Neuman, 2000). Furthermore, Cohen *et al* (2007, p. 258) believe that “the significance, rather than frequency, is a hallmark of case studies, offering the researcher an insight into the real dynamics of situations and people”.

Case studies are, thus, usually descriptive and detailed, with a narrow focus, combining subjective and objective data (Dyer, 1995). This is what happened in this case study since interviews, observation, journaling and questionnaires were used. Yin (1984), in his description of a case study, suggests that multiple sources of evidence must be used. As a researcher I deliberately also adopted a case study approach because I wanted to cover contextual conditions as Yin (2003, p.13) believes that “they might be highly pertinent to the phenomena of study”. I believed that in investigating how teacher leadership was enacted in my school, contextual factors were likely to have an effect, hence my emphasis on them.

3.3.2 Research Site

The township high school in Pietermaritzburg in KwaZulu – Natal which constituted the research site in this study has a learner enrolment figure of 1342 and offers grades 8 – 12. There are 41 educators who are employed by the state; however, three of them are employed in a temporary capacity. The management staff is made up of the male principal, two deputy principals (one male and one female) and five Heads of Departments (three males and two females). All of these educators have been formally appointed to their official positions by the Department of Education. There are 33 Level one teachers who do not hold any formal management position within the school structure. There is one administration clerk employed by the state and seven general assistants (two of

them are employed by the state and five are paid by the school).

The school is in close proximity to five other high schools in the township. Consequently, it is in competition with these high schools for learners and learner enrolment fluctuates every year. The socio-economic background of most learners in this school prevents them from paying school fees of R200, as the parent community is made up of largely low income earners. This leads to an increase in the number of learners who are receiving full exemption from paying school fees. This poses a challenge for the management of the school. This is because additional money is needed to buy resources for the three new subjects that have recently been added to the school curriculum namely, Engineering and Graphic Design, Computer Application Technology and Agricultural Science. However, the increase in exemption from paying school fees obviously creates further general financial problems for the school.

In order to gain access to the staff as research participants in my study, a letter requesting permission for access to the school to conduct the study was sent to the principal of the school (Appendix A). In this letter I explained the aim and nature of this study. My identity, that of the university as well as the contact details of my supervisor were provided to the principal. Furthermore, in this letter I explained that my study was not a commission of enquiry or an evaluation of the school. I explained that the identity of the school would be protected and that I had no intention of disturbing educators in performing their duties while carrying out the study. As I was conducting the study in my place of work over a period of six months, I also assured the principal that my own work as an educator in the school would not be affected.

Opportunistic and convenience sampling was used to choose the school as a site of research. This is because I decided to conduct research in the school where I am presently teaching in order to be able to do the six months fieldwork. According to Creswell (2007, p.482), fieldwork means that “the researcher gathers data in a setting where the participants are located”. As a full time teacher I

realized that I would be unable to go to another school and spend a lot of time in that school collecting data. Furthermore, going to another school could have disadvantaged me because I would not be able to get an understanding of my participants' tacit knowledge. Conducting a study in my place of work meant that I was in a better position to get in-depth data as I spent most of my time there. I am aware that there can also be a downside to familiarity; however, this is discussed in details under the topic limitations of the study later in this chapter.

3.3.3 Sampling of participants

The type of sampling that I used to select my three key participants was non-probability sampling which is defined by Cohen *et al* (2007, p.263) as a sample “where the researcher targets a particular group knowing very well that it does not represent the wider population, it simply represents itself”. This is where, as the researcher, I have no intention to generalize the findings to a wider population. Furthermore, small scale research often uses a non probability sample because, despite the disadvantages that arise from their non-representativeness, they are less complicated to construct and they are less expensive (Schumacher and McMillan, 1993).

In terms of selecting my three teacher leaders, I used the definition of teacher leadership by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) to inform my choice. They define teacher leaders as “teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identifying with and contributing to the community of teacher leaders and learners, and influencing others towards improved education practices” (p.3). Out of 33 Level one teachers I chose the three that I describe below as I felt that they met Katzenmeyer and Moller's criteria.

Teacher leader 1 (TL1) is a 44 year old African male, who has a Higher Diploma in Education as well as a Bachelor of Arts degree. He has been teaching for 12 years and currently he teaches History in grades 10 and 12, and Social Science in grade nine. He is married and has two children, an eight year old girl who is in

grade two and a two year old boy. I chose him as a teacher leader because he is passionate about teaching and he does not allow anything to disturb him in performing his duties. He is punctual, both in terms of arriving at school and getting to class on time. Secondly I chose him because he passionately plays a leading role in the following areas: elections for, and workshopping of, the Representative Council of Learners, organizing the matric ball, and sports. Furthermore, in staff meetings he often has something constructive to say. Moreover, he works closely with the community leadership on issues pertaining to the community and the school.

Teacher leader 2 (TL2) is a 33 year old African male, who has a Higher Diploma in Education, a Bachelor of Arts degree and an Adult Basic Education and Training certificate. He has been teaching for 11 years and currently he teaches English in grade nine and Tourism in grade ten. He is married and has two children. I chose him as a teacher leader because he loves his job as a site steward for SADTU³ and he performs it with zeal. He took on a leadership role in forming the school's Gospel Group and he is a convener for the Cultural committee. He shows dedication and commitment in performing these duties as he voluntarily took them on, having to work extra hours in the afternoon. He also serves on the School Governing Body as a Teacher Representative. I also chose him because he is an articulate person who is not afraid to speak his mind.

Teacher leader 3 (TL3) is a 42 year old African female who has a Higher Diploma in Education. She has been teaching for 13 years and currently she teaches Mathematics in grade nine and Mathematical Literacy in grades 11 and 12. She is married and has four children. TL3 is an industrious introvert who is passionate about teaching. I chose her as a teacher leader because she is a principled person who puts the learner first. She is a Subject Head for Mathematical Literacy and a netball convener. Currently she is continuing with her studies at the University of KwaZulu – Natal, equipping herself for the challenges of a new curriculum so that she can be more effective in class. This shows dedication and

³ SADTU: South African Democratic Teachers' Union – the largest teacher union in South Africa.

commitment to her work.

3.3.4 Methods of data collection

In a case study, multiple sources of evidence must be used (Yin, 1984). In this research, mixed mode data collection methods (quantitative and qualitative) included: questionnaires, observation, journal writing, and individual and focus group interviews. Data collection involved three stages. The first stage of the research process was done by developing a contextual account of the school through my own observation of it. Another aspect of this 'contextual account' relied on all educators completing a teacher leadership survey in the form of a questionnaire.

The second stage of the data collection process took a more in-depth qualitative turn, where, as indicated earlier, three teacher leaders were observed in their classrooms. The third data source was a self reflective journaling process by the three teacher leaders. Individual and focus group interviews were also conducted with the three teacher leaders. I wanted to use document analysis as one of my data collection methods. However, the documents that I collected did not provide me with the data to help me to answer the research questions. I then decided to exclude the documents analysis as a data source. The next part of this section provides a detailed account of the data collection process.

3.3.4.1 Questionnaires

Quantitative data were collected where all educators in the school were asked to complete a teacher leadership survey in the form of a structured questionnaire with a few open ended questions at the end. The questionnaire was administered in the first two weeks of October 2008. Level one teachers completed a slightly different questionnaire (Appendix B) to SMT members (Appendix C). Verma and Mallick (1999) suggest that the use of a questionnaire with open-ended questions is frequently employed to indicate prevailing conditions or particular trends. The

purpose of giving a questionnaire to those educators who did not hold a formal leadership position was to elicit their views on the culture of their school, their understanding of teacher leadership and whether they were provided with opportunities to lead beyond classroom. The purpose of giving a questionnaire to SMT members was to see whether they believe that they distribute leadership or not.

Out of 30 questionnaires handed out to Level one teachers , 27 were returned - a 90% return rate, and out of eight questionnaires handed to SMT members, five were returned - a 63% rate. The basic questionnaire was originally used by a 2007 Master of Education student. In 2008 it was refined and used by the Bachelor of Education Honours students at the University of KwaZulu - Natal. Later in the same year it was refined by the Master Education student group of 2008, of which I was a member, to make it more suitable for the purposes of our study. All these stages of refining and using it helped in dealing with the issues of piloting an instrument, thus, I agree with Cohen *et al* (2007, p.341), who argue that “it is important to pilot the questionnaire in order to eliminate ambiguities or difficulties in wording and to check readability levels for the target audience”.

One of the reasons why I used a questionnaire was that I was able to administer it to a large number of people (Clarke, 1999) in my school. Furthermore, through a questionnaire, “a researcher is able to standardize the questions and to control the amount of the data the participants supply” (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993, p.325) as was the case in my research. These questionnaires were self administered and educators were given a period of one to two weeks to fill them in and return them. This provided them with enough time to answer the questions, and in a place that suited them. Being free to take a questionnaire home to answer it eliminated “the pressure to participate in the presence of the researcher” (Cohen *et al*, 2007, p.344). Similarly, Bell (1999) states that the advantage of self administering the questionnaire is that you can explain the purpose of the study to the participants.

On the other hand, answering a questionnaire without my presence may have posed its own problems. There was a danger that participants did not understand the questions asked and may have just answered them arbitrarily, or the participants might have given me the answers that they thought I needed to get (Merriam, 1998). Similarly, Cohen *et al* (2007) state that the participants may also misinterpret the questions and consequently answer them incorrectly, as it happened in two questionnaires.

3.3.4.2 Focus group interview

The aim of conducting this initial focus group interview was to set up the project and to obtain buy-in to ensure that the three teacher leaders knew what I expected from them. The focus group interview was conducted in October 2008 after the first journal entry. This method of data collection was relatively inexpensive and an efficient way of collecting data, particularly as my primary concern was to obtain insight into the attitudes and opinions of the group. According to Powell and Single (1996, p.231), a focus group is a “group of individuals selected and assembled by a researcher to discuss and comment on, from personal experiences, the topic that is the subject of research”, in my case teacher leadership.

It was challenging to get the three teacher leaders together so as to conduct the initial focus group interview. However, when it actually happened substantial data were produced in a short space of time. At the beginning of the interview, the full purpose of the research and how data were to be used was clearly explained. I then explained the basic ground rules of the focus group interview process, such as one person talking at a time, giving each other a chance to talk, not to dominate and so forth. More importantly, I reminded them about the importance of being completely confidential with what would be discussed in the interview. The three teacher leaders did not have a problem with my tape recording the interview. The first set of questions on the interview schedule was the same for all teacher leaders (Appendix D). The other set of questions were specific to individual

teacher leaders based on their first journal entry. I had asked permission from the three teacher leaders to use their individual responses from their first journal entries as part of the follow up questions in the focus group interview. The interview lasted for about one hour and twenty minutes. I then thanked them for agreeing to be part of my study. After that we discussed the entire research design and especially each other's expectations. I then gave them their journals (see 3.3.4.3 below) back with the guiding questions for the next entry.

From a methodological point of view, I agree with Clarke (1999) who argues that focus group interviews have the advantage over questionnaires and structured interview schedules. This is because focus group interviews allow the participants the freedom to raise issues that are important to them, rather than merely responding to a set of predetermined questions. Furthermore, participants feel safer and more secure if they are with their peers, as was the case in my study. Teacher leaders were more relaxed and jogged each other's memories and thoughts (Walliman, 2000), reminding each other of certain events that had happened at school.

However, the focus group interview has its own limitations as a data collection tool. Individuals may suppress or modify their true feelings when in the presence of others (Clarke, 1999). Moreover, Wellington (2000, p.147) warns against "dominant individuals who may monopolize the interview or 'invisibly' threaten the other by their presence, reduction in time devoted to each individual and the person who is afraid to speak". Similarly, Clarke (1999) feels that individuals may be inhibited when in a group where participants not only know one another, but also have to work alongside each other. Fortunately, I did not have those challenges in this interview as all three teacher leaders gave each other a chance to speak and the three of them were willing to participate equally. However, in a focus group interview, a further limitation is that there is less researcher control, unlike in one-to-one interviews. For this reason, individual interviews were built into the research design as well.

3.3.4.3 Teacher leaders' self-reflective journals

The third method of data collection was constituted by self reflective journal writing by the three teacher leaders. They were required to make two journal entries per month over six months. In total there were seven journal entries per teacher leader. Each entry had guiding questions pertaining to a particular period of the school year (Appendix E), (such as fourth term 2008 and the first term of 2009). These guiding questions were given to them per entry that they made. Two teacher leaders completed all seven entries while the third teacher leader completed five entries due to time constraints. The guiding questions that were set for the last two entries that the third teacher leader did not answer, were asked during the individual interview with that teacher leader.

The reason I used a journaling process was that I believed that teacher leaders had a lot to say on the topic of teacher leaders which they could write down in the comfort of their homes in a non - threatening environment. Bell (1999) states that a self reflective journal can provide valuable information about work patterns and activities "provided the subjects are clear about what they being asked to do and why" (p.147). Furthermore, I found a journalling process to be a valuable and alternative way of gathering data which could also assist with triangulation (Wellington, 2000). Journaling provides a rich source of data to complement data collected from interview and observation processes. Walliman (2005) argues that journals are better than interviews and observations, as they are especially suited to those who prefer to write their thoughts and perceptions as opposed to being questioned or observed.

While journals are a good data collection tool, they also have their weaknesses. It was very difficult to persuade one of my participants to maintain the journal conscientiously and consistently over the six month period of time. Moreover, Wellington (2000, p. 118) states that "journal writing depends on the participants' literacy skills, such as an ability and willingness to write". For example, a teacher may not be fond of writing and may prefer talking during an interview as happened

with one of my teacher leaders. Furthermore, completing a journal may be time consuming, and can be irritating for a busy person like a teacher. “If participants are not fully in sympathy with the task or have been pressed – ganged into filling in a journal, they will probably not complete them thoroughly”, says Bell (1999, p.147) which was exactly the case in my study as just mentioned.

3.3.4.4 Observation

An observation schedule (Appendix F) was used to observe the school. This schedule was piloted and used in 2007 in the Bachelor of Education Honours research project by the University of KwaZulu - Natal students. The items in the schedule allowed me to use it for my study. The aim of observing the school was that I needed to develop a contextual account of the school by observing the culture and ethos of the school, to see what the factors were that hindered or enhanced teacher leadership ‘enactment’. Since I have been in this school for ten years, I have got to ‘know’ the culture of the school. However, as a researcher, I needed to observe the school in the context of my study and research questions, and not as a teacher. I needed to ‘look’ at things with a critical eye and question some of the assumptions which had become part of my everyday life at work. In addition to the school observation, the three teacher leaders were also observed in a range of different contexts.

Observation of the school in general provided me with “detailed data about aspects of school life which could not be produced by other methods” (Forster, 1990, p.197). I was able to record what I was seeing at school first hand rather than relying on the perceptions or opinions of the participants. That is why Walliman (2005, p.205) states that “observation methods are powerful for gaining insight into the situation”. I believe that, as an observer, I was able to ‘see’ what the participants could not see. One of the strengths of using observation was that it provided me with data from all members of the school community including those who were unable or unwilling to take part in an interview or fill in a questionnaire. In support of observation, Cohen *et al* (2007) argue that what ever

the problem or approach, at the heart of every case study lies a method of observation.

Teacher leaders in my study were observed informally when the opportunity presented itself over the six month period to see in which areas of school life they played a leadership role. A teacher leader structured observation schedule by Grant (2008) (Appendix G) which was further developed by the Masters of Education (2008 – 2009) group of students, was also used to observe the teacher leaders. Furthermore, two of the teacher leaders were observed once in their classrooms. The third teacher leader was not observed as he kept on postponing his classroom observation, until I gave up.

As much as observation is valued as one of the important data collection methods in case study research, it has its limitations. “Observations are inevitably filtered through the interpretative lens of the observer”, says Neuman (2000, p.209). Other critics argue that observation can never provide us with a direct representation of reality as the researcher keeps on interpreting what she observes. This is further complicated by the fact that an observer may select what to observe and what to record (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993). Crucial data may therefore be missed. Moreover, the observer’s existing knowledge, theories and values, will inevitably influence the data they produce (Wellington, 2000). This had a bearing on my situation as I conducted this study in my own school; I had existing knowledge of the school and the three teacher leaders. Lastly, a limitation of observation is that it is time consuming.

3.3.4.5 Individual semi-structured interviews

“An interview is a conversation between the researcher and the participant, however it is different from an everyday conversation in that the researcher is the person who sets the agenda and asks questions” (Verma and Mallick 1999, p.286). An interview is thus a good data collection tool for finding out what a participant thinks in terms of her attitudes and beliefs. For this reason I used it as

one of my data collection tools to find out from these three teacher leaders how they enacted teacher leadership and what factors hindered or enhanced teacher leadership development in the case study school.

All three interviews were conducted during our non-teaching periods. Each interview lasted approximately 30 to 40 minutes. Most of the questions in the interview schedule were open ended, and about half of them were based on the participants' responses in their journals and data gathered during the focus group interview. Some of the guiding questions from the journal were repeated in the individual interviews to check the consistency of the teacher leaders' responses (Appendix H).

As indicated earlier, permission to tape record the interviews was obtained from the three teacher leaders. This is because "careful recording and processing of interview records can enhance and encourage participation validation" (Anderson, 2001, p.238). Transcripts of the interviews were given to all three teacher leaders for validity purposes and minor changes were made. Giving transcripts to the participants for appraisal and checking is helpful because with any review of what has been said on an earlier occasion, a participant may have useful additional comments to make (Woods, 2004). Furthermore, tape recording preserves the actual natural language of the participant and thus frees the interviewer to maintain eye contact with her participants and observe their body language.

While the individual interview is a good data collection tool, it also has its limitations. Power relations can influence the process of the interview (Dyer, 1995). Even though I was a Level one teacher interviewing other Level one teachers, their outlook on me may have changed when I became the researcher. This could have influenced their responses where they may have given me what they thought I wanted to hear.

3.3.5 Ethical considerations

Ethics have traditionally been seen as a set of general principles “invariantly and validly applied to all situations” (Clarke and Dawson, 1999, p.91). In contrast Cohen *et al* (2007) argue that ethical principles are mediated within different research practices and that they take on a different significance in relation to those practices.

Consent of the participants to participate in any research study is vital (Clarke and Dawson, 1999). Participants must all receive a clear explanation of what the researcher expects of them, so that they can make an informed choice to participate voluntarily in the research. According to Neuman (2000), the researcher must respect the autonomy of all people participating in the research. Furthermore, all participants need to be assured of the confidentiality of information supplied by them (Walliman, 2005). An informed consent letter was sent to all staff members asking them to participate in the study (Appendix I) . They were assured of confidentiality and that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time. Three of the Level one teachers who signed the consent letters to be part of the study, took questionnaires but did not return them. This was taken as a sign that they were not willing to be part of the study and so I did not involve them any further. Another informed consent letter was sent to the three teacher leaders asking them to be part of my study. In this letter I explained why I chose them. I also informed them that they were free to withdraw from the study at anytime (Appendix J). Their confidentiality was ensured as codes would be used instead of their names.

Research should do no harm to the research participants or to any other people (Cohen *et al*, 2007). I tried to ensure that my study did not do any physical, emotional, social or any other harm to any person. During the focus group interview I saw it as important to explain the purpose of the study fully and I also inquired about likely problems. This is because, according to Bell (1999), reluctant subjects rarely provide usable data, so preliminary consultations are of the utmost

importance.

Research should be of benefit, either directly to the research participant, or more broadly to other researchers or society at large (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993). The purpose of this research was not to directly benefit the participants. If the participants benefited either directly or indirectly, then that was a by-product of the research. In contrast, the aim of this study was to benefit directly and more broadly other researchers in the field of education especially in the area of teacher leadership, since it is a relatively new area of research in South Africa. Lastly, Bell (1999) warns that researchers should not make up data in their findings. The findings that are presented in the next chapter are based on authentic data which I personally collected and analysed.

However, in every step of my research, I was aware of my position and issues of subjectivity. As I was using case study methodology, I thought that it would be important to get the perception of the entire staff about teacher leadership, as it is a new concept in this school; before focusing on three teacher leaders. That is why all academic staff members were asked to complete a teacher leadership questionnaire.

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS

Usually the next step after data collection is data analysis, According to Wellington (2000), data analysis should start early and it is not a separate stage, coming towards the end of a linear path. Analysis refers to “a close or systematic study or the separation of a whole into its part for study” (Wellington, 2000, p.65), and is, therefore, an integral part of the whole research process. Analysis of qualitative and quantitative data occurs differently however. Qualitative researchers integrate the operations of organizing, analyzing and interpreting data and call the entire process “data analysis” (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993, p.486).

One of the most important stages in data analysis is data reduction. This refers to

data selection and condensation. In this study, qualitative data was “collated, summarized, coded and sorted out into themes, clusters and categories” (Wellington, 2000, p.134). Data reduction happened throughout the process of my research study. To reduce data I followed McMillan and Schumacher’s (1993, p.486) steps for developing and organizing data. Firstly, I started by reading the data set such as interview transcripts, field notes from observation and journal entries, as a whole to get a sense of it. This is what Wellington (2000) calls an ‘immersion stage’ which involves “note taking, active reading, highlight or annotating transcript” (Wellington, 2000, p. 135). I then identified the topics that emerged from the data. A topic is described by McMillan and Schumacher (1993) as the descriptive name for the subject matter of a piece of text. I looked across all data collection tools (journals, group and individual interview transcripts and observation notes). I wrote down the topics in the margin of interview transcript, journals and observation notes.. Now I was at a stage where I had a set of topics with which to categorise or classify the data. Classification means that as a researcher I put similar things together in the same group. I then applied the “provisional classification system on all the data sets” Cohen *et al* (2007. p.459). I decided to abbreviate a topic to a code and then wrote the code next to the appropriate piece of data.

My next step was to look for relationships between categories. This means that I was looking for patterns in the data. In searching for patterns, I was trying to understand the “complex links between various aspects of each participants’ situation, mental processes, beliefs and actions” (McMillan and Schumacher, (1993, p.495). This means that after describing what was observed, looking at journal entries and interview transcripts, I then compared those descriptions and themes that emerged to see if there were any similarities or differences across the three teacher leaders. I also wanted to see what factors enhanced or hindered the development of teacher leadership in the broader context of the school.

Quantitative data in this study, constituted by the responses to the survey questionnaire was analysed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences

(SPSS) programme and presented as percentages.

In analyzing the data I drew on Grant's Zones and Roles model of teacher leadership referred to earlier (See Figure 1 below), to see how teacher leadership was enacted in the case study school. I wanted to see exactly where teachers were leading (Zones 1 – 4) and what roles (Role 1 – 6) they were performing. Furthermore, I wanted to determine the factors that either enhanced or hindered teacher leadership development in this case study school.

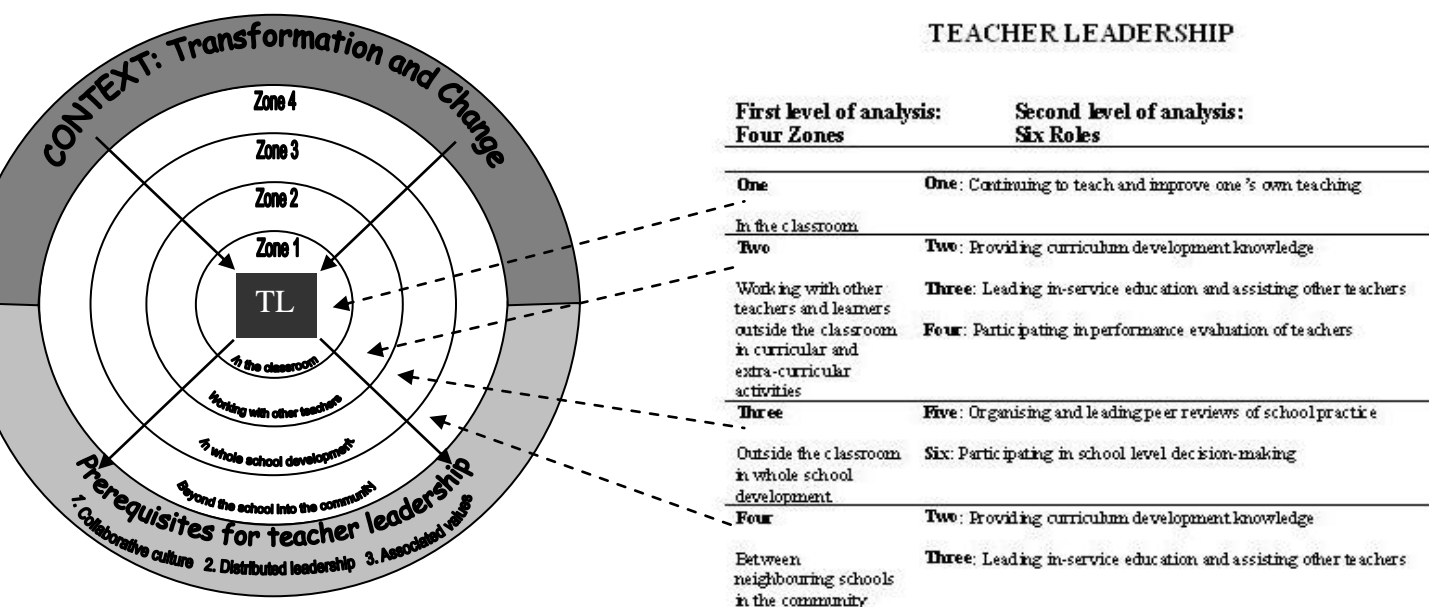


FIGURE 1: Zones and Roles Model for teacher leadership by Grant (2008, p. 93)

3.5 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

Johnston and Pickergill (1992) suggests different strategies that can be used by the researcher to determine trustworthiness of the data collected. The first strategy is extended fieldwork; this is where the qualitative researcher collects data over an extended period of time. In my study, data were collected over a period of six months in order to get a more nuanced response to the research

questions. The second strategy is “low inference descriptors” (Johnston and Pickergill (1992), which refers to the “use of descriptions, phrased very close to the participants’ accounts and researcher’s filed notes (p.220). Verbatim quotes, which refer to direct quotations (Cohen *et al*, 2007) were commonly used in this study in order to capture each teacher leaders’ actual words.

To further try and ensure that my study was trustworthy, I piloted some of the instruments that I used to collect data, namely, the questionnaire and observation schedule, as indicated earlier. In conducting the focus group interview and individual interviews, I used a tape recorder. This was done to ensure that transcripts were accurate. Participants were then asked to read their transcripts and comment on whether they thought it was an accurate reflection of what they said (Wellington, 2000, p.30).

As I indicated in the data collection section, each data collection method has its own strengths and limitations. It was in order to increase the trustworthiness of the study and to decrease the impact of each methods limitation, that I adopted a multi-method approach in this study. Yin (1984, p.89) argues that “the use of multiple sources of evidence in case study allows an investigator to address a broader range of historical, attitudinal and observational issues”. However, the important advantage of using multi-sources of evidence is the development of “converging lines of inquiry” (Yin, 1984, p.91). Thus, any findings or conclusions in a case study are likely to be much more convincing and accurate if they are based on several different sources of information, as occurred in this case study.

Finally, in relation to the trustworthiness of the study, Johnston *et al* (1992) argues for reflexivity which refers to “self awareness and critical self - reflection by the researcher on his or her potential biases as these may influence the research processes and conclusion” (p. 315). My position as a Level one teacher and as a researcher researching my own school was explicitly stated earlier. Potential biases were also acknowledged and the means of dealing with them are stated in the next section which covers some of the limitations of the study that I have not

yet discussed.

3.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

3.6.1 Researcher subjectivity

Since the research project was conducted at the school where I work, this raises a number of questions about the influences and biases that I may have had as a researcher. I received my matriculation in this school and some of my colleagues were my teachers while I was a student there. I have worked as a teacher in this school from 1998 until the present. Even though there are educators who have been teaching in this school longer than me, I can say that my learner experience at the school (three years) coupled with my teaching experience (11 years) totals 14 years. This means that I can confidently say I understand the school culture and that I can also 'see' the tacit knowledge of the school that an 'outsider' may not 'see'.

On the other hand, I am aware that this history and thorough knowledge about my school may have influenced the way I conducted the whole study. However, as I am a full time teacher it made sense that I collected data in my school, where I spend the majority of my time. Collecting data in another school have meant that I would only have been able to observe for short periods at a time, and possibly might have ended up collecting 'superficial data', rather than the more nuanced answers that I was looking for. It would also been unprofessional of me to leave my classes for extended periods of time.

3.6.2 Lack of generalisability

No methodology is good or bad on its own, that judgment can be made based on whether it will be able to answer the research questions. Furthermore, using a methodology also depends on the aim of the study. For example, in this research

study the aim was not to generalize as I cannot 'claim' that this is how teacher leadership is enacted in other township high schools or in other schools in the city of Pietermaritzburg. Moreover, factors that hinder or enhance teacher leadership development are time and context bound. In contrast, in this study the interest was in an in-depth study therefore non-probability sampling was used.

3.7 CONCLUSION

In summary, this chapter has outlined the steps that were followed in the research process. Case study methodology was used to frame the investigation of the research questions and three teacher leaders were tracked over six months. A variety of data collection methods were used to answer my research questions. Sufficient data about teacher leadership were collected for the purpose of analysis and interpretation not necessarily for generalization. I believe that case study methodology was the best methodology to have used to answer my research questions.

The presentation of data and a discussion of findings take place in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present and discuss the findings which emerged from the data gathered using survey questionnaires, observation, self reflective journals, focus group and individual interviews as outlined in the previous chapter. In presenting my findings, I use direct excerpts from the data in order to illustrate the emerging categories and themes, to show how they were classified as either divergent or convergent. I merge the data analysis with the discussion of findings. In essence, this chapter aims to provide answers to the following key research questions:

- How is teacher leadership enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg?
- What factors enhance or hinder this 'enactment'?

This chapter is divided into five sections. In the presentation and discussion of the findings, I initially present data to illustrate the three teacher leaders' personal attributes, skills and knowledge, so that the reader can identify their uniqueness and similarities as teacher leaders. I then move into the Zones and Roles (as per Grant, 2008) of teacher leadership where I look at where these teacher leaders were playing a leading role and how they came to lead in these areas. Moreover, I discuss the context of the school in relation to teacher leadership, in order ascertain whether it hindered or enhanced enactment in this study. Subsequently, I discuss the barriers to the enactment of teacher leadership which are located within the culture and the context of the case study school. Lastly, I look at strategies to develop teacher leadership within the case study school.

The following table highlights how data have been labelled and provides clarity in identifying direct quotations sourced from the data. Quotations are labelled according to participant, data collection method and page number.

<i>Data collection methods</i>	<i>Abbreviations</i>	<i>Participants</i>	<i>Abbreviations</i>
Individual interview	II	Teacher leader 1	TL1
Focus Group interview	FGI	Teacher leader 2	TL2
Self-reflective journal	J	Teacher leader 3	TL3
Observation	O	Researcher	R
Survey Questionnaire	Q	School Management Team member	SMT

4.2. MY THREE TEACHER LEADERS

In this section I present my three teacher leaders by discussing their personal attributes as well as the knowledge and skills that each teacher leader possesses. This is done so that I can highlight to the reader the types of skills and knowledge that might characterize a teacher leader.

4.2.1 Teacher Leader 1: passionate educationalist

4.2.1.1 Personal attributes

The data shows that TL1 (the 44 year old male who has a Higher Diploma in Education and a Bachelor of Arts degree, has been teaching for twelve years and currently teaches History and Social Science in grades 10 and 12): “... *loves being a teacher as this was his decision, not being influenced by anyone*” (J, p.1). TL1 is passionate about teaching and to him the learner comes first. When he was asked what he would do in a situation where the HOD or other teachers did not support his initiative, his response was: “*if the learner is going to benefit I go ahead because that is the bottom line*” (II, p4). The significance of ‘passion’ is endorsed by Leithwood and Jantzi (1997) when they state that being committed to one’s school, profession and the welfare of the students is one of the frequently identified character traits of a teacher leader. TL1’s commitment to the welfare of a learner is further demonstrated by his attendance at the parents meetings. All educators of certain grades are expected to attend, but some teachers do

not bother themselves. TL1 did not just attend a meeting but he contributed meaningfully by motivating the parents to support their children in their studies.

TL1 is a teacher who likes to empower learners. When he was asked where he sees himself playing a leadership role, his response was *“I deal with the election of Representative Council of Learners (R.C.L.) for learners and I work as a leader in conducting R.C.L. workshops” (J, p.10)*. Conducting R.C.L. elections and work shopping members of the R.C.L. is a task that he takes very seriously and he is really passionate about it. For him he wants learners to understand the functioning of democracy and for them to know that they have power to use for their benefit in their school life, as he stated that *“I respect the R.C.L. as a structure and I also encourage other educators to do the same. I believe that some of the problems that the school is faced with can be solved by working together with the learners” (II, p.6)*.

My observation of TL1 was that he is a team player. However, if he feels that an individual does not add value to his life, he moves away from that person. In observing him I noticed that *“he no longer associates himself with the whole male group during break time” (R, O, 27/02/09)*. I then asked him about that during an individual interview and his response was *“that kind of coming together as a group is not healthy; it is not healthy at all. This is because when these people are together they don’t talk about constructive things” (II, p.4)*. Instead, he likes to surround himself with people who are open - minded and who have the best interests of the learner at heart. In my observation, I realized that *“Moving away from the big group does not mean that he is a loner; there are other educators that he associates with” (R, O, 27/02/09)*. This was confirmed in the individual interview when he explained his behaviour as follows:

I have just decided to withdraw, to stay in my office, doing my work and eating my lunch in the office. But sometimes I meet with those people that we normally meet together but to meet together as a big group it is not working out (II, p.5).

As much as he is a team player my observation of him was that he is also a brave person. *“In a staff meeting he asked thought - provoking questions and he was not*

afraid to speak his mind" (R, O, 06/11/08 and 22/01/09). Furthermore, I found him to be a *"humorous person who is approachable, but his learners know that when it is time to work all play stops"* (R, O, 17/03/09). Upon being asked about his own personal attributes as a teacher leader he claimed he was *"trustworthy, tolerant, humble, understanding and approachable"* (J, p.5). Some of these attributes are similar to the ones that were identified by Leithwood and Jantzi (1997) in the study they conducted in America, which included being approachable, a good listener, easy to work with and supportive.

4.2.1.2 Knowledge and skills

In trying to find out how teacher leadership is enacted and what factors enhanced or hindered its enactment, I saw it as important to look at the knowledge and skills that this teacher leader possesses.

The data shows that TL1 also possesses planning, organizing and motivating skills. These are used in different spheres of the school life. His understanding of the concept teacher leadership is that it means that you have to lead within the class first; his skills are also evident in working with the learners. Moreover, his main motivation for taking on additional leadership roles and responsibilities is for the benefit of his learners. This was evident when he described the leadership roles that he took on especially when he said *"I worked as a teacher leader giving guidance and motivating grade 12 learners"* (J, p.10). He saw himself playing an important role in the life of a learner. Furthermore, he said *"I often organize matric ball for grade 12"* (J, p.2) and *"organizing class photos and school T-shirt with outside companies"* (J,p.11). These descriptions of him taking on leadership roles, further demonstrated the importance of his learners in his life as he did all these things for the benefit of the learner.

In addition, organizing the matriculation ball, class photos and school T-shirts campaign involves payment of money by the learners to this teacher. A character trait that emerges here is that he is a trustworthy person because he has done these activities many times and there has never been a complaint about the misuse of money. It simply means that learners trust him. Upon being asked to reflect in his journal about the

important skills that a teacher leader should possess, his response was “*Listening skills, organizing skills and time management*” (J, p.4). He further stated that the kind of knowledge that he believes the teacher should have is “*Subject knowledge, knowledge on political issues, and general knowledge*” (J, pp. 4 – 5). Subject knowledge is the kind of knowledge that he valued first, where, as a teacher, you are an expert in class (Zone one). He also sees political knowledge as important as many things are currently changing in our country due to politics, and also the subject that he taught (History) required him to have current information on political issues. Generally, he believes that a teacher leader also needs to have a good general knowledge. This is in line with Leithwood *et al* (1997, p.243) who suggest that a “teacher leader possesses technical skills required for programme improvement and uses them in concert with a broad knowledge base about education policy, subject matter, the local community and the school’s students”. Most importantly, TL1 believes that “*these skills and knowledge empower a good teacher leader*” (J, p.5).

While TL1 was a passionate educationalist, in contrast TL2 demonstrated a different kind of leadership. His passion was mostly on social justice issues and fighting for the rights of the teachers in his capacity as a site steward. In the next section I present TL2.

4.2.2 Teacher leader 2: zealous site steward

4.2.2.1 Personal attributes

TL2 is the 33 year old male who has a Higher Diploma in Education, Bachelor of Arts degree and an Adult Based Education and Training certificate and currently teaches English and Tourism in grades nine and ten. He excitedly stated that “*being a teacher is one of the rewarding jobs*” (J, p.1). TL2 is passionate about union issues and describes his personal attributes in relation to his formal role as a site steward in the following words: “*my personal attributes are firstly honesty which is the best policy in life. For people to trust you definitely as a leader be honest*” (J, p.8). He continued to demonstrate the way that he saw himself in this formal role when he said “*the problem is most leaders make promises that they cannot fulfill. I can boldly say I am a trustworthy person*” (J, p.8).

TL2 is a politically minded person who is passionate about social justice issues. He explained how he “*basically believes in the principles of democracy*” (J, p.5).

He became a site steward by being voted for by the educators. This is also an indication that educators see how passionate he is about social justice issues. This is a job that he takes very seriously as is evident in his words when he explained how he fights for the rights of the teachers: “*as a site steward I’ve got to protect the interests of the teachers as I stand for them... I’m like a lawyer, the client comes first*” (II, p3). He explained the procedure that he follows when he performs his site stewards’ duties:

I listened to the story of what the SMT member has done and then scrutinize the story to see whether it is something big or small. I will then calm the teacher before going to the SMT. We will first negotiate and say my friend before we tackle this issue I think this and that . . before. I don’t just say the SMT has done this FIRE we’ve got him, no I do not believe in that (II, pp.3 – 4).

His fight for social justice issues does not only start and end with the teachers; he also fights for the learners. Let me illustrate this with an example. In 2009, SMT members decided unilaterally to increase the pass rate for English during the 1st, 2nd and 3rd terms so as to motivate learners to work hard so that at the end of the year they pass with good marks. TL2 had a problem with this as teachers were not consulted. He demonstrated bravery by challenging this unilateral decision. He queried that and he felt that he was really a strong leader.

I took a stand, because at that time I queried that learners shouldn’t pass English with 50%. My point was clear and straight forward that English is a second language to all of them even to us as teachers. For learners it is quite difficult. There were no negotiations with the teachers and this whole thing wasn’t negotiated with the learners. (II, pp. 6 – 7).

TL2 believed that if you want to do something you have to be passionate about it, where time and money is not an issue. This is evident in his words when he wrote in the self reflective journal: “*Teacher leadership is about commitment and spending extra time at work unpaid for*” (J, p.4). Furthermore, he also said in the individual interview: “*It was*

for the love of Arts and Culture as a learning area and myself as an African. So I had passion as I knew that I wasn't going to be paid for those extra hours" (II, p.2).

When TL2 was asked to describe himself as to what type of a teacher leader he is, he said: *"I am a very open minded person" (FGI, p.6)* and he further described himself as a *"kind hearted person who do not get angry easily" (II, p.3)*. Moreover, he demonstrated maturity on how to behave as a leader when he said: *"criticism is natural and its life so I have learnt in all my life as a leader here at school, outside and in other committees; I have learnt to take criticism" (J, p.8)*. He explained that what he hates the most *"are people who stab me in the back, gossipers, people who will go around saying things without first getting the real story" (II, p.3)*. However, he acknowledged that there are some areas where he needed to be developed. For example, he explained that *"one area that needs development is patience. Sometimes I just want things to happen abruptly. Time is crucial for a leader, and it all takes time" (J, p.9)*.

Looking at the personal attributes of TL2, I can say he described himself more as a positional leader. His attributes such as honesty, trustworthiness, bravery, open - mindedness and so forth; are about how a leader (in a position) is suppose to be. My observation of him was that he is passionate about the wellbeing of the teachers and that he loves his job as a site steward because it provides him with an opportunity to 'fight' for the teachers.

4.2.2.2 Knowledge and skills

TL2's description of skills and knowledge that a teacher leader should possess are not related to classroom practice, like TL1.

TL2 described his skills and knowledge in relation to him performing his duties as a site steward, for example: *"a great leader according to my analysis is a great listener and also possesses good communication skills" (J, p.5)*. He continued to say good listening and problem solving skills adds to his personal attributes as a leader because *"people expert or need a leader who can listen to them and also one who can solve their problems. As a Site Steward I have to solve teachers' problems" (J, p.9)*. His passion for

being a site steward is further demonstrated when he identified the importance of skills such as researching, in relation to his formal role when he said: *“basically, I have to equip myself with Union issues. When you learn new things it empowers yourself as a leader”* (J, p.9).

TL2 values reading as it empowers the leader. This is evident by looking at what he said in his self-reflective journal: *“most leaders get rusty because they don’t feed themselves with new knowledge and skills. Reading and updating yourself with current issues is crucial”* (J, p.10). Furthermore, he sees analytical skills as very important skills for a leader to possess as he explains: *“Knowledge and skills I have is mostly analyzing skills. As a leader you must be able to analyse and assess a particular situation”* (J, p.9).

The responses that I got about the skills and knowledge that a teacher leader should possess are either about skills or knowledge of a leader in general or of him performing his duties as a site steward. This further indicated that his understanding of the concept teacher leadership is associated with his position as a site steward. He possesses the kind of knowledge that Leithwood and Jantzi (1997) call declarative knowledge which is knowledge about government education policy, knowledge about education in general and knowledge about union issues.

While TL2 is a ‘fighter for social justice’, TL3 is the opposite – a conformist as the next section explains.

4.2.3 Teacher leader 3: principled conformist

4.2.3.1 Personal attributes

As described in an earlier chapter, TL3 is a 42 year old female who has a Higher Diploma in Education. She has been teaching for 13 years and she currently teaches Mathematical Literacy in grade 11 and 12. *“She stated that she loves being a teacher as this was her childhood dream”* (J, p. 2). When TL3 was asked about the important personal attributes of a teacher leader she said: *“Discipline, patient and kindness”* (J,

p.8). After identifying these three personal attributes she then went to great lengths to describe them in relation to herself, making examples along the way:

A leader is expected to be in charge and to lead by example. For me this means to be successful in leadership I have to be disciplined. I have to be able to distinguish between what is wrong and what is right. If I am not disciplined, how am I suppose to lead? (J. p.8).

She describes what she means by discipline in relation to her leadership and management in the classroom and her relationship with her learners. She explains further that: *"I tell my learners that I need work on a particular date, if that is not done, then trouble follows. They know my plan, my time, and my day. I am talking mostly about learners, I work with mostly. (J, pp. 8 - 9).*

This further demonstrates that TL3 sees herself taking on a leadership role mostly within the zone of the classroom. Furthermore, she sounds like a very principled person, who is not swayed easily, but who sticks to her guns. For her it is about the learner because any other issue that does not concern a learner, she just turns a blind eye to. Furthermore, she is a self disciplined person who believes in hard work. She also handles the micro politics of this school very well. This is how she reflected about it in her journal:

One can often hear negative remarks from the colleagues if they see that one has done one's work at the required time. It happens to me as well but I just keep my mouth shut because I know I'm doing what is right and also that the comment are not said directly (J, p.7).

TL3 is also a motivated person who does things for her benefit as well as the benefit of the learners. She does not do something merely because she is fishing for recognition or compliments, she does it because her work ethic is very high. This is evident by looking at what she says in her journal: *"... with the SMT I do not know whether they see or appreciate what I do. But that does not matter as long as I do the work that I do and do it honestly, me and my conscience are happy" (J, p.13).* This view was further endorsed in the focus group interview when she said: *"I am a self driven person who is not being told to go to class or be reminded why I am here, so I see myself as a teacher*

leader” (FGI, p.4). This is in line with the way that Harris and Lambert (2003, p.1) define a leader as “someone who has integrity, strong values and moral purpose”. These are character traits that I also associate with this teacher leader.

The second personal attribute that TL3 identified was patience. She explains how:

Discipline will go hand in hand with patience. I believe that when one is patient by nature, one becomes very observant of loopholes that might be detrimental to my beliefs and principles. Patience would also help me in deciding on correct time the right decision to take and decisions to make (J, p.9).

The third personal attribute is kindness:

Kindness helps me to become approachable and as well as acceptable. People know that you are a good listener when you are kind. I am ready to help, if I can in one way or other. Listening to learners makes them feel special as they have trust in me as their leader (J, p.9).

My observation of her was that she is a tenacious person who works very hard. I noted that “*there was a moment where she did not understand some calculations, she looked for people to help her and she did not give up as much as other people were saying they are busy but she was on their case until they helped her*” (R, O, 11/03/09). She did all of this because she wanted to be effective in her classroom. This also demonstrated professional maturity in that if she does not understand something she is not afraid to ask help from her colleagues. She then said: “*these three attributes I believe, they make me who I am and where I want to be. And if I see colleagues nominating me for some position, I think again they see some or all of these attributes*” (J, p.9).

4.2.3.2 Knowledge and skills

TL3 acknowledged the importance of working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra curricular activities (Zone Two). This can take place between colleagues as teachers or between management and the rest of the staff. Her main skill that she identified in a focus group interview was communication. She stated that a teacher leader: “*must be able to communicate with people, communication is very important because some of the problems that we are experiencing are due to poor communication or no communication at all*” (FGI, p.5). Leithwood and Jantzi (1997) state that communication and problem solving skills were

mostly identified as being important in their study of character traits of teacher leaders. TL3 also believed that if you are a leader you should listen to your followers and that working together in trying to find a solution is better than doing it alone. She explains how *“a good listener knows what her followers want. You talk with them. Both sides come with ideas put on a table that is sharing information. This builds both a leader as well as colleagues”* (J, p.10). To this participant, skills such as analysis and interpretation are important to a teacher leader, for example:

On your own you find time to analyse and interpret what you talk about with your team. Then as a leader, you should call the team and give feedback on a topic and discuss and have a forward. I can then accept others innovation if I am to be a good teacher leader (J, p.10).

As much as the skills that she identified are mostly about working together, my observation of her was that she is also able to work alone, independently and still produce quality work.

4.2.4 Concluding thoughts

In summary, Leithwood (1990) has structured a summary of the work of three developmental psychologists, resulting in a stage model that briefly describes the adult growth (See figure 2). However he cautions that adults are unpredictable and cannot be pigeonholed. His description of teachers who are at the self protective stage is that they may find open and honest communication to be more uncomfortable than their colleagues. These teachers honour status quo and find it difficult to embrace change. Teachers who are at the conformist stage accept leadership as delegated by those who are in formal positions. This is a kind of leadership which is not emergent. I therefore, associate stages one and two with authorised distributed leadership as characterized by Gunter (2005). In contrast, teachers at the conscientious stage value consensus and would be effective as facilitators or group members. Leadership in this stage is not through delegation by those who are in formal positions but it is emergent. I then link this stage to dispersed distributed leadership (Gunter, 2005)

At the autonomous stage teachers not only see value in others' view point, but draw strength from them. Leadership in this stage is emergent and it is about challenging the status quo in relation to social justice issues. I therefore link this stage with democratic distributed leadership (Gunter, 2005).

<p>Stage 1: Self-protective</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Must obey rules, but tries to get own gain • Most questions have one answer • Fear of being caught • Blames others 	<p>Stage 2: Conformist</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Needs approval in order to meet expectations of others • Feels guilty breaking rules • Tends to go along with the group and not accept individual differences
<p>Stage 3: Conscientious</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understands multiple possibilities • Recognises there are exceptions to the rule • Future - oriented 	<p>Stage 4: Autonomous</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fully independent • Understands the interdependence of relationships • Accepts others as they are

Figure 2: SOURCE: Adapted from Leithwood (1990)

I have classified my three teacher leaders in different stages of adult development according to Figure 2. However, this is where I believe that they are leaning towards as I cannot fully pigeonhole them. On the basis of the data gathered in my study, I tentatively suggest that TL1 is in stage 4 because he is not judgemental of other people and is not afraid to speak his mind, especially to challenge the status quo. TL2 is in stage 3 because he acknowledges that there are rules that one should obey at work but he believes that in certain situations one may need to break those rules. His ideas and thoughts as site steward are often future oriented. In contrast, TL3 is in stage 2 because she is a conformist who does not like to break rules and she tends to agree with what

most people say. Her 'voice' is often not heard. She is not much of an initiator but she positively accepts the leadership of those who are in formal positions of management.

In this section, I have described the personal attributes of my three teacher leaders as well as the skills and knowledge that each of them either possesses or believe that a teacher leader should possess. In the next section, I describe their understanding of the concept teacher leadership by looking at where they are taking on leadership roles.

4.3 THE ENACTMENT OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN TERMS OF ZONES AND ROLES

4.3.1 Teacher Leaders In The Classroom (Zone 1)

In relation to the model of teacher leadership (Grant, 2008), Zone one [Z1] is about a teacher leading within the classroom. This is where we find role one [R1] which looks on the teacher continuing to teach and improving one's own teaching.

In my study, participants were asked to describe areas or situations where they have taken on leadership roles. Varied responses that emerged from data indicated that two of the participants (TL1 and TL3) saw themselves as leading mostly within the classroom where the focus is on continuing to teach and to improve one's own teaching. TL1 responded by saying "*I model good leadership skills in everything that I do as a teacher*". He described areas where he took on leadership roles such as "*starting from the time I arrive at work, the time I go to class, whether my lessons are prepared, the feedback I give to learners when they have written a test*" (TL, J. p.3). He also described his leadership role specifically in relation to the classroom when he said: "*I play an advisory role to learners, since fourth term is all about preparing the learners for the final examination* (TL1, J, p.4). Similarly, TL3 plays leading role in activities that are related to the classroom as she explained that "*I lead in activities that involve taking learners to the next level with confidence. Taking initiative in matters concerning positive progression of learner education*" (TL3, J, p3).

My classroom observation of TL1 and TL3 showed that indeed they were leading within classroom. In my observation of TL1 teaching, I saw him "*using question and answer*

method and he kept on probing learners seeking for the deeper understanding of the content that was taught". He demonstrated good classroom management skills as "he disciplined disruptive learners by calling them by their names, which shows that he has a good rapport with the learners" (R, O, 17/03/09).

TL3's new lesson was linked to the previous one. *"It was an interactive lesson and where learners were battling to come up with an answer the teacher paraphrased the question to guide them towards the correct answer rather than to just tell them"* (R, O, 11/03/09). During my observations I saw teachers who maintain classroom discipline and have a meaningful relationship with learners. Furthermore, they demonstrated expert knowledge in the subjects they taught where they also used appropriate assessment strategies for the benefit of the learners. They see their leadership in relation to classroom practice and that it has to positively impact on teaching and learning.

In contrast, TL2 did not seem to define teacher leadership in terms of classroom leading at all. Furthermore, I was unable to observe his classroom teaching as he kept on canceling my appointment.

When these three participants were asked about their understanding of the concept teacher leadership, TL1 and TL3 believe that it is important to lead within the classroom first before going beyond it, as is expressed in the following words: *"If you are a teacher it must start from class that is our core business"* (TL1, FGI, p. 2) [Z1R1]. His idea was similar to that of TL3 when she said *"It certainly starts from class"* (TL3, FGI, p.2 [Z1R1]). The understanding of teacher leadership by TL1 and TL3 fits in with the position held by Harris and Lambert (2003, p.44) that "teacher leaders are, in the first place, expert teachers, who spend the majority of their time in classroom but take on leadership roles at times when development and innovation is needed". This means that you start by leading within your class as an expert and that your leadership has to impact directly on the quality of teaching and learning, in the zone of the classroom. Similarly, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) believe that teachers can continue with the business of teaching, and being expert teacher leaders in their classrooms, and yet take

on leadership roles beyond the classroom through the countless opportunities that arise via the notions of distributed leadership.

Teaching and learning was regarded as the core business of the school by TL1 and TL3. Their understanding of the concept is in line with Rogus (1988, p.47) when he states that teacher leaders are “effective teachers who are able to demonstrate on a daily basis the competencies associated with effective classroom instructions, such as knowledge of the subject content, appropriate teaching method to be used, motivating learners, discipline and classroom management”. Leading beyond the classroom and ignoring your duties in class does not, I argue, make one a teacher leader. It is important to lead within the classroom first as Wasley (1999, p.219) states: “Competent teacher leaders diagnose situations within the classroom, then select instructional strategies to match student needs”. Furthermore, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) believe that if a teacher is not proficient in teaching skills, then the focus in the classroom is on daily survival. I agree with Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) when they say a teacher needs to develop classroom expertise before leading beyond the classroom.

4.3.1.1 To teach is (not) to lead

TL1 and TL3 acknowledged the importance of being an expert classroom practitioner, however their views differ when it comes to whether what the teacher does in class is leading or not.

When TL3 was asked whether she sees herself as a teacher leader, her response was: *“There is not a moment that makes me feel as a leader in the work I do but just that I am doing my job, which I am paid for. I see myself more of a professional than as a leader”* (TL3, J, p.7). This means that TL3 does not see what she does in class as leading, but as something that she is expected to do as a teacher. This understanding of the concept concurs with the view of Singh (2007, p.21) that “many teachers took on leadership activities without realizing or calling this teacher leadership”. It seems as if she associates leadership with a formal role and that one’s leadership can only be

demonstrated outside the class. This means that TL3 separates teaching from leading and she equates leadership with a formal role, position or responsibility rather than individual capacity or capability (Harris and Muijs, 2005).

My observation of TL3 indicated that she takes a lot of initiative to come up with diverse and creative resources to try and improve her classroom practice, but still she does not see herself as leading. This action echoes the findings of Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p.4) who say that “many teachers are not aware that a broader role of teacher leadership is open and available to those who wish to assume responsibilities and that those who are already active teacher leaders do not identify themselves as leaders”. Harris and Muijs (2005) argue that a fundamental element of teacher leadership is that it is exercised by teachers regardless of position or designation. Thus associating teacher leadership with a formal role contradicts the essence of teacher leadership.

In contrast, when TL1 was asked to define the concept teacher leader, his response was: *“It is a person whom the learners can look upon him / her as a good role model in leadership, especially when I work with them in class”* (TL1, J, p.2). TL1 did see himself as leading within the classroom, irrespective of the position or level that one is in, and the word ‘especially’ suggests that TL1 also sees a teacher leader as someone working outside the classroom and not necessarily always with learners. This conceptual understanding is in line with the position held by Heller and Firestone (1995) that teacher leadership does not necessarily depend on formally designated roles. This means that TL1 associates teaching with a leadership role.

On the other hand, TL2 has a different understanding of the concept teacher leadership. For him *“the term teacher leadership according to my understanding means going beyond the classroom environment and take part in other extra curricular activities”* (TL2, J, pp. 1-2). That is why there were fewer examples of him leading within the zone of the classroom [Z1]. I know that the reader might be asking the question: ‘Was TL2 indeed a teacher leader if he did not provide examples of him leading within the classroom?’ The definition of teacher leadership that I used in Chapter 2 as the one that frames this study say “teacher leaders are, in the first place expert teachers, who spend

the majority of their time in the classroom but take on leadership role at times when development and innovation is needed" (Harris and Lambert, 2003, p.4). To the reader this could also raise the same question of whether TL2 is a teacher leader or not, as he did not provide evidence of him spending the majority of his time within the classroom being an expert teacher.

Despite all these concerns I still believe that TL2 is indeed a teacher leader. The fact that he did not provide evidence of himself leading within the classroom does not mean that he was not leading within the classroom. I am well aware that the reader may not agree with me here. This is because I see TL2 as someone who separates teaching from leading and he does not see teaching as leadership role but he associate leadership with a formal role. This means that he saw what he does in class as something that he is expected to do as a teacher and not necessarily as a leader. The question here is whether he saw teaching as a leadership role or not as opposed to whether he was leading within the classroom or not. I remain confident of my position that he is indeed a teacher leader.

The evidence from my data and the literature leads me to decide that teacher leadership starts with one being an effective leader within one's class and then it goes beyond one's classroom, and it is not something that you can do alone or on your own, it needs to be collective or shared. The next part of this section looks at my three teacher leaders leading beyond the classroom.

4.3.2 Teacher Leaders Working With Other Teachers And Learners Outside The Classroom In Curricular And Extra Curricular Activities (Zone 2)

In Zone two [Z2] of the model of teacher leadership (Grant, 2008), this is where there is Role two [R2], which is about providing curriculum development knowledge. Secondly there is Role three [R3], which is about leading in- service education and assisting other teachers . Thirdly, there is Role four [R4], which is about participating in performance evaluation of teachers.

As Harris and Lambert (2003) indicate, teacher leadership is not a form of leadership that is confined to class. In line with this thinking, my participants acknowledged that teacher leadership goes beyond the class. TL2 stated that *“teachers are leaders for which they must work beyond classroom environment”* (TL2, J, p.1 – 2). TL1 and TL2 continued to link the teacher leadership practice from what happens within the classroom first as TL3 explained: *“It is about linking what is happening in class with what is happening beyond the class. It is also about motivating learners and to make them think about the future”* (FGI, p.3). TL1 argued that *“I do not believe that one can be called a teacher leader if his leadership is only outside the class”* (TL1, FGI, p.4).

This is also in line with Grant’s (2008) view that teacher leadership is about leading both within the classroom and beyond. Moreover, Purkey and Smith (1983) believe that effective teachers do more than provide classroom instruction. In addition to interacting with students they work with peers, administrators and parents. This means that a teacher leader needs to go beyond what is happening in her classroom because what is happening beyond the classroom could influence or affect what is happening within the class and vice versa.

Evidence from the data shows that these three teacher leaders also work with other teachers and learners outside the classroom, in curricular and extra curricular activities. For example, in an individual interview, TL1 described his leadership beyond the classroom in this way: *“I have played a leading role as a Subject Head working with other teachers compiling a subject framework in our department”* (TL1, J, p.7). This is an example of Zone 2, where a teacher works with others in providing curriculum knowledge (Role 2). Another example of Role 2 was when TL3 was asked to describe a situation where she took on leadership role beyond the classroom, she said: *“when I work with others in work schedule for my learning area”* (TL3, J, p.3). She stated further that *“I am also a netball team convener”* (TL3, J, p.3). This is a further example of Role 2, where she played a leading role in extra – curricular activity. TL2 sees himself as leading more beyond the class rather than within as it is expressed in the following words: *“I worked with teachers as a subject Head in English. It was mainly work focused on curriculum issues”* (TL2, J, p.16). This is another example of Role 2, where teachers

work together on curriculum issues. TL2 was chosen by the Head of Department to be a Subject Head for English. However, he volunteered to take a leadership role in extra curricular activities as he explained that *“I was the cultural activities chairperson – coordinated the activities ranging from Traditional to Gospel music. Also the founder of the schools’ Gospel Group which won numerous competition provincially”* (TL2, J, p2, p3, p.16). This is yet another example of Zone 2 and Role 2.

Furthermore, when these participants lead beyond the class, it depends on how crucial those matters are that they lead in. On minor issues like convening extra curricular activities (netball convener), they volunteered, but on crucial issues such as curriculum, they were delegated. This is evident by what TL3 says in describing a situation where she took on a leadership role: *“I have been delegated by my HOD to act on his behalf in his absence”* (TL3, II, p.5). This shows trust between this teacher leader and her Head of Department, because her duties included moderating tests question papers and mark sheets. This is an example of Role 4, which is about participating in performance evaluation of teachers. In contrast TL1, upon being chosen by the principal to be in an admission or registration team, took the initiative to deal with the problems that his team encountered. This is how he describes his story:

Initially I was allocated to grade 10 working with other teachers, but the leader was Mr. S who was very busy as he is a member of the SMT and I just decided to take it up. In other words I was not delegated to do that. If you remember very well at the end of the day it became my baby because Mr. S was no where to be found. I had challenges because classes were full. I had to go to the principal making suggestions that we need to open another class. But at the end of the day I volunteered to do that, and to coordinate he whole grade 10 registrations as other educators had just disappeared (TL1, II, p.8).

Assisting other teachers, as TL1 did is an example of Role 3 which is about leading in-service education and assisting other teachers voluntarily. However, in most cases participants from this study took on formal leadership roles only through leadership that was distributed by those who are in formal positions (principal and the SMT). For example, TL1 was ‘allocated’ to work in the registration or admission team for grade ten by the principal, ‘chosen’ by the HOD to be a Subject Head and ‘tasked’ to set a common paper. Furthermore, TL2 was ‘appointed’ by the HOD to be a Subject Head,

voted for by the teachers according to the policy to be a teacher representative on the School Governing Body and to be a Site Steward. Lastly, TL3 was 'chosen' by the HOD to be a Subject Head, and also 'delegated' by the HOD to act on his behalf in his absence.

This means that where teachers are leading in formal leadership roles it is through the delegation by those who are in formal positions. This is what Gunter (2005) calls authorized distributed leadership. It also concurs with what Singh (2007), concludes which is that the kind of distributed leadership that is prevalent in South Africa is authorized distributed leadership. This is because those who are in formal positions are holding on to power and only letting go to a degree.

As indicated above, most participants in this study are leading in those situations which the SMT consider less important. For example, TL1 'volunteers' to organize matric ball, 'volunteers' to organize class photos and school T-shirts. TL2 had a 'passion' for Cultural activities and Gospel music, and he ended up being a convener. TL3 'volunteered' to convene netball. This type of leadership is what Gunter (2005) calls dispersed distributed leadership. On important issues such as curriculum, time tabling, decision making, we often do not see these teachers leading in this case study school. It seems as if leading on crucial matters of the school is only for those who are in formal leadership positions. This is in contradiction to the conceptualization of distributed leadership by Harris and Muijs (2005, p.28) which is that "distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organization rather than seeking this only through formal position or role". The important issue is whether that individual teacher has the expertise or not, irrespective of the position that she holds in a school and irrespective of the task that has to be performed. Grant (2006) is also of the view that distributed leadership is about maximizing the human resource capacity within the school by engaging many people in leadership activity, according to their expertise.

A clear option in terms of leading in my school would be for those who are in formal positions (the SMT) to alternate with those who are in informal positions (such as my

three teacher leaders) depending on who has the expertise on that matter. The role of leading would then be seen by all staff as not fixed or permanently the sole preserve of the SMT, and that the role of the follower is also not fixed with the Level one teacher. Doing this would be an enactment of the Principal and HODs relinquishing power to Level one teachers so that the “fixed leader – follower dualism is abandoned in favour of the possibility of multiple, emergent leadership” (Gronn, 2000, p.325). Just as Spillane (2006) states, leadership is not something that is done to followers; followers in interaction with leaders and the situation that they find themselves in contribute in defining leadership practice. For example, what emerged from the data is that leadership by Level one teachers on crucial matters is through the delegation by the SMT and that there is a lack of interaction between leaders (SMT) and the followers (Level one teachers) in leadership situation in Zone 2.

This section looked at leadership roles played by my three teacher leaders beyond the classroom, specifically in working with other teachers in areas of curricular and extra curricula activities. I also looked at how they came about leading in those roles. The next part will look at whether these three teacher leaders are playing any leadership role in whole school development.

4.3.3 Teacher Leaders: Outside the Classroom to Whole School Development (Zone 3)

While examples exist in Zone 3 where these three teacher leaders are playing leadership roles, there were far fewer than in Zone 1 and Zone 2.

My observation of these participants indicated that they were not only leading within the zone of classroom [Zone 1] and beyond the classroom working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra curricular activities [Zone 2], but they were also leading outside the classroom in whole school development [Zone3]. This is where they were participating in organizing and leading peer reviews of their own school practice [Role 5] and also participating in school level decision-making role [Role 6].

When TL2 was asked whether he sees himself as a teacher leader his response was “recently I have been elected by the educators to be their site steward, so based on that I can say I am a teacher leader” (TL2, FGI, p.4). This gave him a chance to participate in reviews of school practice [Role 5]. My observation of TL1 during staff meetings was that “he played an informal mediating role within his department and school at large. He also participated in conflict resolution as well as in school based planning and decision making (R, O, 07/10/08). He was like a voice of reason and he was not afraid to challenge the status quo. Similarly TL2 as a site steward “participates in conflict resolution especially when performing his duties as a site steward”. He also participated in “identification of problems and resolution, such as challenging the pass marks for English” (R, O, 16/04/09). This provided him with an opportunity to participate in those school decisions that affected both teachers and learners [R6].

When asked how she copes with the micro politics of the case study school, TL3 said “I ignore negative comments from my colleagues and I prefers straight forward talk rather than gossiping” (II, p.6). She continued to say “I do not indulge myself in conversations that thrive on criticising the management without any ideas or suggestions”. TL3 has an awareness of, and is non partisan to, the micro politics of school. She is aware of these different groups in the school and my observation of her was that despite all of that she continues to work with integrity, trust and transparency.

However, overall I would say that my data suggests that my three teacher leaders were playing very limited roles in Zone 3 compared to Zone 1 and Zone 2. This means that their role was limited in decision-making that affected the whole school. The next part looks at Zone 4, where I looked at the leadership role played by my three teacher leaders beyond the school into the school community

4.3.4 Teacher Leaders: Between Neighbouring Schools in the Community (Zone 4)

In Zone 4, there is firstly Role 2, which is about providing curriculum development knowledge across schools. Secondly there is Role 3, which is about leading in- service education and assisting other teachers across schools.

Only two participants showed evidence of enactment of teacher leadership in Zone 4. TL1 stated that he took on a leadership role between neighbouring schools in the community by providing curriculum development knowledge (Role 2). He described a situation where he worked as a teacher leader: *"I was tasked to set a common paper for a certain grade which was going to be written by ALL schools in our township"* (II, pp. 5-6). Some of the instances where these two teacher leaders take on a leadership role is in clusters which are formally designed by the Department of Education around curriculum issues. TL2 said *"I network across schools because currently I am a cluster coordinator for grade 10 English teachers"* (J, p.17) and TL1 said *"I worked as a leader in cluster meetings"* (J, p.11).

On the other hand, TL2 served on my school's School Governing Body (SGB) as the Teacher Representative: *"It was kind of a challenging post because you had to deal with teacher problems. Even worst cases which can results into dismissal"* (J, p.16). To be a teacher representative on the SGB, he was voted for by the teachers as per the requirement of the SASA (1996). TL1's leadership role in Zone 4 was also associated with the parents as TL1 explained: *"I worked as a leader in parents meeting e.g. dealing with specific items in addressing the parents"* (J, p.10). This is an example of Zone 4 and Role 3.

In conclusion, even though these teacher leaders were observed and also found to be leading in Zone 3; Role 5, Role 6 and Zone 4; Role 2 and Role 3, they were however found leading mostly in Zone 1 - within the classroom where they are experts in the respective subjects that they teach. Similarly they were also found leading in Zone 2, however, their leadership on curriculum matters was delegated by the SMT (authorized distributed leadership). Their leadership on minor issues emerged from themselves and constituted examples of dispersed and democratic distributed leadership. As I explained in the introduction of this chapter, the next section looks at the importance of the culture of the case study school in terms of teacher leadership enactment.

4.4 IMPORTANCE OF SCHOOL CULTURE ON TEACHER LEADERSHIP 'ENACTMENT'

It is important that one understand the culture in which teacher leadership is enacted because the context may either enhance or hinder teacher leadership development. I agree with Smylie (1995, p.6) who argues that “it is very difficult to understand teacher leadership without also understanding the contexts in which it functions”. In the following discussion I am foregrounding the culture of my own school in order to pursue this study on the enactment of teacher leadership. Culture is defined by Peterson and Deal (1998, p.28) as “the underground streams of norms, values, beliefs, traditions, and rituals that has built up overtime as people work together, solve problems, and confronts challenges”. Therefore, in this study an understanding of the school culture helped me in determining whether school practices hinder or enhance the ‘enactment’ of teacher leadership. The first part of this section looks at the kind of culture that exists in my school (from my own perspective, and that of the three teacher leaders), and the second part looks at the role players when it comes to decision-making.

4.4.1 Lack of a collaborative culture in the school (Zone 3)

“Collaboration is at the heart of teacher leadership as it is premised on change that is taken collectively” (Harris and Lambert, 2003, p.44). Unfortunately, data revealed that in this case study school there was no team work at a whole school level. The non - existence of a collaborative culture was also the norm between the teachers working amongst themselves in Zone 2. For example, TL3 explained that “*even us as post Level one educators, we are not working together (TL3, II, p.2)*”. This ‘not working together’ refers to Zone 2, where teachers are supposed to be working together outside the classroom in curricular and extra – curricular activities. Furthermore, this ‘not working’ together according to TL1, does not only apply to Level one teachers, but also within the SMT as it is expressed in the following words by TL1 referring to the SMT: “*well I don’t think that they are working as a team (TL1, II, p.5)*”. For him, the SMT is a just a structure to try and move the school to a particular direction. He suggested that “*they should bring everyone on board including the post level ones (TL1, FGI, p.5)*”. He elaborated by making an example of the issue of the reports:

This thing of the reports caused a lot of tension because people were not consulted; that is why they were angry. So in a situation where there is teamwork, you cannot experience such problems. But now it shows that people are not working as a team (TL1, II, p.5).

This means that the benefits of teacher leadership through collegiality as suggested by Hargreaves (1992), are lost in this school. Hargreaves believes that collegiality among teachers and between teachers and their principals should be advanced as one of the most fruitful strategies for fostering teacher leadership development. Furthermore, from my own experience I can confirm that collegiality “takes teacher development beyond personal, idiosyncratic reflection, and beyond dependence on outside experts to a point where teachers can learn from each other, sharing and developing their expertise together” (Lieberman and Miller, 1984, cited in Hargreaves, 1992, p. 80).

The practice of working alone was endorsed by TL3 who explained: that “*I find it hard to work with colleagues*” (TL3, J, p.6). This is also an indication, according to TL3, that there is no collaborative culture. This is a situation where teachers are supposed to be working together [Zone 2]. However TL3 remarked as follows “*I just do my work, where I work it’s a situation of everyman for himself*” (J, p.6). This indicated that her leadership is mostly in the Zone of the classroom and she focuses on continuing to teach and improve her own teaching (Role 1) in a fairly isolated manner. It seems as if TL3 could be contributing to this non- collaborative culture as she continue to work alone.

TL3 works seems to work best independently as she commented in her self-reflective journal “*Sometime if you wait for other people your wok may not be done*” (J, p.7). This view in fact accords with other critiques of collegiality that suggest that collegiality is likely to reduce the autonomy of individual teachers (Hargreaves, 1992). Similarly, Findlers (1998, cited in Dalin, 1993) argues that teachers often work actively to secure individual time ‘to be able to get the work done’, often because they see co-operation as the waste time, and as taking energy away from the main task. Individual work time is essential for solid preparation, for some follow up work and for further studies and

reflection. This means that working alone should not always be looked at as something bad. However, Campbell and Southworth argue that:

The culture of collaboration is built on four interacting beliefs: individuals should be valued but, because they are inseparable from the group of which they are part, groups too should be fostered and valued; the most effective way of promoting these values are through a sense of mutual security and consequent openness (1992, p.67).

It follows then that in an ideal situation, collaboration should be developed in this case study school so as to give teacher leadership a chance because “it is difficult to develop teacher leadership to its full potential without also developing the contexts” (Smylie, 1995, p.6), but at the same time, the importance of individual teachers working independently and being accountable for their own responsibilities and actions should also be encouraged.

The next part of this section looks specifically at the role of teacher leaders in relation to the critical issue of decision-making in this case study school.

4.4.2 School culture, leadership and decision-making

My three teacher leaders’ descriptions of their school culture was explicitly linked to decision-making. This refers to Zone 3, where teachers take on leadership roles outside the classroom in whole school development, by participating in school level decision – making (Role 6). These three teacher leaders agreed that Level one teachers play a minor role when it comes to high level decision-making. They indicated that there are two groups of role players when it comes to decision-making, namely, the SMT and Level one teachers. In presenting my findings, the following discussion focuses on data that reveals the dynamics of decision-making relating to these two groups.

When TL1 was asked how decisions are made in this school, his response was: “*We take decisions in staff meetings, even though that strategy has its own problems*” (TL1, II, p.7). This means that if decisions are taken in staff meetings, then staff meetings are very important. Indeed, during my observation I noticed that staff meetings provided

Level one teachers with an opportunity to participate in the process of decision-making. However the problem that I identified was that in my school, staff meetings are rare, yet crucial decisions are made either on a daily or weekly basis without full consultation with all staff members. This is also supported by the words of TL1 when he compares the past with current situation: *“In the past you had a voice, you were given a platform”* (II, p.5). He stated that the situation has changed now *“it’s either you take it or leave it. It’s about go to class, do this, this is the due date everything revolve around that, here is circular, sign this”*. His main argument is that there are *“no meetings, no suggestions for the agenda, no suggestion box”* (FGI ,p7). According to him what is needed is *“a year plan for the meetings, either beginning of the term or end of term”* (TL1, II, p.7). This is because he believes that *“staff meetings are the most critical because this is where we come together at once and discuss issues together with the management* (TL1, FGI, p.6). This means that, according to the perceptions of TL1, Level one teachers’ participation in the process of decision-making is restricted.

When it comes to staff meetings, I noticed during the formal observation process that an:

announcement was made by the principal on Monday morning up - date that there will be a staff meeting on Thursday at 01h30. Less than ten educators were there out of 40. He then wrote a communication book informing the educators about the staff meeting with an agenda that was circulated to all teachers for them to read and sign to acknowledge that they have read it (R, O, 03/11/08).

This process was confirmed by TL2 who explained that: *“usually Level one educators are not provided with an opportunity to contribute in the drawing up of an agenda”* (TL2, II, p.5). This is also similar to the findings of the teacher leadership study that was done by Ntuzela (2008) in two primary schools in KwaZulu-Natal where, in meetings that were convened by the SMT, the agenda was already drawn up without prior consultation of colleagues. In my school it is not clear whether the agenda is drawn up by the principal only or whether he works together with the SMT. However, what is clear is that the agendas of meetings are not prepared in collaboration with the teachers.

My observation of the case study school was that there are two types of meetings that occur. The first one is what I call an *“information cascading meeting”* (R, O, 27/03/09).

This is where the principal tells the staff about decisions taken at departmental level where he does not see the need for consulting staff on these decisions. As Singh (2007) states, there seems to be no room for discussion on department directives, which are merely past down the chain of command. It seems as if the principal is in much the same position as the Level one teacher. This means that when it comes to the DOE, he is not given the opportunities to lead or sometimes to contextualize the policy or directive. The second type of meeting is the one that deals with local school issues. As explained earlier, there are:

No schedule for these types of staff meetings, most of them are reactive rather than proactive, because they are about finding a solution to a problem that has occurred rather than trying to prevent a problem. The principal usually chairs the meeting (R, O, 06/11/08).

In the context of local school issue meetings, TL3 felt that it would be better if *“the principal give the chairperson of the meeting to someone else. We must also be made to feel welcome in these meetings” (TL3, II, pp. 5 -6)*. This is in line with the thinking of Bezzina (1993, cited in Conco, 2004, p.65) who suggests that “staff should be given opportunities in staff meetings to develop skills in communication, problem analysis, conflict management and brainstorming”. This is further supported by Telford (1996) who suggests that democratic procedures such as open meetings, rotating the chair, minute taking at meetings and having an open agenda extend leadership opportunities and share responsibilities among the staff.

My three primary participants felt that the management style of the SMT is top down especially when it comes to decision-making. When TL3 was asked how decisions were made in this school, her response was: *“The SMT just comes and informs us what they have decided”*. This happened even though staff meetings have been identified as important in taking decisions. She continued to say *“for us [level one] we are expected to follow that” (TL3, II, p.1)*. This was confirmed by TL2 when he said, *“I can say in my school the way they take decisions basically start with the SMT and the principal; they are the ones who takes decisions” (TL2, II, p.1)*.

As mentioned earlier, it means that according to TL2 and TL3, shared decision-making is not happening at this school. Even though there were staff meetings where decisions can be jointly taken, it was still the SMT that ultimately took decisions. Either those staff meetings are 'a telling session' where Level one teachers are being informed of what the SMT has decided, or those meetings are for creating an impression that shared decision-making was taking place, yet it was not the case. This is where the process of decision-making was 'contrived' as educators were made to believe that they were part of decision-making process and there was even a staff meeting to discuss the issues. However, in practice, decisions had already been taken. This is in contradiction with the view of Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) who argue that teachers need to be part of decision-making in order to avoid any form of unwanted behaviour.

As mentioned earlier, collective leadership does not exist in this school. TL2 stated that *"the SMT is aloof from the teachers"* (TL2, J, p.7). He continued to say *"they [SMT] come up with a management plan most of the time if it is exam time and that management plan is imposed"* (TL2, J, p.7). His argument was that, in the compilation of that management plan, *"there are no teacher representatives"* (TL2, J, p.7). Therefore, he suggested that *"the site steward is representing the teachers, therefore the site steward should be part of the meeting"* (J, p.8). Similarly, TL1 concurs with TL2 and contends that *"Top down management style has never worked in any organization and is certainly not working in schools"* (TL1, FGI, p.5). Therefore, change is needed and his suggestion was as follows: *"They [SMT] may be in positions of leading but what is needed is consultation and collective leadership"* (TL1, FGI, p.6).

Thus, the data seems to indicate that decision-making is the task of the SMT and Level one teachers are "just passengers of a moving train fuelled by the SMT (Ntuzela, 2008, p.46). The SMT, therefore, is the primary role player in terms of either enhancing or restricting teacher leadership enactment. To do this, they would have to adopt a distributed leadership approach. However, in this school it seems as if the SMT is not ready and willing to adhere to the notions of distributed leadership. Furthermore, the findings of this study, especially in the way that schools are managed and the way that decisions are made, is similar to research studies undertaken by Sterling and Davidoff

(2000), Grant (2006), Rajagopaul (2007), Singh (2007), and Chatturgoon (2009). These studies show that schools continue to operate along autocratic and bureaucratic lines with leadership being understood in terms of position, authority and status. The repercussions of this approach are evident in the following quotation: *“If SMT will not involve educators when making decisions in a school, educators cannot be developed. If the school uses the top down system, no teacher can be developed”* (SMT5, Q, p.4).

In this school, it is clear now, that the hierarchical structure is very strong and powers are centralized with the SMT. It seems as if the SMT in this school associates the concept leadership with formal management positions (those that are officially appointed by the DOE). As a result, as TL3 explained some teachers have a *“negative attitude caused by these authoritative figures and the instructions that comes from the top without any consultation”* (TL3, II, p.4). However, Gronn (2000) and Harris and Muijs (2005) argue that it is about what people do in their positions that makes them good leaders, irrespective of the formal or informal management position one holds. I completely agree with this, but as my data shows, such a situation is not happening in my school.

Thus, it can be seen from my study that, as Harris and Muijs (2003) argue, the top down approaches to leadership and the internal school structure offer impediments to the development of distributed leadership, and hence teacher leadership. They add that the current hierarchy of leadership that prevails in schools means that power resides with the leadership team at the top and in this case that would be the SMT. This was indeed obvious in my case study school. Moreover, Harris and Lambert (2003, pp. 44 – 45) argue that:

The possibility of teacher leadership in any school will depend on whether the head or school management team within the school relinquishes power to teachers and the extent to which teachers accept the influence of colleagues who have been designated as leaders in a particular area.

My observation was that, in this school, teachers are involved in some of the decision – making practices but in a very restricted way and within set boundaries, which then inevitably limits the scope of leadership for them. To illustrate this, TL2 explained:

Basically when it comes to decisions I think mostly it depends on who says that point. They (SMT) first look at the person; it is about the person not the point that you made a strong point. They prejudge you that this point comes from so and so, he is like this and that, and this point comes from this one so we can take it (FGI, p.7).

This clearly indicated that there is favoritism where teachers are not treated in the same way. TL1 made the following example: “*somebody is taking an initiative on sport, you will see the management coming on full force to support that person*” (II, p.2). TL1 continued to make a comparison when he said: “*If you come up with a different idea you don’t get that support similar to the one given on sport*” (II, p.2). The point here is not just about sport or any other activity but it is about who came up with that idea, the issue is the person rather than an idea or the activity to be performed.

4.4.4 The Principal as ‘top – dog’ in the decision – making process

Within the membership of the SMT, there is the principal who, as my data shows, sometimes took decisions unilaterally. TL2, for example, said, “*Sometimes you may feel that the principal is taking decisions on his own not supported by other members of the SMT*” (TL2, II, p.1). While teachers are involved in decision–making at the level of Zone 2, this was not the case in Zone 3 as TL3 explained earlier i.e. that within the different departments they were consulted, but the problem is within the context of whole school development. Furthermore, a split within the SMT has been revealed through the data which suggests that the principal is abusing his power by working unilaterally and excluding SMT members from the decision–making process. In relation to this, TL2 stated that: “*members of the SMT themselves are surprised by the decisions which have been taken by the principal; they are surprise together with us*” (II, p.3).

‘Lone’ decision-making is in contradiction with what Craig (1990) suggests viz. that for principals of large schools that have central or school management teams with which to

share their challenges, opportunities and problems, success can be greater. I agree with Craig (1990) here and when he goes on to maintain that the creation of school management team alone will not secure success, only co-operation, frankness and mutual trust can do this.

Unilateral decision-making by a principal is obviously against the democratic practices that a school should promote. In this study, it can be argued that the principal unilaterally makes some decisions because he is solely accountable to the Department of Education if something goes wrong at the school, as suggested earlier. However, (Hart, 1995, p.12) reminds us that “principals educated and socialized under power-centered role expectations often lack the skills and knowledge to practice more dispersed leadership”.

Thus, from the above discussion and the data presented in support of it, it can be seen that however good the principal is at his job, he is likely to achieve better decisions if he involves and consults with other people and uses their ideas as well as his own (Dean, 1987). In short, a decision is most likely to be implemented adequately when those involved feel fully committed to it. This was also supported by the survey data as one SMT member said “*all stakeholders should be involved in decision-making process*” (SMT3, Q, p.4), implying her own exclusion in the decision-making process. Another SMT member explained that, “*what we need is the involvement of every educator in decision-making process*” (SMT5, Q, p.4).

4.4.5 Challenges to ‘management’ and consequences

As firmly established now, the role played by Level one teachers in decision-making in the case study school is restricted. Ultimately, the role of the Level one teacher is to implement the decisions taken by the SMT and the principal. My observation of the staff meeting was that it is the same people who participate while other teachers withdraw because they feel that their opinions will not be valued. They remain silent. The participation of Level one teachers in decision-making is so little, as one participant explains:

Well post Level one educators I can say may be, to name it in percentage, it can be about 30% of it which is too little, the way I see it. Because as post level one, we are the one who works on the ground who is supposed to be in charge and be informed about most of the decisions (TL2, II, p.1).

His views were supported by the data from the teachers' questionnaires where 36% of the teachers said the SMT allows teachers to participate in school level decision-making [Zone 3 Role 6].

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) contend that teachers are the largest group of school employees and those closest to the students. They have first hand knowledge on factors that impede teaching and learning in the school. Principals working closely with teachers through informal conversations in the corridors can identify areas that need change. My observation between January and March 2009 revealed that *"the principal usually moves out of his office but mostly it is about maintaining order, ensuring that learners as well as teachers are in class"* (R, O, 27/03/09). This is a management function rather than leadership and it is not in line with what Ash and Persall (2000) argue i.e. that the role of the principal is a 'chief learning officer'. They suggest that the principal should spend time with the teachers, and engage in conversations with them about teaching and learning. This interaction is not happening in this school, yet these authors argue that such interaction creates a school culture that is open and inviting for teacher leadership and distributive leadership to emerge.

In this case study school, where Level one teachers participated in decision-making, it was through the "discourse of selective entry or access" (Singh, 2007, p.75). Level one teachers were consulted and participated in decision-making mainly when their support was needed by the SMT in certain minor activities, as expressed by this participant: *"Well it is not crucial decisions like examination, management plan, and time table etcetera. It is just general things"* (TL2, II, p.2). Similarly, TL1 stated that on some minor issues *"like assembly you will hear them saying we need your input guys, let us work together to come up with ideas. To me that is a minor issue"* (TL1, II, p.3). Quantitative data from the teachers' questionnaire revealed that 83% of the participants said that

only the SMT takes important decisions in the school [Zone 3 Role 6]. Interestingly, from the SMT's questionnaire, 55% said the SMT takes important decisions in the school.

This is similar to the findings of the study conducted by Singh (2007) - that staff members' participation in decision-making was needed by the SMT in performing technical administrative tasks or unimportant functions such as fundraising, organizing school braai, dances and so on. What emerged from my data, which is also similar to Singh's (2007) study, is that access to making decisions could either be granted or denied by the SMT, or the principal, who closely guarded the decision-making process and could make the final decision on whether there should be participation, who should participate and who is left out.

Some Level one teachers do not participate in decision-making process at this school. As TL1 explains: "*Certain percentages of the decisions that are taken are not implemented*" (FGI, pp.6 -7). Then again, there seems to be an outcry that Level one teachers to be part of the decision-making process, so that their role is not only that of implementing decisions taken by the SMT and/or the principal. They want their participation to extend to crucial decisions such as curriculum, time table, management planning and so forth. Furthermore, they want the decisions taken collaboratively to be implemented. This desire is summed up in the words of TL3: "*We are adult too and we want to be listened to. However in this school it is like if you are post Level one you must do what you are told*" (TL3, FGI, p.6).

The culture that prevails in this school is inhibiting the enactment of teacher leadership. I agree with the views of the participants in Grant's (2006) study who suggest that the concept 'teacher leader' is directly related to school culture. For them "a school that wishes to embrace teacher leadership would need to develop a culture that supports collaboration, partnership, team teaching and collective decision making" (Grant, 2006, p.524).

Smylie (1995) asserts that one of the objectives achieved by efforts to develop teacher leadership is that the capacity and performance of schools is enhanced when teachers

are placed in positions of leadership and decision-making, thus increasing resources and expertise available for improvement. In line with this thinking, TL2 suggested: *“I think the management should read the Batho Pele principles which is about consultation. In leadership you need to consult with people because if you don’t consult with them it backfires”* (TL2, FGI, p.6).

In summary, this section looked at the importance of the school culture in the enactment of teacher leadership. My three teacher leaders identified barriers to the enactment of teacher leadership as a result of the school culture. The next section discusses those barriers to the enactment of teacher leadership in the context of this case study school.

4.5 BARRIERS TO THE ENACTMENT OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

This section provides answers to the second question of this case study research, where it looks at the factors that hindered the ‘enactment’ of teacher leadership in my school.

4.5.1 Lack of leadership mentoring by the SMT

One of the factors that contribute to Level one teachers not taking on leadership roles is the lack of leadership capacity. As much as Grant (2006, p.513) states that in keeping with the notions of distributive leadership, teachers need to be encouraged to find their voice, take up their potential as change agents to produce a liberating culture in their schools, teachers may not be able to do that if they lack the capacity to lead in certain areas. To shift from a ‘dependency culture’ to one of ‘empowerment’ (Fullan, 2003, p.37), requires that Level one teachers need to be capacitated. The observation of TL2 in this study was that: *“Some of the SMT members are ageing and very soon they will be retiring and a vacuum will be left. So new people need to be trained to bring them to the SMT”* (TL2, II, p.6). TL2 repeated this view in the focus group interviewing, saying to us all on that occasion, *“Basically looking at the context of this school, the SMT is ageing and that is a fact and the skills that they possess for an example they don’t like transfer those skills or teach other young and aspiring teachers”* (FGI, p.4).

This means that teachers need to be capacitated just as Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) cited in Ntuzela (2008, p. 73) insist i.e. that for effective leadership to take place, teachers must have adequate knowledge about skills in the field in which they will become leaders. Furthermore, building leadership capacity means broad based, skillful involvement in the work of leadership (Harris and Lambert, 2003) where a significant number of skillful leaders (SMT members) who understand the shared vision of the school would ideally be involved in the selection, induction and mentoring of new teachers as leaders.

A nurturing process in which a more experienced person, serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsel and befriends a less skilled or less experienced person for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and personal development. (Anderson and Shannon, 1988, p.40).

Unpacking the above definition in relation to the case study school, it means that the SMT, which is more experienced and skilled on leadership, ought to mentor Level one teachers who are less skilled and less experienced on many issues including leadership. This should be done to avoid a situation where there will be a vacuum when the SMT members retire. TL2 explained how this process can happen in practice: *"It should be a process where they co-opt some members of the staff like post Level one staff in their meetings basically to train them"* (TL2, FGI, p.2). Furthermore, TL2 suggested that the SMT *"should identify teachers with leadership skills, co-opt them from post level one. May be two or three teachers to try and give them experience"* (TL2, FGI, p.2). However TL1 suggested that SMT members may resist this cooperation for a range of reasons:

Eh, may be it is fear. Some of the post level one, with their experience and education qualification, may be there is fear that if we pull these people or if we draw these people we might have a problem. But I think that may be there is fear. . . Ya fear from management because there are many people with the expertise in Level one with good academic qualification (TL1, II, p.4).

This fear becomes a barrier, where co-opting Level one teachers by the SMT members as a way of either mentoring them into leadership positions (formal or informal) or using their expertise on certain issues, is unable to happen. Unless SMT members deal with

this fear they may not co-opt Level one teachers onto any formal management structures. In short, Level one teachers who exhibit leadership skills maybe viewed as a threat by the SMT and thus will not be given opportunities to lead.

The other reason for not co-opting Level one teachers from each department could be that the SMT equates leadership to position or authority, which means that Level one teachers are not seen as leaders since they are not occupying formal leadership positions. This is in contradiction with what Goleman (2002, p.14, cited in Harris and Lambert, 2003, p.1) says, viz. that there are many leaders, not just one. In reality, leadership is distributed. It resides not solely in the individual at the top, but in every person at every level who in one way or another, act as a leader. However, in my study, TL3 cautions that even delegation could be problematic if capacity for taking on that leadership role is not there.

4.5.2 Veteran educators' inability to change

Teachers who have been teaching in this school for so many years have been identified as one of the barriers to the development of teacher leadership. Some of these educators are Level one teachers while others are members of the SMT. Some of these educators are not open to new ideas and they resist change. Let me illustrate my point with examples from the data. TL2 in his self-reflective journal explained that: "*Some people resist change especially those who have been here for a long time*" (TL2, J, p.13). This view was also raised during my individual interview with TL2. He said, "*In my school where I'm working you've got some teachers who have been here for so many years and they think that things should be done the old style*" (TL2, II, p.4). The maintaining of the status quo by those teachers who have teaching in this school for many years, did not only apply to Level one teachers but also to the SMT members as TL3 observed that "*even the SMT itself is composed of the people who have been here for quite a long time*". (TL3, II, p.5). TL1 suggested that: "*we need to change things around and get new teachers on the SMT who can come up with fresh ideas to take our school forward*" (TL, II, p.6).

This brings up the question of why do these teachers resist change? Morrison (1998) explains that “change is inescapably and intensely personal, because it requires people to do something different, to think differently and to feel something different” (p.376). Therefore, these teachers may resist change because it challenges them to move away from their comfort zones. Some of the reasons that make individuals resist change are fear of inadequacy, admission of weakness, fear of loss of present status and fear of loss of current job satisfaction (Fullan, 2001, p.188). It could happen that some of these senior teachers are afraid of their younger colleagues who may have knowledge and expertise which they do not have. For example, the following quote from TL3 illustrates that point:

Just as one teacher said when he came to this school and saw that some things were wrong. He tried to come up with corrective measures and when he makes a suggestion he is always turned down or ignored by those people who have been here for a long time (TL3, II, p.2).

This further demonstrates the non existence of a collaborative culture as described earlier in this chapter, because both sides should work together and share ideas for the benefit of the school. Just as Darling-Hammond, Bullmaster and Cobb (1995, p.90) suggest that “veteran teachers should mentor new teachers and co-construct teacher preparation programmes where both novices and veterans develop curriculum and make decisions about schools and classroom practices”, so should this be happening in the case study school. This is because a change of curriculum in South African education has challenged both young and old teachers to change the way they do things. Even those who are in formal management positions, such as principals, are challenged to move towards democratic and participatory styles of leadership. Some of these teachers are finding it hard to make that shift and they hold on to the past as it is explained in the following except: “*I think there is a generation gap, age gap and there are those people who believe in an old school of thought*” (TL2, II, p.5). Veteran teachers’ beliefs in ‘an old school of thought’ was not only evident in their leadership styles but it also extended to their implementation of the new curriculum. As TL1 stated, “*if you come up with something within the education system or within the policy they tell you to do it in their own way*” (TL1,II, p.4).

Clarke (1999) suggests that one of the reasons that make some teachers reject change is ignorance, where an individual has insufficient information about the change. This was affirmed in my study where TL1 described his situation: *“I was tasked to set a common paper for a certain grade which was going to be written by ALL schools in our township” (TL1, II, pp. 5 – 6)*. He said because he had gone to the workshop and he knew the policy, he set the test out of 50, but it was rejected by the principal who said he could not set the test which is out of 50. Secondly it was rejected by his HOD and then he was forced to change it to 100 marks. After that it was rejected by this Subject Advisor who said: *“How can I ignore the policy because the test is suppose to be 50 marks”*. It then came back and he was so angry and the principal was embarrassed. TL1 said *“I was so angry because it looked like I don’t know my work. That is why I am complaining about this school of thought” (TL1, II, pp. 5 – 6)*.

On the other hand, the example just quoted demonstrates the extent of mistrust that those who are in formal leadership position express towards Level one teachers. It contradicts what Grant (2008, p.46) says about teacher leadership that it should include teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders *“towards a shared dynamic vision of their school within a culture of fairness, inclusion, mutual respect and trust”*. Instead of a culture of trust, my principal’s mistrust has become a barrier to the enactment of teacher leadership in my school. Furthermore, the degree of mistrust that the principal demonstrated towards TL1 is contrary to the view of Hayes (1997, p. 3) that *“if people are given responsibility and autonomy, they will rise to it: if they are trusted they will be trustworthy”*. However, I agree with Lieberman, Saxl and Miles (1988) who argue that building trust among teachers, who have long felt that they have little or no voice in choosing what is best for their students or themselves, is not easy.

4.5.3 Demotivated and disillusioned teachers

It is understood that teachers globally, including South Africa, are working under challenging conditions and that there are many factors that could result in them being demotivated. When TL3 was asked to share a story where she took the initiative in a leadership role, her response was: *“I cannot remember anything. The environment does*

not provide for that opportunity. It is a matter of going to class with nothing that motivates you to want to take an initiative” (TL3, J, p.4). This clearly demonstrates a level of demotivation that TL3 in this case study school is experiencing.

As much as TL3 feels that the environment does not provide an opportunity to take on leadership roles, Clarke (1992) suggests that teachers *need* to take on leadership roles. He argues that teachers’ interest, motivation and confidence are important in teacher development, insisting that “adult development is more likely to be successful when it is voluntary rather than coercive” (p.335). This is further supported by Muijs and Harris (2003) who state that for teacher leadership to occur, not only do principals need to distribute authority but teachers also need to understand and take up their agency around leadership roles.

Some teachers in this study were demotivated by the lack of support, lack of incentives and lack of recognition of their hard work by the management, as expressed in the following words: *“Even when you try to be active here you don’t get a support. People have given up and they are now cheque collectors. They are not contributing towards the building of the school” (TL1, II, pp. 5 -6).* Furthermore, TL2 explained that: *“Teachers are like fed up most of the time and they are tired. They don’t want to do anything. This is because it basically lies with the motivation its way low” (TL2, II, p.3).* TL3’s main point was that: *“The SMT is not very much involved in our ‘leadership’. They do not praise, even if there is a certain individual, even though some do take an initiative doing something good and lead until it is done. They won’t say a thing” (TL3,II, p.4).*

Barriers, such as the ones discussed above, are similar to those of the study that was conducted by Ntuzela (2008). In his study, Level one teachers wanted their hard work to be recognized and appreciated by everyone especially those who are in formal leadership position such as the principal.

In summary, this section looked at a range of factors that hindered the enactment of teacher leadership in the case study school. My three teacher leaders then identified

strategies to enhance the enactment of teacher leadership. The next section discusses these strategies.

4.6 STRATEGY TO DEVELOP TEACHER LEADERSHIP

This section also provides answers to the second question of this case study research, where it looks at the factors that enhanced the 'enactment' of teacher leadership. In this section that follows, I identify an important factor that contribute to the enactment of teacher leadership that emerged in the study

4.6.1 Teacher professional development opportunities

As much as conditions for Level one teachers to take on leadership roles can be created, they also need to be developed on leadership and be given more time and support, to demonstrate their leadership skills.

The importance of teacher professional development was highlighted in my study. For example, TL1 commented that: *“Empowering educators through educational workshop, staff development on leadership and more time for educators to demonstrate their leadership skills could go a long way to help teachers to take on leadership roles”* (TL1, J, p. 9). TL2 suggested that: *“the SMT must create the conditions for post Level one teachers to lead”* (TL2, FGI, p.5). Some SMT members concurred with my three teacher leaders when they said: *“SMT need to identify potentials available in educators and develop them”* (SMT3, Q, p4), and that *“staff training and mentoring programmes are required”* (SMT4, Q, p4).

This view is supported by Singh (2007) who argues that principals should create an organizational culture and infrastructure with leadership opportunities for everyone, including all members of the SMT as well as post Level one teachers. Furthermore, school leaders can provide opportunities for teachers to participate in decision-making and school development. This can be done by:

distributing the responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school, sharing decision-making powers with staff, taking staff opinion to

account, providing autonomy for teachers and creating opportunities for staff development. (Leithwood, Tomlison and Genge, 1996, pp, 811 - 812).

This is where the “sleeping giant” of a teacher leader may be awakened” (Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2001, p. 123). Furthermore TL2 makes a more macro level suggestion that this concept of teacher leadership can be formally introduced to the South African teachers in the following way:

I think what needs to be done on the part of the Department of Education, the employer, is to conduct some workshops on teacher leadership, because this concept is really exciting. This should be done in order to get these aspiring young leaders who are motivated and want to be part of this whole thing (TL2, II, p7).

This teacher’s belief is that once this concept is known, then those who are not in formal leadership positions may be willing to take on leadership initiatives knowing that by doing so that they will not be treading on somebody’s toes. TL2 continues to specify that SMT members, including principals, also need to be work shopped. He argued that “*principals and the SMT need to be work shopped again on how to run the schools because being a leader you need skills on how to run the whole organization*” (TL2, J, p.8). This is in line with the view of Hart (1995) that the time for changing the education and training of teachers and principals has come as teachers are ‘out of the classroom and in the line of fire’.

The shift to a distributed leadership is supported by many education policy documents in our country as earlier chapters have indicated. Moving towards this style of leadership and developing teacher leadership in schools, principals and those who are in formal leadership positions may be challenged to let go of their power, to distribute their leadership, to delegate some leadership tasks, to trust other teachers, to provide support and so forth.

In summary, I agree with Grant that “principals need to be supported as they learn to delegate authority and teachers need to be supported as they take up their leadership role” (2006, p.529). Grant continues to say learning and leading are not solitary events but aspects of an ongoing social interaction.

4.7 CONCLUSION

What the study attempted to do was to explore how teacher leadership was enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg. It also wanted to find out the possible factors that either enhanced or hindered the enactment of teacher leadership. On the issue of decision-making, participants in my study felt that on crucial decisions they are not consulted and that the SMT use their legal powers to decide whether a Level one teacher can take on a leadership role in a certain activity or not. This is further complicated by the lack of a collaborative culture that exists in the case study school, yet Harris and Lambert (2003) see collaborative culture as being important in the development of teacher leadership. In conclusion, I believe that both of my research questions were answered. From the data I was able to see how teacher leadership was enacted. This was identified by looking at the areas in which teacher leaders' lead, and how they ended up leading in those areas, were roles and tasks delegated to them or did they take the initiative. In so doing, I was trying to find out whether leadership is distributed in this school. Secondly I wanted to find out what factors enhanced or hindered teacher leadership 'enactment' in the context of this school. This is where interesting barriers such as the lack of leadership capacity by Level one educators, disillusioned and demotivated teachers, came up. Finally, professional development initiatives around leadership practice was identified as a strategy that can enhance the enactment of teacher leadership.

I agree with Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) who makes a call for schools to become professional learning communities where democratic and participatory decision-making exists and where teachers can thrive and make a difference through the actions they take in their school contexts.

The next chapter presents the summary of the key findings, conclusions as well as the recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present the conclusions of the entire study. Firstly, I present the summary of the key findings that were discussed in Chapter Four. Secondly, I reflect on the case study methodology that I used in this research by discussing its strengths and limitations. My reflection continues where I discuss the group research project as it was introduced in Chapter One; to see what worked and what did not work. Based on the key findings, I then discuss a few recommendations on what can be done to promote the development of teacher leadership in the schooling context. I then conclude by suggesting a few further research questions on the topic of teacher leadership that emanated from my research.

5.2 SUMMARY OF THE KEY FINDINGS

The aim of conducting this research was to find nuanced answers on the question of how teacher leadership is enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg. I also wanted to find out about the factors that either enhance or hinder this enactment, specifically in the case study school. Given the way in which the study was conducted i.e. the research design, methods of data collection and data analysis, I believe that the above goal of the research was indeed achieved. For example, in terms of answering the first research question i.e. 'How is teacher leadership enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg?'

This was answered firstly by looking at the teacher leaders' understanding of the concept teacher leadership. What emerged from the data was that the three teacher leaders in the study had a similar understanding of the concept teacher leadership, although, as problematised in detail earlier in this chapter, TL2 did not evidence the same grasp of teacher leadership as did TL1 and TL 3.. TL1 and TL3 emphasized that

teacher leadership has to start within the class since teaching and learning are the core business of the school, while TL2's understanding of the concept was located more beyond the classroom because what he does in class he sees as something that is expected from every teacher. TL3 does not associate teaching with leading because she believed that what one does in class does not equate to leading, which means that one's leadership can only be demonstrated beyond the classroom.

Secondly, this research question was answered by looking at where these three teacher leaders played a leadership role and how they came to be leading in the various zones. TL1 and TL3 were found to be leading mostly within the classroom (Zone one) in role one and beyond the classroom with other teachers in co-curricular and extra curricular activities (Zone two). TL2 was leading mostly in Zone two. All the three teacher leaders held formal leadership roles because they were all Subject Heads. Beyond the classroom they led in areas such as sporting code convener, site steward, cultural activities convener and so forth. What I found out is that where they were leading in matters pertaining to curriculum, they were delegated this responsibility by either the principal or the HoD. Gunter (2005) characterizes this as authorized distributed leadership. This means that the SMT decided who to involve in certain areas of the school life that they considered to be crucial. In contrast, where teacher leaders were leading on matters concerning sports or cultural activities, they volunteered, which is more in line with what Gunter (2005) calls dispersed distributed leadership.

Thirdly, the above research question was answered by looking at the role played by the culture of the case study school in the 'enactment' of teacher leadership. The three teacher leaders understood the school culture in terms of decision-making. What emerged from the data was that staff meetings are where decisions were taken and that there are two key role players in the decision-making process of this school namely, the SMT and the Level one teachers. However, Level one teachers indicated that the SMT took decisions on their own without consulting them. TL2 felt that it was the principal who took decisions on his own, as some SMT members were surprised by the decisions that he took. Level one teachers' participation in the decision-making process was thus minimal and restricted to minor decisions such as the leading of assemblies. On crucial

decisions such as those related to the curriculum, time table and management planning, their participation was not sought, instead they are given orders of what has to be done. Level one teachers were mostly involved in the management of administrative work or performing technical functions, they were not involved in leadership, where leadership is about “establishing direction, aligning people, motivating and inspiring them” (Kotter, 1990, pp.4 – 5).

In response to the second research question viz. ‘What factors enhance or hinder this ‘enactment?’, again I believe that this study has ably answered it, firstly, by looking at the barriers to teacher leadership development in the case study school. Barriers to teacher leadership that were identified were the hierarchical structure of a school, where they argued that the top-down style of management has never worked in any organization and they felt that it was not working in their school too. The School Management Team was identified as a barrier due to the micro politics that go on in this school where certain teachers were favoured over others. Furthermore, the lack of capacity for leadership by Level one teachers as well as poor human relations amongst the staff as a whole, was also identified as a barrier to the development of teacher leadership. In addition, a lack of mentoring and inability to change by some educators, especially those who have been to this school for many years, were identified as resisting change, by not being open to new ideas, which makes them a barrier to the development of teacher leadership. All these barriers can be understood to be context bound.

Secondly, this research question was answered by looking at the conditions that can enhance teacher leadership development in the case study school as well as in all schools. Two factors that can enhance the development of teacher leadership were identified. The first factor was the nature and quality of the support offered by the SMT and other teachers. These participants argued that if the SMT can support Level one teachers when taking up leadership initiatives, this can encourage more people to take on leadership roles. The support of the SMT was identified as being important because it legitimizes the leadership of that person. The second factor that can enhance teacher leadership development was the professional development initiatives. As much as

conditions for Level one teachers to take on leadership roles can be created, these three teacher leaders argued that Level one teachers need to be developed on leadership and be given more time and support to demonstrate their leadership skills.

5.3 REFLECTION ON DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP AS A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Distributed leadership as a theoretical framing lens was useful. It gave me the language to describe the leadership of the teachers. It also helped to collect the data knowing my area of focus in terms of what I would be looking for in the leadership practices of my three teacher leaders within a whole school context.

On the other hand, distributed leadership as a theoretical framework was limiting. Going to the study with this kind of framework made me pigeon hole the kind of leadership that I observed. For example, the temptation was so great to describe distributed leadership as the best kind of leadership and other forms of leadership as bad. Distributed leadership came close to being a 'prescription' for me, rather than a description of the kind of leadership practice that would best enhance, develop and sustain teacher leadership. This is because I used it in the South African context, which has a history of autocratic styles of management. For example, delegated forms of leadership, in the South African context, also offer positive opportunities for teacher leadership compared to the styles of management that were dominant during the apartheid system. In contrast, in countries like USA, Canada and UK, other forms of distributed leadership are promoted as opposed to delegated leadership.

In addition, in the South African policy documents, the concept of leadership has not been dominant. The recommendations that were made by the Task Team Report on Education Management and Development (1996), for school managers to move towards democratic and participatory styles of leadership and management has not been implemented by many school managers. This means that in South Africa we are still trying to understand better the *concept* of leadership, let alone distributing it. The other

challenge that I encountered was that there were no studies that revealed the benefits of distributed leadership in South Africa; therefore, I had nothing to compare my findings with. Despite all the challenges that I faced in using distributed leadership as a theoretical framework, I feel that it assisted me to frame my study and to give meaning to the kind of leadership that the study ended up focusing on.

5.4 REFLECTION ON ZONES AND ROLES MODEL FOR TEACHER LEADERSHIP

The use of Grant's (2008) Zones and Roles model for teacher leadership was useful for my study. In order to answer the first question of how is teacher leadership enacted, I needed to know where my three teacher leaders were leading. This is where this model helped me because I used it as a tool of analysis to see whether my three teacher leaders were leading within the classroom, outside the classroom with other teachers, outside the classroom in whole school development or between neighbouring schools in the community. However, as a group we encountered problems where our participants were leading in different areas in a school but we were unable to classify their leadership exactly in term of a zone or role.

In response to this problem, we identified a need to unpack the zones as well as the roles. This is where as a group we came up with indicators per zone and per role (see appendix G). These indicators were helpful because we all participated in their formulation and opportunity was provided for individuals to ask questions for further clarity during this process. For example, as the reader now knows, one of my three teacher leaders was a passionate site steward, but I battled to categorise his enactment of leadership in terms of existing zones and roles. However, once we came up with the indicators and we discussed them, the process of classification was made easier. This zones and roles model of teacher leadership also helped in terms of analyzing the data. At a glance one could see where it was that the teacher leader played a leadership role. It also helped to analyse the data from my three teacher leaders. For example, in the self-reflective journal there were guiding questions where teacher leaders were asked about where they were playing leadership roles. I was able to categorise their responses based on the indicators that we developed. Furthermore, teacher leaders'

responses, and my classification of them, made me see their understanding of the concept teacher leadership very clearly.

Despite the usefulness of this model, I encountered some challenges in using it. In the development of the indicators we were mostly focusing on common leadership roles teachers play in a school. When I used it, I found that for those leadership roles that were not in line with our indicators, either I discarded them or I nervously categorized them. I had to constantly fight the temptation to just pigeon hole certain leadership roles as we had created indicators even though I could see that, in the context of my school, a particular leadership role could be classified differently from our indicators. This means that in as much as we tried to come up with as many indicators as we could to make it easier to describe the leadership of the teachers, we could not come up with all the indicators. I conclude by saying the model was extremely useful in so far as indicating where teachers are leading and what they specifically do there. I recommend that the indicators that we developed could be used as a guide rather than a prescription, and that other users of this model should always consider the unique context of their schools. I suggest that this Master of Education group should get together to develop the model further once all case studies have been consolidated.

5.5 REFLECTION ON THE STUDY AS A GROUP RESEARCH PROJECT

Being part of this group research project worked well for me. Initially, I was skeptical, thinking that I may lose my identity within the group and that my views may be swallowed up in the process of group conformity. However, once the whole process was discussed and mapped out and all concerns attended to, I became excited. One of the challenges that a Master of Education student encounters is to come up with a researchable topic. Brainstorming together as a group and with the teacher in coming up with the research questions was helpful. Furthermore, we managed to save a lot of time as we worked as a group in the compilation of the data collection methods that we used, as explained in Chapter One.

The challenges that I encountered in working as a group was that we had designed our project and set up due dates as if the process would work in that linear way. Things were different when we moved to the execution of our design due to the unique context that each of us found ourselves in. At some point I felt that I was falling behind compared to my group members because I had not completed a set task according to our programme, due to certain contextual constraints I faced. For example, some of us found it difficult to conduct a focus group interview early in the process as we had planned in our research design. Moreover, during the process of data collection and looking at the preliminary findings, I saw it as important to interview the SMT members, but since that was not what we agreed on as a group, I let go. Furthermore, I wanted to use photo voice as I was fascinated by this data collection method, but then again as a group we had not included that in our research design. This meant that there were times where group conformity was very important, but other times it limited individuality and creativity.

Despite all the challenges that I encountered in a group project, I felt that the positive benefits far outweighed the negatives. In this group project, flexibility was allowed as those who experienced problems with the focus group interview could start with individual interviews. I believe that the group project worked well for my fellow-researchers and I because in a short period of time, 11 cases, with qualitative data from 30 teacher leaders and three lecturer leaders, from seven different schools and one Further Education and Training College, was made available. This was a big step in adding rich case study research to the few quantitative and qualitative studies that have been done on teacher/lecturer leadership in South Africa.

Personally, the biggest benefit that I got by working as a group was the emotional support that we got from one another. We phoned each other or sent e-mails just to vent our frustrations, or to try and get help when we were stuck. We had some challenging times but we knew that we each had 11 (including the supervisor) other people to get help from. All 11 of us were novice researchers but we were guided and helped by an experienced researcher. Therefore, I recommend that if people want to do

a group research project, they should go ahead with it, as mentioned earlier the positive benefits far outweigh the negative.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS ON WHAT CAN BE DONE TO ENHANCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN THE CASE STUDY SCHOOL

This section discusses a few recommendations on what can be done to promote the development of teacher leadership in my school.

5.6.1 Shared decision-making

Since decision-making was identified as one of the major problems in the case study school I would recommend that all educators should have an opportunity to contribute to the compilation of meeting agendas so as to influence what will be discussed in them.

To improve communication between the SMT and Level one teachers, I suggest that there should be scheduled regular subject meetings, departmental meetings and staff meetings. These meetings should provide an opportunity for all educators to have a voice on important matters pertaining to school life. However, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) warn that educators should decide if all the regularly scheduled meetings are necessary, because some people get in the habit of attending meetings and they do not usually question what was achieved in that meeting. This means that meetings should have a clearly defined aim to avoid a situation where there is a meeting for the sake of having a meeting. Furthermore, I also agree with Harris and Muijs (2005) who argue that staff meetings should provide the teachers with an opportunity to participate in matters concerning teaching and learning as opposed to staff meetings that are dominated by the management of the school. I also suggest that there should be a rotation system for the chairperson of the meeting to provide teachers with a chance to develop their facilitation skills and to make meetings more efficient and effective.

Leading on from the point just made, all educators should be included in the decision-making process of crucial matters pertaining to school life. This can be done through the

formation of the committees such as an examination committee, time table committee and learning area or subject committee. This will create a sense of ownership and commitment amongst the teachers in implementing the decisions where they were involved in the process of making them. Studies in participative decision-making by Purkey and Smith (1983) reveal that worker involvement in key decisions increases productivity, a sense of ownership and commitment. I also agree with Darling-Hammond, Bullmaster and Cobb (1995, p.100) who contend that “shared decision-making supports an orientation toward school wide problem solving and change”.

5.6.2 The principal as a unifying factor

Changes that are taking place in South African education, especially the introduction of a new curriculum, pose many challenges for school leaders and managers. Their leadership or management styles are challenged as they navigate through the process of implementing this complex curriculum. Some of them are finding it hard to shift from being a sole authority to sharing authority with other teachers in the school, including the SMT. On the issue of decision-making which was discussed earlier, I recommend that the principal should involve all SMT members in decision-making and I agree with Craig (1990) who states that principals should practice delegation consistently. This is because principals who cannot delegate cannot get the best input from their staff. Skilled principals however, have saved themselves much time, and created a tremendous sense of ownership by practicing delegation (Smylie, 1995). I am of the view that the principal does not have the monopoly of wisdom or vision about the school, because the involvement of other staff members increases the level of expertise in the school’s ability to solve problems.

Furthermore, I suggest that SMT members should also delegate and devolve powers to Level one teachers. This will prevent a situation where Level one teachers look at the SMT members as people who take decisions on their own, while on the other hand SMT members feel the same way about the principal. I also suggest that the principal should be empowered in decision-making skills through professional development in order to

cope with the new and demanding management activities as well as the implementation of the new curriculum.

5.6.3 Management of the change process

One of the barriers to teacher leadership development that emerged from the data was the problem of teachers who have been teaching in this school for many years. They find it hard to cope with change because it tampers with their status as well as their 'experience'. Some SMT members hold on to power because they feel that, as they are formally appointed by the Department of Education, they need to be in 'control' of their departments. Therefore, letting go of powers and sharing ideas with Level one teachers is hard to do. The principal, as the head of the school, holds on to power and manages the school through control. Young and inexperienced teachers who have good ideas about what can be done to solve some of the challenges that the school is faced with, are discouraged by the resistance that comes from the above mentioned groups.

I therefore, recommend that there should be a formal training for the SMT and especially the principal, on the management of the change process. This will go a long way to identifying the causes of resistance to change, but most importantly, on coming up with strategies to manage the change process in a unique context. This is because it is not sufficient to simply publish policy and promulgate new legislation. Principals should be equipped with theoretical knowledge to understand the reasons why there should be change, and practical skills to facilitate the change process.

5.6.4 SMT must support Level one teachers who take on leadership roles

SMT members have an important role to play in supporting Level one teachers who takes on leadership roles. Since some of these Level one teachers lack the experience and capacity to lead, SMT members need to mentor them. They need to guide and support them and to assist them in any way that they can for their leadership to be successful. Conditions for Level one teachers to take on leadership roles must be created by the SMT through an invitational style of leadership (Hart, 1995). This can

happen if there is open communication between the SMT and Level one teachers. I agree with Grant and Jugmohan (2008) who state that it is the responsibility of the leaders to create dialogic spaces in school; spaces for people to talk openly and honestly. In line with this, I suggest that, in the context of South Africa, all principals should register for an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) which focuses on School Leadership. I also recommend that principals be taught strategies to mentor teachers who take on a leadership role. Furthermore, principals need to provide teachers with both the reason and opportunity to lead to avoid a situation where teachers may think that the principal is dumping his unwanted work onto them, while on the other hand, he may simply be distributing leadership to Level one teachers. All these strategies are relevant for the case study school so that distributed leadership i.e. informal, shared forms of leadership, are allowed to emerge.

5.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research attempted to find nuanced answers on how teacher leadership is enacted, and investigated the factors that enhanced or hindered teacher leadership enactment in a township high school. This research focused on the Level one teachers as teacher leaders. With the very same question, a study could be conducted which explores the enactment of teacher leadership using the SMT as the participants instead of Level one teachers.

In the discussion of the findings I identified gaps in this research which is where the following possible research questions came from:

1. To what extent does teacher leadership contribute towards improving learners' performance?
2. What kind of incentives can be given to teachers to motivate them to take on leadership roles in their schools? Some teachers felt demotivated and disillusioned by the conditions that they work in. They complained of being overworked and underpaid and they did not see themselves taking on leadership roles where they will not, in some way, benefit. Therefore, this kind of research

would provide us with those incentives that can be ‘pull– factors’ for Level one teachers to take on leadership roles.

3. What challenges do principals face in promoting teacher leadership in schools? Principals have their own challenges in performing their duties as they are expected to implement the policies that comes form the Department of Education, in their schools. If something goes wrong at their schools, they are solely held accountable. Attempting to answer this research question would illuminate the challenges that principals face, and would also evaluate the working together of the principal with other members of the SMT in terms of power sharing. In addition, the impact of this relationship in enhancing or hindering teacher leadership development could be determined.

5.7 CONCLUSION

As a final statement, I would like to assert that this study has shown that Level one teachers are capable of taking on leadership roles provided conducive conditions are created by the principal and SMT and that this management structure supports their efforts. For teacher leadership to emerge, a collaborative culture must be created so that Level one teachers can be part of the decision–making process on crucial matters pertaining to school life. The person who should be a leader is the one who possesses expertise on that particular matter, not one that derives it only from formal positions of status and power.

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APPENDIX A
Letter of consent to the principal



University of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville
3209

The Principal

Dear Sir

I am currently a first year Masters in Education student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg. I am presently engaged in a group research study on teachers' perceptions and experiences regarding teacher leadership. Teacher leadership is an emerging field of research in South Africa and it needs to be built upon and I believe that it has a powerful role to play in improving the teaching and learning in our South African schools. In this regard I have identified your school as a successful school which exhibits strong leadership at various levels within the institution. I would very much like to conduct research into teacher leadership in your school, and work particularly with three teacher leaders who are willing to work closely with me to extend the boundaries of our knowledge on this concept.

Please note that this is not an evaluation of performance or competence of your teachers and by no means is it a commission of inquiry! The identities of all who participate in this study will be protected in accordance with the code of ethics as stipulated by the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

I undertake to uphold the autonomy of all participants and they will be free to withdraw from the research at any time without negative or undesirable consequences to themselves. In this regard, participants will be asked to complete a consent form. Furthermore, in the interests of the participants, feedback will be given to them during and at the end of the project.

My supervisor, Ms C. Grant can be contacted on 033-2606185 at the Faculty of Education, Room 42A, Pietermaritzburg School (School of Education and Development). My contact number is 033 3221918.

You may contact my supervisor or myself should you have any queries or questions you would like answered.

Yours faithfully

Goodness Nene



Faculty of Education

Declaration

I (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of this research project. I am willing for my school to be a research school in this project.

Signature of Principal

Date

.....

.....

APPENDIX B
TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION 2008 - 2009

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

- Use a BLACK or BLUE ink pen. Please do not use a pencil.

- In the interests of confidentiality, you are not required to supply your name on the questionnaire.

- Please respond to each of the following items by placing a CROSS, which correctly reflects your opinion and experiences on the role of teacher leadership in your school.

- This questionnaire is to be answered by an educator.⁴

⁴ The word 'educator' refers to a post level 1 educator

A. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Gender

Male	Female
------	--------

2. Age

21-30	31-40	41-50	51+
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3. Your formal qualification is:

Below M+3	M+3	M+4	M+5 and above
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4. Nature of employment

Permanent	Temporary	Contract
-----------	-----------	----------

5. Employer

State	SGB
-------	-----

6. Years of teaching experience

0-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16+yrs
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B. TEACHER LEADERSHIP SURVEY

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that most closely describes your opinion on the role of teacher leadership in your school.

Scale: 4= Strongly Agree 3=Agree 2= Disagree 1= Strongly disagree

B. 1

I believe:	4	3	2	1
7. Only the SMT should make decisions in the school.				
8. All educators ⁵ can take a leadership role in the school.				
9. That only people in positions of authority should lead.				
10. That men are better able to lead than women				

B. 2

Which of the following tasks are you involved with?	4	3	2	1
11. I take initiative without being delegated duties.				
12. I reflect critically on my own classroom teaching.				
13. I organise and lead reviews of the school year plan.				
14. I participate in in-school decision making.				
15. I give in-service training to colleagues.				
16. I provide curriculum development knowledge to my colleagues.				
17. I provide curriculum development knowledge to teachers in other schools				

18. I participate in the performance evaluation of teachers.					
19. I choose textbook and instructional materials for my grade/learning area.					
20. I co-ordinate aspects of the extra-mural activities in my school.					
21. I co-ordinate aspects of the extra-mural activities beyond my school.					
22. I set standards for pupil behaviour in my school.					
23. I design staff development programmes for my school.					
24. I co-ordinate cluster meetings for my learning area.					
25. I keep up to date with developments in teaching practices and learning area.					
26. I set the duty roster for my colleagues.					

Instruction: Please respond with a CROSS either Yes/ No/ Not applicable, to your involvement in each committee.

If YES, respond with a CROSS by selecting ONE option between: Nominated by colleagues, Delegated by SMT or Volunteered.

B.3

				How I got onto this committee:		
I play a leadership role in the following committee/s:	Yes	No	Not applicable	Nominated by colleagues	Delegated by SMT	Volunteered
27. Catering committee						
28. Sports committee						
29. Bereavement /condolence committee.						
30. Cultural committee.						
31. Library committee.						
32 Subject/ learning area committee.						
33 Awards committee						
34 Time- table committee.						
35. SGB (School Governing Body)						
36. SDT (School Development Team)						
37. Fundraising committee.						
38. Maintenance committee.						
39. Safety and security committee.						
40. Discipline committee						
41. Teacher Union						
42. Assessment committee						
43. Admission committee						
44. Other (Please specify)						

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that most closely describes your opinion on what factors support or hinder teacher leadership.

Scale: 4= Strongly Agree 3= Agree 2= Disagree 1= Strongly Disagree

B.4

My school is a place where:	4	3	2	1
45 The SMT has trust in my ability to lead.				
46. Teachers resist leadership from other teachers.				
47. Teachers are allowed to try out new ideas.				
48 The SMT (School Management Team) values teachers' opinions.				
49. The SMT allows teachers to participate in school level decision-making.				
50. Only the SMT takes important decisions.				
51. Only the SMT takes initiative in the school.				
52. Adequate opportunities are created for the staff to develop professionally.				
53. Team work is encouraged.				
54. Men are given more leadership roles than women.				

D. Teacher Leadership: Open-ended questions

1. What is your understanding of teacher leadership? Please explain.

2. Have you ever been involved in leading in any school related activity, which is outside your classroom? If so, please give examples of your teacher leadership.

3. In your opinion what hinders the development of teacher leadership in the context of your school? Please discuss.

4. In your opinion what are the benefits to teacher leadership in the context of your school? Please discuss.

Thank you for your time and effort!

APPENDIX C
TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION 2008 - 2009

SMT QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

- Use a BLACK or BLUE ink pen. Please do not use a pencil.
- In the interests of confidentiality, you are not required to supply your name on the questionnaire.
- Please respond to each of the following items by placing a CROSS, which correctly reflects your opinion and experiences on the role of teacher leadership in your school.
- This questionnaire is to be answered by a member of the School Management Team (SMT).

A. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Gender

Male	Female
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2. Age

21-30	31-40	41-50	51+
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3. Your formal qualification is:

Below M+3	M+3	M+4	M+5 and above
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4. Nature of employment

Permanent	Temporary	Acting
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5. Years of teaching experience

0-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16+yrs
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6. Period of service in current position

0-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16+yrs	
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B. SCHOOL INFORMATION

7. Learner Enrolment of your school

1-299	300-599	600+	
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8. Number of educators, including management, in your school

2-10	11-19	20-28	29-37	38+
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9. School type

Primary	Secondary	Combined	
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10. School Fees

No Fees	R1-R500	R501-R1000	R1001-R5000	R5001+
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C. TEACHER LEADERSHIP SURVEY

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that most closely describes your opinion on the role of teacher leadership in your school.

Scale 4= Strongly agree 3= Agree 2= Disagree 1= Strongly Disagree

C. 1

I believe:	4	3	2	1
11. Only the SMT should make decisions in the school.				
12. All teachers should take a leadership role in the school.				
13. That only people in formal positions of authority should lead.				
14. That men are better able to lead than women				
15. Educators ⁶ should be supported when taking on leadership roles				

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that most closely describes your opinion on the role of teacher leadership in your school.

Scale 4= Strongly agree 3= Agree 2= Disagree 1= Strongly disagree

C.2

Which of the following tasks are you involved with?	4	3	2	1
16. I work with other educators in organising and leading reviews of the				

school year plan					
17. I encourage educators to participate in in-school decision making					
18. I support educators in providing curriculum development knowledge to other educators					
19. I support educators in providing curriculum development knowledge to educators in other schools					
20. I provide educators with opportunity to choose textbooks and learning materials for their grade or learning area					
21. I work with other educators in designing staff development programme for the school					
22. I include other educators in designing the duty roster					

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that most closely describes your opinion on what factors support or hinder teacher leadership.

Scale: 4= strongly agree 3= Agree 2= Disagree 1= strongly disagree

C.3

My school is a place where:	5	4	3	2	1
23. The SMT has trust in educator’s ability to lead.					
24. Educators are allowed to try out new ideas.					
25. The SMT (School Management Team) values teachers’ opinions.					
26. The SMT allows teachers to participate in school level decision-making.					
27. Only the SMT takes important decisions.					
28. Only the SMT takes initiative in the school.					
29. Adequate opportunities are created for the staff to develop professionally.					
30. Team work is encouraged.					
31. Men are given more leadership roles than women.					

D. Teacher Leadership: Open-ended questions

1. What is your understanding of teacher leadership? Please explain.

2. Have you ever encouraged educators in leading in any school related activity, which is outside their classrooms? If so, please give example

4. In your opinion what hinders the development of teacher leadership in the context of your school? Please discuss.

5. In your opinion what promotes the development of teacher leadership in the context of your school? Please discuss.

Thank you for your time and effort!

APPENDIX D
TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION: 2008 – 2009

TEACHER LEADER FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

1. Talk to me about leadership. What does the word ‘leadership’ mean to you?
2. Talk to me about teacher leadership? What does the term mean to you?
3. Do you think of yourself as a teacher leader? How does that make you feel? Why do you feel this way?
4. In an ideal school: 4.1 What would the teacher leader be able to achieve?

What skills and knowledge the teacher leader should possess?

What type of relationship should the teacher leader have with other?

What support would a teacher provide to the SMT?

5. Describe the process of decision-making in your school?
6. Do you believe that the culture that exist in your school enhance or hinder teacher leadership development in your school?

Thank you!

APPENDIX E
TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION: 2008 – 2009

TEACHER LEADER JOURNAL ENTRIES

Journal Entry 1 (Week 3 October 2008)

Please would you fill in this information in your journal and bring to the focus group interview next week. This information will provide me with background information about the social context of your school and it will help me to get to know you a little better. Please be as honest as you can! I will ensure your anonymity at all times.

About your school:

1. What kind of school is it? (level/ resources/diversity/ size etc)
2. Describe the socio-economic backgrounds of the learners in the school and the surrounding community?
3. How would you describe the culture of your school; in other words, ‘the way things are done around here’?

About you:

1. Name
2. Age
3. Gender
4. Years of experience as a teacher
5. Qualification
6. Which subjects do you teach and which grades?
7. Do you enjoy teaching? Yes/No/Mostly/Occasionally. Why do you say so?
8. Describe your family to me.

Think about yourself as a teacher leader:

1. What do you understand the term ‘teacher leader’ to mean?
2. Describe at least two examples of situations where you work as a teacher leader in your school.

Journal Entry 2 (1st half of November 2008)

Think about a memory (strongly positive or strongly negative) you have when, as a teacher, you led a new initiative in your classroom or school.

1. Tell the story by describing the situation and explaining the new initiative.
2. How did leading this initiative initially make you feel?

3. What was the response to your leadership (either good or bad)?
4. How did this response make you feel?

Journal Entry 3 (2nd half of November 2008)

Think about the fourth term of school. It is often described as a term of learner assessment and examination.

1. Describe the different situations where you have worked as a teacher leader. What were the leadership roles you filled? What did you do?
2. How did your leadership impact on others? What was the response from your SMT? What was the response from the teachers?
3. How did being a teacher leader in these situations make you feel?

Journal Entry 4 (1st half of February 2009)

1. Think about yourself as a teacher leader and the personal attributes you have that make you a teacher leader.

- i. List these personal attributes.
- ii. Why do you think these particular attributes are important in developing teacher leaders?
- iii. Are there any other attributes you think are important and which you would like to develop to make you an even better teacher leader?

2. Think about yourself as a teacher leader and the knowledge and skills you have that make you a teacher leader.

- i. List the skills and knowledge you have.
- ii. Why do you think this knowledge and these skills are important in developing teacher leaders?
- iii. Are there any other skills/knowledge you think are important and which you would like to develop to make you an even better teacher leader?

Journal Entry 5 (2nd half of February 2009)

Think about the first term of school. It is often described as a term of planning, especially around curriculum issues.

1. Describe the different situations where you have worked as a teacher leader during this term. What were the leadership roles you filled? What did you do?
2. How did your leadership impact on others? What was the response from your SMT? What was the response from the teachers?
3. How did being a teacher leader in these situations make you feel?

Journal Entry 6 (1st half of March 2009)

Think now about your experience as a teacher leader and ponder on the barriers you have come up against.

1. Describe some of these barriers.
2. What are the reasons for these barriers, do you think?
3. How do you think these barriers can be overcome?
4. How do you think teacher leadership can be promoted?

Journal Entry 7 (2nd half of March 2009)

1. Can you tell a story / describe a situation in each of the following contexts when you worked as a teacher leader:

- i) in your classroom
- ii) working with other teachers in curricular/extra-curricular activities
- iii) in school-wide issues
- iv) networking across schools or working in the school community

2. You have come to the end of your journaling process. Please feel free now to:

- i) ask me any questions
- ii) raise further points
- iii) reflect on the writing process
- iv) reflect on the research process as a whole

APPENDIX F
TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION 2008 - 2009
SCHOOL OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

1. Background information on the school

- Name of the school
- Number of learners
- Number of teachers
- Number on SMT
- School Quintile
- Subjects offered
- What is the medium of instruction
- Pass rate 2005_____ 2006_____ 2007_____ 2008_____
- Classrooms: Block___ Bricks___ Prefab___ Mud___ Other _____
- Does the school have the following:

○ List	○ Yes (describe)	○ No
○ Library	○	○
○ Laboratory	○	○
○ Sports facilities/sports kit	○	○
○ Soccer field	○	○
○ netball field	○	○
○ tennis court	○	○
○ cricket field	○	○

- School fence
- School fees per annum
- Does your school fund raise
- List your fundraising activities
- School attendance : Poor___ Regular___ Satisfactory___ Good___ Fair___ Excellent___
- What is the average drop-out rate per year:
- Possible reasons for the drop out:
- Does the school have an admission policy:
- Is the vision and mission of the school displayed
- What is the furthest distance that learners travel to and from school
- Have there been any evident changes in your community after 1994.

2. Staffing

- Staff room- notices (budget), seating arrangements
- Classroom sizes
- Pupil-teacher ratio
- Offices- who occupies etc
- Staff turnover- numbers on a given day
- School timetable visibility
- Assemblies- teachers' roles
- Unionism-break-time, meetings
- Gender-roles played, numbers in staff

- Age differences between staff members
- Years of service of principal at the school
- Professional ethos- punctuality, discipline, attendance, general behaviour.

3. Curriculum: What teaching and learning is taking place at the school?

- Are the learners supervised?
- Is active teaching and learning taking place?
- Are the learners loitering? Reasons?
- What is the general practice of teaching – teacher or learner centered?
- What subjects are taught?
- Is there a timetable?
- Do learners or teachers rotate for lessons?
- Has the school responded to national/provincial changes?
- Is the classroom conducive to teaching and learning?
- Is there evidence of cultural and sporting activities?
- How are these organized and controlled?
- Is there evidence of assessment and feedback based on assessment?
- Evidence of teacher collaboration in the same learning area?
- Is homework given and how often is it marked?
- Are learners encouraged to engage in peer teaching or self-study after school hours?

4. Leadership and decision-making, organisational life of the school.

Organisational Structure

- Is there a welcoming atmosphere on arrival?
- Is the staff on first name basis?
- How does leadership relate to staff and learners?
- What structures are in place for staff participation?
- What admin systems are visible?
- What type of leadership and management style is evident?
- Is the leadership rigid or flexible?
- Are teachers involved in decision-making?
- Is there a feeling of discipline at the school?
- How would you describe the ethos of the school?
- Are teachers active in co and extra curricular activities?
- Is there an active and supportive governing body?
- Is the educator rep on the SGB active in the decision making process?
- Are teachers active on school committees?
- Do teachers take up leadership positions on committees?
- Working relationship between the SGB and staff?
- Is the governing body successful?
- Is there evidence of student leadership?
- Relationship between the SGB and the community?
- How does the governing body handle school problems?

5. Relationships with Education department and other outside authorities

- Are there any documents signed by the Department officials during their school visits?
e.g. log book
- Is there a year planner, list of donors, contact numbers e.g. helpline, department offices etc.?
- Is there any evidence pertaining to the operation of the school eg. Minute books and attendance registers?

APPENDIX G

TEACHER LEADER OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Zones	Roles	Indicators
1.	1. Continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching in the classroom	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. centrality of expert practice (including appropriate teaching and assessment strategies and expert knowledge) 2. keep abreast of new developments (attendance at workshops & further study) for own professional development 3. design of learning activities and improvisation/appropriate use of resources 4. processes of record keeping and reflective practice 5. engagement in classroom action research 6. maintain effective classroom discipline and meaningful relationship with learners (evidence of pastoral care role) 7. take initiative and engage in autonomous decision-making to make change happen in classroom to benefit of learners
2.	2. Providing curriculum development knowledge (in own School)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. joint curriculum development (core and extra/co curricular) 2. team teaching 3. take initiative in subject committee meetings 4. work to contextualise curriculum for own particular School 5. attend DOE curriculum workshops and take new learning, with critique, back to School staff 6. extra/co curricular coordination (e.g. sports, cultural activities etc)
2.	3. Leading in-service education and assisting other teachers (in own School)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. forge close relationships and build rapport with individual teachers through which mutual learning takes place 2. staff development initiatives 3. peer coaching 4. mentoring role of teacher leaders (including induction) 5. building skills and confidence in others 6. work with integrity, trust and transparency
2.	4. Participating in performance evaluation of teachers (in own School)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. engage in IQMS activities such as peer assessment (involvement in development support groups) 2. informal peer assessment activities 3. moderation of assessment tasks 4. reflections on core and co/extra curricular activities
3.	5. Organising and leading peer reviews of School practice (in own School)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. organisational diagnosis (Audit – SWOT) and dealing with the change process (School Development Planning) 2. whole School evaluation processes 3. School based action research 4. mediating role (informal mediation as well as union representation) 5. School practices including fundraising, policy development, staff development, professional development initiatives etc)
3.	6. Participating in School level decision-making (in own School)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. awareness of and non-partisan to micropolitics of School (work with integrity, trust and transparency) 2. participative leadership where all teachers feel part of the change or development and have a sense of ownership 3. problem identification and resolution 4. conflict resolution and communication skills 5. School -based planning and decision-making
4.	2. Providing curriculum development knowledge(across School s into community)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. joint curriculum development (core and extra/co curricular) 2. liaise with and empower parents about curriculum issues (parent meetings, visits, communication – written or verbal) 3. liaise with and empower the school governing body about curriculum issues (SGB meetings, workshops, training –influencing of agendas) 4. networking at circuit/district/regional/provincial level through committee or cluster meeting involvement
4.	3. Leading in-service education and assisting other teachers (across School s into community)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. forge close relationships and build rapport with individual teachers through which mutual learning takes place 2. staff development initiatives 3. peer coaching 4. mentoring role of teacher leaders (including induction) 5. building skills and confidence in others 6. work with integrity, trust and transparency

TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION 2008 - 2009

**TEACHER LEADERSHIP OBSERVATION SCHEDULE
(BORROWED FROM HARRIS & LAMBERT, 2003)**

A. Adult Development			
1. Defines self in relation to others in the community. The opinions of others, particularly those in authority, are highly important.	Defines self as independent from the group, separating needs and goals from others. Does not often see the need for group action.	Understands self as interdependent with others in the school community, seeking feedback from others and counsel from self.	Engages colleagues in acting out of a sense of self and shared values, forming interdependent learning communities.
2. Does not yet recognise the need for self-reflection. Tends to implement strategies as learnt without making adjustments arising from reflective practice.	Personal reflection leads to refinement of strategies and routines. Does not often share reflections with others. Focuses on argument for own ideas. Does not support systems which are designed to enhance reflective practice.	Engages in self-reflection as a means of improving practices. Models these processes for others in the school community. Holds conversations that share views and develops understanding of each other's assumptions.	Evokes reflection in others. Develops and supports a culture for self-reflection that may include collaborative planning, peer coaching, action research and reflective writing.
3. Absence of ongoing evaluation of their teaching. Does not yet systematically connect teacher and student behaviours.	Self-evaluation is not often shared with others; however, responsibility for problems or errors is typically ascribed to others such as students or family.	Highly self-evaluative and introspective. Accepts shared responsibility as a natural part of a school community. No need for blame.	Enables others to be self-evaluative and introspective, leading towards self- and shared responsibility.
4. In need of effective strategies to demonstrate respect and concern for others. Is polite yet primarily focuses on own needs.	Exhibits respectful attitude towards others in most situations, usually privately. Can be disrespectful in public debate. Gives little feedback to others.	Consistently shows respect and concern for all members of the school community. Validates and respects qualities in and opinions of others.	Encourages & supports others in being respectful, caring, trusted members of the school community. Initiates recognition of ideas and achievements of colleagues as part of an overall goal of collegial empowerment.
B. Dialogue			
1. Interactions with others are primarily social, not based on common goals or group learning.	Communicates with others around logistical issues/problems. Sees goals as individually set for each classroom, not actively participating in efforts to focus on common goals.	Communicates well with individuals and groups in the community as a means of creating & sustaining relationships and focusing on teaching and learning. Actively participates in dialogue.	Facilitates effective dialogue among members of the school community in order to build relationships and focus dialogue on teaching and learning.
2. Does not pose questions of or seek to influence the group.	Makes personal point of view, although not assumptions, explicit.	Asks questions and provides insights that reflect an understanding	Facilitates communication among colleagues by asking

Participation often resembles consent or compliance.	When opposed to ideas, often asks impeding questions which can derail or divert dialogue.	of the need to surface assumptions and address the goals of the community.	provocative questions which open productive dialogue.
3. Does not actively seek information or new professional knowledge which challenges current practices. Shares knowledge with others only when requested.	Attends staff development activities planned by the school or district. Occasionally shares knowledge during informal & formal gatherings. Does not seek knowledge that challenges status quo.	Possesses current knowledge and information about teaching and learning. Actively seeks to use that understanding to alter teaching practices. Studies own practice.	Works with others to construct knowledge through multiple forms of enquiry, action research, examination of disaggregated school data, insights from others & from outside research community.
4. Responds to situations in similar ways; expects predictable responses from others. Is sometimes confused by variations from expected norms.	Responds to situations in different, although predictable ways. Expects consistency from those in authority and from self.	Responds to situations with an open mind and flexibility; welcomes multiple perspectives from others. Alters own assumptions during dialogue when evidence is persuasive.	Promotes an open mind and flexibility in others; invites multiple perspectives and interpretations as a means of challenging old assumptions and framing new actions.
C. Collaboration			
1. Decision making is based on individual wants and needs rather than those of the group as a whole.	Promotes individual autonomy in classroom decision making. Relegates school decision-making to the principal.	Actively participates in shared decision-making. Volunteers to follow through on group decisions.	Promotes collaborative decision-making that provides options to meet the diverse individual and group needs of the school community.
2. Sees little value in team building, although seeks membership in the group. Will participate, although does not connect activities with larger school goals.	Doesn't seek to participate in roles or settings that involve team building. Considers most team building activities to be 'touchy-feely' and frivolous.	Is an active participant in team building, seeking roles and opportunities to contribute to the work of the team. Sees teamness' as central to community.	Engages colleagues in team-building activities that develop mutual trust and promotes collaborative decision-making.
3. Sees problems as caused by the actions of others, e.g. students, parents; or blames self. Uncertain regarding the specifics of one's own involvement.	Interprets problems from own perspective. Plays the role of observer and critic, not accepting responsibility for emerging issues and dilemmas. Considers most problems to be a function of poor management.	Acknowledges that problems involve all members of the community. Actively seeks to define problems and proposes resolutions or approaches which address the situation. Finding blame is not relevant.	Engages colleagues in identifying and acknowledging problems. Acts with others to frame problems and seek resolutions. Anticipates situations which may cause recurrent problems.
4. Does not recognise or avoids conflict in the school community. Misdirects frustrations into withdrawal or personal hurt. Avoids talking about issues that could evoke conflict.	Does not shy away from conflict. Engages in conflict as a means of surfacing competing ideas, approaches. Understands that conflict is intimidating to many.	Anticipates and seeks to resolve or intervene in conflict. Actively tries to channel conflict into problem-solving endeavours. Is not intimidated by conflict, though wouldn't seek it.	Surfaces, addresses and mediates conflict within the school and with parents and community. Understands that negotiating conflict is necessary for personal and school change.
D. Organisational change			

1. Focuses on present situations and issues; seldom plans for either short or long term futures. Expects certainty.	Demonstrates forward thinking for own classroom. Usually does not connect own planning to the future of the school.	Develops forward thinking skills in working with others and planning for school improvements. Future goals based on common values and vision.	Provides for and creates opportunities to engage others in forward (visionary) thinking and planning based on common core values.
2. Maintains a low profile during school change, basically uninvolved in group processes. Attempts to comply with changes. Expects compliance from others.	Questions status quo; suggests that others need to change in order to improve it. Selects those changes which reflect personal philosophies. Opposes or ignores practices which require a school-wide focus.	Shows enthusiasm and involvement in school change. Leads by example. Explores possibilities and implements changes for both personal and professional development.	Initiates action towards innovative change; motivates, draws others into action for school & district improvements. Encourages others to implement practices which support school-wide learning. Provides follow-up planning and coaching support.
3. Culturally unaware. 'I treat everyone the same'. Stage of naivety to socio-political implications of race, culture, ethnic and gender issues.	Growing sensitivity to political implications of diversity. Acknowledges that cultural differences exist and influence individuals and organisations.	Understanding and acceptance: 'aha' level. Has developed an appreciation of own cultural identities and a deeper appreciation / respect for cultural differences. Applies understanding in classroom and school.	Commitment to value of and build on cultural differences. Actively seeks to involve others in designing programmes and policies which support the development of a multi-cultural world.
4. Attends to students in his or her own classroom. Possessive of children and space. Has not yet secured a developmental view of children.	Concerned for the preparation of children in previous grades. Critical of preparation of children and readiness of children to meet established standards.	Developmental view of children translates into concern for all children in the school (not only those in own classroom) and their future performances in further educational settings.	Works with colleagues to develop programmes, policies that take holistic view of children's development (e.g. multi-graded classes, parent education, follow-up studies).
5. Works alongside new teachers, is cordial although does not offer assistance. Lacks confidence in giving feedback to others.	Shares limited information with new teachers, mainly that pertaining to school admin functions (e.g. attendance accounting, grade reports). Does not offer to serve as master teacher.	Collaborates with, supports and gives feedback to new and student teachers. Often serves as master teacher.	Takes responsibility for support & development of systems for student & new teachers. Develops collaborative programmes with school, district and universities.
6. Displays little interest in the selection of new teachers. Assumes that they will be appointed by the district or those otherwise in authority.	Assumes that district will recruit and appoint teachers. Has not proposed a more active role to the teacher association.	Becomes actively involved in the setting of criteria and the selection of new teachers.	Advocates to schools, districts and teachers' association the development of hiring practices that involve teachers, parents and students in processes. Promotes the hiring of diversity candidates.

APPENDIX H
TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ACTION: 2008 – 2009

TEACHER LEADER INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

Questions directed to all three teacher leaders

1. What is your current understanding of the concept teacher leadership?
2. Describe how decision-making takes place in your school.
3. Do you receive any support from the SMT when you take on an initiative and playing a leadership role?
4. How do you handle the negative comments from your colleagues?
5. What factors in your opinion, pose barriers to the development of teacher leadership in your school?
6. How do you think that teacher leadership can be promoted in your school and in general?
7. Do you think your school can / cannot benefit overall in leadership is distributed among all educators, even Level one educators? How?

Teacher Leader 1 (TL1)

1. Looking at the situation where you have worked as a teacher leader, why do you think three out of 20 people responded positively to your initiative of starting “ibhodwe”⁷
2. From the focus group interview, you said the SMT alone should not lead the school, can you elaborate on that?
3. You said we need collective leadership as a school? What do you mean by collective leadership?
4. During the registration period I observed you working as a teacher leader helping learners to choose their subjects packages? How did that make you feel?

⁷ ‘ibhodwe’ is a male teachers get to get which happens outside school. They often do this just to get to know each other better and to support each other either on work issues or personal issues.

Teacher Leader 2 (TL2)

1. Working as a cultural activities convener, what made you to keep[p on working extra hours knowing you will not be paid for that?
2. Do you feel that the SMT and the teachers trust you as a site steward?
3. From the journal you made the following statement: “Change is inevitable, so as a young teacher leader I have to be bold and take a stand”
4. From the journal you also said: “Working with older staff members is challenging” Why? And do you think that age is an issue?
5. From the focus group interview, you said the SMT alone should not lead the school, can you elaborate on that?
6. You took an initiative of queering the pass mark for English:
 - 6.1 How did you feel about your leadership there?
 - 6.2 Were you given a chance to put your point across by the SMT or the principal?
 - 6.3 How did you feel after that?

Teacher Leader 3 (TL3)

1. Can you please elaborate on the following statements that you made in the journal describing the culture of your school
 - 1.1 “Favouratism is there” – “communication is not a two-way process”
 - 1.2 It is “more authoritative and top-down” Can you please give me some examples of this?
 - 1.3 “The environment does not provide an opportunity for one to take an initiative on leadership – nothing motivates you to take an initiative”
 - 1.4 “I find it hard to work with colleagues and here it is everyman for himself”
2. How do you feel when the SMT ignore your effort”
3. From the journal you said “I follow orders” – What do you do when you do not agree with orders that are given to you?
4. You have been delegated by your H.O.D to act on his behalf in his absence: How do your colleagues respond to that? Why do you think your H.O.D chose you? How do you feel about that?

**APPENDIX I
STAFF CONSENT LETTER**



Faculty of Education

University of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville
3209

The Educator

Dear

I am currently a first year Masters in Education student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg. I am presently engaged in a group research study on teachers' perceptions and experiences regarding teacher leadership. Teacher leadership is an emerging field of research in South Africa and it needs to be built upon. In this regard I have chosen you as a suitable candidate as I believe that you have the potential and can provide valuable insight in extending the boundaries of our knowledge of this concept.

Please note that this is not an evaluation of performance or competence of your teachers and by no means is it a commission of inquiry! The identities of all who participate in this study will be protected in accordance with the code of ethics as stipulated by the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

I acknowledge your autonomy as an educator. You will be free to withdraw from the research at any time without negative or undesirable consequences to yourself. However, you will be asked to complete a consent form. In your interests feedback will be given to you during and at the end of the study.

My supervisor, Ms C. Grant can be contacted on 033-2606185 at the Faculty of Education, Room 42A, Pietermaritzburg School (School of Education and Development). My contact number is 033 3221918.

You may contact my supervisor or myself should you have any queries or questions you would like answered.

Yours faithfully

Goodness Nene

.....DETACH AND RETURN.....

Declaration

I (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of this research project. I am willing to participate in this research project.

I understand that I reserve the right to withdraw from this project at any time.

Signature of participant

Date

.....

.....

**APPENDIX J
TEACHER LEADER CONSENT
LETTER**



**UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL**

Faculty of Education

University of KwaZulu-Natal
Private Bag X01
Scottsville
3209

Letter of Invitation

Dear

I am sending this invitation to you as a teacher who might be interested in participating in a research about teacher leadership in schools. My name is Goodness Nene and I am currently a first year student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg. I am presently engaged in a group research study on teachers' perceptions and experiences regarding teacher leadership. In this regard I have chosen you because I believe that you have the potential as a teacher leader and can provide valuable insight in extending the boundaries of our knowledge on this concept.

The research project is framed by the following broad research questions:

1. How is teacher leadership enacted in a township high school in Pietermaritzburg?
2. What factors enhance or hinder this 'enactment'?

I am seeking three teachers from your school who:

- Are interested in making a contribution to this research.
- See themselves as teacher leaders.
- Are interested in developing teacher leadership opportunities in schools.

Please note that this is not an evaluation of performance or competence of you as a teacher. Your identity will be protected in accordance with the code of ethics as stipulated by the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I undertake to uphold your autonomy and you will be free to withdraw from the research at any time without negative or undesirable consequences to themselves. In this regard, you will be asked to complete a consent form. Furthermore, feedback will be given to you during and at the end of the project.

My supervisor, Ms C Grant can be contacted on 033-2606185 at the Faculty of Education, Room 42A, Pietermaritzburg School (School of Education and Development) My contact details are 033 3221918. Please feel free to contact her or me at any time should you have any queries or questions you would like answered.

Yours sincerely

Goodness Nene



Faculty of Education

Declaration

I (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of this research project. I am willing to participate in this research project.

I understand that I reserve the right to withdraw from this project at any time.

Signature of Teacher Leader

Date

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APPENDIX K



RESEARCH OFFICE (GOVAN MBEKI CENTRE)
WESTVILLE CAMPUS
TELEPHONE NO.: 031 – 2603587
EMAIL : ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

28 NOVEMBER 2008

MS. C GRANT (24502)
EDUCATION & DEVELOPMENT

Dear Ms. Grant

ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL NUMBER: HSS/0755/08

I wish to confirm that ethical clearance has been approved for the following project:

"Teacher leadership in action: Collective case studies"

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years

Yours faithfully


MS. PHUMELELE XIMBA