

**LEADER INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS AND SCHOOL
LEADERSHIP:
AN ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDY OF THREE PRIMARY
SCHOOL HEADS IN THE ZVISHAVANE
DISTRICT OF
ZIMBABWE**

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
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UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

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DATE: 01 February 2016

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Date.....

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DEDICATION

**I WISH TO DEDICATE THE EFFORTS THAT
CULMINATED IN THIS THESIS,
AND ITS PRODUCTION
TO
THE CHIKONA FAMILY**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my heart-felt gratitude to the following people who made my thesis possible:

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ABSTRACT

Of late there has been an outcry about poor leadership and mismanagement amongst school heads by the Zimbabwean public media (Gore, 2012; Mhlanga, 2013; Nziramasanga, 2000; Share, 2013) and Teachers' Union representatives, parents and District Education Officers at various meetings I attended in the Zvishavane District in Zimbabwe. However, from my experience as a school head and the literature available for the preparation of school heads in Zimbabwe, little if any is known about school heads' use of leader influence behaviours in educational leadership and management. Such knowledge is important for school heads for them to be able to effectively influence teachers so as to achieve school goals. This study aimed to contribute knowledge and push this peripheral attention given to this key aspect of educational leadership and management.

This is a qualitative ethnographic study, couched within the interpretive paradigm. An ethnographic approach suited this study because it allowed for a deep and sustained engagement with participants. A theoretical toolkit consisting of more than one theory was seen as appropriate to bring influence and leadership issues under study into sharp focus. As such a three legged theoretical framework utilising, the distributed leadership, the collegial model of educational management and Foucault's notions of power were used. School heads and teachers from three rural schools in the Zvishavane district of Zimbabwe were selected for the study. The school heads and teachers participated in the study to learn how school heads influence teachers in day to day work situations. Sampling for the school heads who participated in the study was purposive to generate data from high performing school heads. These school heads were recommended for selection for this study by the district education officer. The following findings emerged from this study:

- School heads use leader influence behaviours of empowerment, consultation, stewardship, sharing responsibility, inspirational appeal, rational persuasion and legitimation to influence teachers.
- School heads utilise different influence behaviours in different core areas of their work.
- The success of influence attempts is determined by meanings, values and experiences the school heads and teachers bring to bear in the school head/teacher interactions.

- A blend, instead of the use of just one influence behaviour at a time increased chances of an influence attempt suggesting that the more influence behaviours a school head uses at a time, the more will be his or her chances of success at influencing teachers.
- Issues of integrity, collaboration, transparency, knowledge, evidence, authority, culture of achievement, trust and seniority culture mediated leader influence attempts.

Using a model, based on these findings, I showed that the interplay between leader influence behaviours and contextual and cultural issues mediate school heads' influence attempts. This study can contribute to the growing body of literature on leader influence behaviours in particular and educational leadership and management in general by adding to what we can learn about how school heads influence teachers in their day-to-day leadership practice.

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ABBREVIATIONS LIST

BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
BSPZ	Better Schools Programme of Zimbabwe
CIET	Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training
COMSEC	Commonwealth Secretariat
EAPPS	Educational Administration Planning and Policy Studies
IBQ	Influence Behaviour Questionnaire
LRPBQ	Leader Reward and Punishment Behaviour Questionnaire
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
POIS	Profiles of Organizational Influence Strategies
SDC	School Development Committee
SIG	School Improvement Grant
SLQ	Strategic Leadership Questionnaire
TIC	Teacher In Charge
TLBI	Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory
ZOU	Zimbabwe Open University

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CHAPTER 1

MAPPING THE JOURNEY AHEAD

1.1 INTRODUCTION

In this study I wish to contribute knowledge to the discipline of educational leadership by focusing on leader influence behaviours that effective school heads use to influence teacher behaviours. I study three schools in the Zvishavane district of Zimbabwe with high performing school heads. In this introductory chapter I give a background and purpose of the study, highlight the problem statement and research questions, the significance of this study and define key terms used in this study. I also provide a brief overview of the theoretical framework, the research methodology and research design, as well as an outline of the general structure of the thesis. I now move to introduce the argument for this study by giving a background and purpose of the study below.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

To understand the present story of leader influence behaviours in educational leadership and management and its challenges in Zimbabwe, a journey into the past is necessary. When Zimbabwe attained independence in 1980, most of the challenges facing the country's education were blamed on the segregatory policies of the colonial government. So the Zimbabwean government removed all apartheid-style laws at independence but maintained a tight grip on education (Chikoko, 2006). The highly centralised top-down system of governance made it difficult, if not impossible for stakeholders at various levels of the education system to participate in decision-making; pointing to the need for a change in organisational culture, moving towards decentralisation and more power for school heads (Rukanda & Mukurazhizha, 1997). The intention of the introduction of local governance for schools was to remove most of the colonial related constraints of central control moving to the full participation of those at school level in leading and managing school activities. It was anticipated by the government that this would bring about improvement in education through inclusive participation and customised leadership that is responsive to local challenges than the then scenario of receiving directives from the central government (Rukanda & Mukurazhizha, 1997). To strengthen local leadership, the power and authority of school heads was consolidated by *Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992* and *Secretary's Circular No. 5 of 1997*, the *Regional Director's*

Circular No. 1 of 2000, Statutory Instrument 1 of 2000. Educational expansion and subsequent decentralisation heightened stakeholders, parents and learners’ expectations of a better education (Chiome, 2011). The skyrocketing expectations of schools translated into pressures on school heads to play an increasingly more important role to transform schools into better places of teaching and learning. Unfortunately, most schools are reeling under serious leadership challenges that have translated into poor teaching and learning outcomes. A presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) led by Nziramasanga in 1999 and results published in 2000 also cited this challenge (CIET, 1999).

1.2.1 The recent performance of the Zimbabwean education system

A debatable question to ponder upon is whether the situation in Zimbabwe’s education sector changed for the better with the implementation of drastic reforms since independence in 1980. My answer is no. To support this I start by giving an overview of the pass rate trend for ordinary level exit examinations from 1980 to 2000. In 1980, the pass rate was 18.1% and five years later, it fell to 14.5%. By 1990, this had slid down even further to 14.3%. The downward spiral continued and the pass rate hit rock bottom to 12.8% in 1995 and in 2000 it stood at 13.9% (Guchu, 2015). A detailed picture of the of the state of Zimbabwe’s education is reflected in the statistics of the last nine years that show very low pass rates (see Tables 1.1 and 1.2). The array of figures below shows the performance of Zimbabwe’s learners in their Grade Seven and exit examinations at ordinary level starting from 2006 up to 2014. In analysing statistics in the tables below, Davis et al. (2005) and Chiome (2011) remind us of the close link between the quality of school leadership and school performance and that the quality of leadership in any establishment is key to providing excellent learning outcomes.

Table 1.1 Grade seven pass rate 2006-2014

YEAR	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
PASS RATE	47%	45.2%	51.5%	22.7%	21.4%	31.5%	32.2%	28%	38.1%

(Zimbabwe school examinations council, 2006-2014)

Table 1.2 Ordinary level pass rate 2006-2014

YEAR	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
PASS RATE	14.2%	9.8%	14.4%	19%	16%	19.5%	18.4%	20%	30.85%

(Guchu, 2014).

Whilst results for 2014 were relatively better, they were however marred by examination leakages and irregularities particularly in Mathematics and English (Weluzani, 2015). More than thirty years after reforms in education and school leadership that were meant to be a game changer had been put in place, the story the figures are telling is grim. Commenting on these statistics the then Minister of Education Sport and Culture, Coltart (2010, p. 1) said, “There is a grave danger that the nation will suffer from a lost generation if this crisis is not taken seriously.” The Minister said some of the challenges the education system was facing was inadequate infrastructure, low teacher morale apart from those cited more than fourteen years back by the presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET), Better known as the Nziramasanga Commission in 1999 for which no meaningful solutions or steps have been taken to save the education sector. The presidential commission’s report is a two thousand page document and I will not be doing any justice to try and discuss all its contents here. However, I dwell on one aspect critical for the study that featured prominently in the report, which is school leadership. I briefly discuss the commission’s findings in this regard and highlight steps that have been taken to try and arrest some of the challenges that were cited.

1.2.2 School heads as a vital ingredient

The CIET (1999) noted that the education expansion soon after the country got independence was a remarkable achievement which however had negative effects on the quality of education. There was a concern about the quality of leadership and a question of whether the structures and cultures within which school heads worked and through which they were appointed and trained were adequate (Chiome, 2011; Department of Education, 2008). Countries like England, France, Malta, Scotland and America introduced mandatory training programmes for school heads (Perumal & Zikhali, 2014). South Africa has also joined countries that have made it mandatory for every principal to undergo specialist training in leadership and management (Naicker, 2011). However, Zimbabwe depends solely on prospective heads’ teaching experience and on the job training. In his study on the issue of on the job training, Rhodes (2009) said some school heads claimed that they only had two days of training before they were asked to lead a school. In my case, I was posted to Gokwe, a remote district in Zimbabwe when I graduated from college. On arrival at my new school, I found I was the only qualified teacher there. The same week a letter came through the district education officer saying I had been appointed to head the school. This is how my career as a school head started. I faced big leadership challenges particularly concerning how I could influence

teachers to achieve better work outcomes. These challenges were a wake-up call for me and I soon realised that the majority of other school heads in the district were facing similar challenges too. The commission, having studied the challenges facing the education sector concluded that school heads in Zimbabwe did not rise to the demands of their roles of being visionary leaders with appropriate skills, competences, professional education and attitudes that will influence educators and education outcomes to the satisfaction of the nation. Poor leadership and mismanagement were also cited by the public media for example Gore (2012), Mhlanga, and Share (2013) and also Zimbabwe Teachers' Union representatives, parents and District Education Officers at various meetings I attended as a school head. As I left most of these meetings, I often asked myself, 'How best can I and other school heads influence teachers and improve work outcomes?' I felt that there was something lacking about how school heads practiced leadership in their schools. The commission, having noted that school heads were the king pin needed to transform and influence educational outcomes recommended various training programmes for school heads which were soon rolled out. These included the Commonwealth Secretariat training and support programme for school heads in Africa (COMSEC), the Better Schools Programme of Zimbabwe (BSPZ), the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) and also the Africa University degree programmes (Chiome, 2011).

1.2.3 School heads preparation attempts

The COMSEC programme was agreed upon at the world conference of Education for All in Thailand in 1990 (Chiome, 2011). It was found that African school heads did not have the necessary skills and training to lead schools and also lacked professional support. The aim of the programme was to improve the capacity and performance of school heads within a context of shrinking resources and the already mentioned demand for better educational outcomes. Capacitating school heads was based on a belief that schools can only be as good as their school heads or vice-versa. COMSEC gave birth to the BSPZ programme in 2000 in Zimbabwe. Issues of quality education drove the BSPZ programme. This was tried through establishing resource centres for teaching and learning like libraries, media centres, internet facilities and also appointment of district and cluster resource teachers. The aim was to create a strong network of leadership and a culture of collaboration in schools (Chiome, 2011). The BSPZ programme is still active in Zimbabwe and has been instrumental in the improvement in the quality of teaching and learning resources available to mostly remote areas of the country (BSPZ, 2000). However, both COMSEC and BSPZ programmes did not make any inroads as far as improving school heads' leadership skills that were

not directly targeted by the programmes in the first place (Chiome, 2011). In 1993, ZOU introduced the Educational Administration Planning and Policy Studies (EAPPS) degree (first housed at the University of Zimbabwe) through distance learning targeting school heads and senior teachers. School heads knowing their learning gap welcomed this programme but soon criticised it saying it was disconnected to the real world complexities of leading schools (Chiome, 2011). What can be said to be the latest offering is the School Heads for Africa degree programme introduced by Africa University, a church institution in Mutare, Zimbabwe. The University recruits from the whole of Africa. Its programme aims at enhancing the understanding which public sector leaders have of promoting and implementing various public policies and programmes (Chiome, 2011). However, critics in Zimbabwe said its impact is diluted because it is very broad focusing on all African countries. Chiome points out that the programme is based on a managerially focused curriculum and a traditional, academic model of the school organisation. It is also being accused of being more focused on the public sector than schools (Chiome, 2011). Whilst a small number of universities in Zimbabwe offer degrees meant to prepare school heads for their role, they offer nothing more than what I have discussed above. Despite the initiatives I have mentioned above to train and capacitate school heads which started nearly fifteen years ago, Zimbabwe's school leadership is still in intensive care. This can be learnt from outcries from stakeholders, parents, the poor results and the sad comment from the then Minister of Education (Refer to Section 1.2.2, p. 2) that the education system is in a crisis due to poor leadership culminating in poor learning outcomes.

1.3 Rationale and motivation for carrying out the study

From my experience as a school head and the training programmes available for school heads and those aspiring to be school heads in Zimbabwe outlined above, there has been little if any emphasis on equipping the school heads with leadership skills other than administration and management skills. For example, before I was appointed as a school head I did the EAPPS degree and I gained a lot as far as how to manage a school but I realised that I lacked when it came to leadership and the use of leader influence behaviours, a key aspect of effective leadership. The current challenge for contemporary school heads and at the same time the greatest expectation of our time is for school heads to provide the much needed leadership to drive education through the current challenges into the future. It is out of the mentioned social concerns raised through Zimbabwe's public media, my personal experiences and involvement as a school head, concerns raised through school heads' professional forums and my quest for new knowledge that can improve and align school leadership practice with current trends that I am motivated to carry out this research study.

Educational leadership challenges and the poor academic results in Zimbabwe, invariably compromise the quality of children's lives and learning experiences in schools. It has always been my wish to contribute to the betterment of our education system by improving the leadership experience of school heads, teachers and pupils which currently is floating in turmoil. My belief is that institutional excellence can be studied, applied and refined through appropriate research and hopefully impact on teachers and the schooling experiences of pupils (Townsend & MacBeath, 2011). This study is my spirited attempt to achieve this ideal by going back to schools to confront real life leadership and management experiences of school heads and teachers. This way I see this study as a contribution to knowledge regarding what goes on at the 'front line' in schools in terms of focusing on leader influence behaviours as they happen in unique contexts and circumstances in Zimbabwe's primary schools. A study of this nature is also important because the results may add to the scanty body of literature regarding leader influence behaviours and educational leadership in Zimbabwe. It may fill the gap created by the lack of research literature on school leadership in Zimbabwe and provide information regarding School Heads' use of leader influence behaviours to inform the practice of current educational leaders in Zimbabwean schools, particularly now when the education sector is hard pressed to reform and deliver. This study hopefully provides a valuable lens through which to take a fresh look at initiatives that have been taken and that can be adopted for the future in terms of the preparation of school heads. In this regard it can be used as a reference point for policy discussions to reform and improve school heads preparation programmes in Zimbabwe which are yet to strike the right chord in view of the current challenges. I see it going a long way in developing a deeper understanding of influence as it relates to educational leadership and management, something that can help improve leadership and educational outcomes.

1.4 Statement of the problem

Against this background, the problem the Zimbabwean education sector is facing is a serious dearth of knowledge about leader influence behaviours and leadership skills that school heads can use to transform teaching and learning. Such knowledge is crucial if schools are to achieve better work outcomes. There is an urgent need to shift from an emphasis on educational administration and management that may not deliver on their own to incorporating and foregrounding educational leadership studies (Mazurkiewicz, 2011; Townsend & McBeath, 2011). This is particularly so in Zimbabwe considering leadership challenges school heads are facing. My study aims to explore and push the peripheral attention given to the study of leader influence behaviours in educational

leadership and management in Zimbabwe with the view of assisting school heads to effectively influence teachers and improve leadership practice.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are to:

1. Determine how school heads influence teachers in their day-to-day leadership practice.
2. Learn how teachers respond to school heads' leader influence behaviours.
3. Find out why school teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do.

1.6 Research questions

The objectives of the study are unpacked by answering the following research questions:

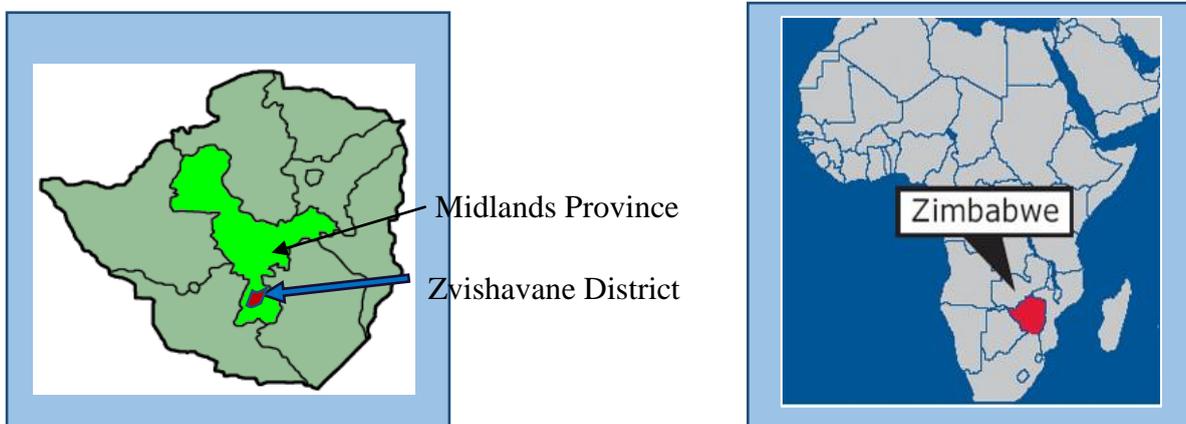
1. How do school heads influence teachers in their day-to-day leadership practice?
2. How do teachers respond to school heads' leader influence behaviours?
3. Why do teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do?

In a qualitative enquiry, the location of a study may be as important as the methods the researcher uses in the story. As such, I also foreground the location of this study and I briefly discuss it below.

1.7 LOCATION OF THE STUDY

The data generation for this study was done in Zvishavane district in the Midlands province of Zimbabwe between September 2014 and December 2014. All the schools under study are in rural

Figure 1.1 Maps of Zimbabwe and Africa



Downloaded from webs.worford.edu/davisgr/i2012/

areas around the mining town of Zvishavane. Figure 1.1 shows the location of the Midlands province and Zvishavane district in Zimbabwe where I carried out this study and Zimbabwe's position on the African map (Retrieved from webs.worford.edu/davisgr/i2012/). The District education officer supplied the names of the school heads. Schools in Zimbabwe are grouped into clusters and zones. Two of the schools are in one cluster and the other is in a different cluster. All the schools are in Zvishavane south zone. The district was chosen purposefully for convenience and also because it is where I had my experiences as a school head and experienced the problem I am now researching.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

A study of this magnitude has numerous terms that need to be defined because definitions and usage of some of the terms is contextual. Only the most important terms that form the golden thread tying all pieces of meaning together for this study are defined. The terms are leadership, leader influence behaviours, management and power. Definitions of other terms will happen as discussions unfold in the various chapters ahead.

1.8.1 Leadership

Leadership is so complex that it cannot be taken to mean only one thing and seemingly, it is impossible of being pinned down by any one definition (Forde, 2010). Lalla (2013) says it is not fixed and must be constantly discovered and rediscovered. It is not in a constant state that can be attained but is just an ideal to be pursued. As such it is not my intention to critique the range of definitions given by the various authors but to define and locate it within a particular notion relevant to this study. Forde (2010, p. 21) traces the origins of the word and development of the concept of leadership which helps in understanding definitions of leadership given here. He explains:

The derivation of the English words 'leader', 'lead' and 'leadership' can be traced to the ancient Anglo-Saxon word 'laed,' which spoke of 'a path' or 'a road' along which people would travel... The concept of a 'leader' evolved so as to refer to the person who pointed out or found the way to proceed on a journey. It is from this origin that certain connotations persist in terms of the word 'leadership', namely, journey, change, transformation, renewal and moving towards something better.

In this context, leadership describes the role an individual occupies in the process of influencing and moving the organisation from its current state to a better future state. There are a few more definitions of leadership relevant to this study. Leadership can also be seen as the actual use of power to effect attitude or behavioural change (Pierro, Raven, Amato, & Bélanger, 2013). It can be defined as the process whereby one person influences individuals and group members towards goal setting and goal achievement with no force or coercion (Botha, 2013). Leadership is also defined as, “The process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Yukl, 2010, p. 8). I would say Pierro et al.’s (2013) definition is couched in the traditional ideas of leadership incorporating values of hierarchical authority and centralised power, while Botha (2013) and Yukl’s (2010) definitions suggest the concept of democracy, stress collaboration, influence and reciprocal relationships in the activities, competencies and or functions of a leader. In addition, Botha (2013) and Yukl’s (2010) definitions suggest that whilst leadership can be a function of a leader who yields some power, it can also be concerned with the daily activities of ordinary influential people in an organisation who set out to make a difference in the lives of others. Therefore, leadership can be exercised by the powerful or just anyone in an organisation who has influence, my point of departure for this study.

1.8.2 Management

Management is a set of processes that keep an organisation functioning through routine maintenance of day-to-day work operations and problem solving if results do not go according to plan (Myers, 2012; Ratcliff, 2013). Sapre (2002, p. 102) states that, “management is a set of activities directed towards efficient and effective utilisation of organisational resources in order to achieve organisational goals.” Bush (2008, p. 4) says management, “Is maintaining efficiently and effectively current organisational arrangements.” From these three definitions, management can be seen as a function of the leader concerned with efficiently performing agreed functions aimed at achieving set organisational goals by maintaining and carrying out certain day-to-day organisational functions. Bush (2008) states some of these managerial functions as:

- Goal setting
- Needs identification
- Priority setting
- Planning

- Budgeting
- Implementing and
- Evaluating.

In the context of leadership, Bush (2008) discusses managerial leadership and managerialism: Managerial leadership is based on assumptions that the leader focuses on organisational functions, tasks and behaviours. These functions should be carried out efficiently and competently so that the work of teachers in a school organisation can be enhanced. Managerial leadership also assumes that the behaviour of organisational members is mostly rational and the authority and influence they may have in the school organisation is proportional to formal positions they hold in the organisation. Turning to managerialism, Bush (2011, p. 2) argues that,

Educational management has to be centrally concerned with the purpose or aims of education. These purposes or goals provide the crucial sense of direction, which should underpin the management of educational institutions. Management is directed at the achievement of certain educational objectives. Unless this link between purpose and management is clear and close, there is a danger of 'managerialism', 'a stress on procedures at the expense of educational purpose and values.'

Educational management which is focused on the purpose or aims of education, “is very suitable for school leaders working in centralised systems as it prioritises the efficient implementation of external imperatives, notably those prescribed by higher levels in the hierarchy (Bush, 2008, p. 12). However, I argue that this should be balanced with local needs from teachers and other stakeholders so that management decision are owned at grassroots level for harmonious and smooth implementation.

1.8.3 Leader influence behaviours

Leadership theory and research has of late been locked in the ‘what’ of leadership and outlining general and high level constructs about leader behaviours. I buy into the ideas posited by Sampson (2012, p. 2) that, “For leadership theory and research to be more useful to practising leaders it must provide guidance not just about what an effective leader does, but also about how he or she does it.” In this case, understanding and studying leader influence behaviours become very important. Influence behaviours can be defined as the type of behaviours used intentionally to influence the attitudes and behaviour of another person (Von Dohlen, 2012). Lee & Salleh (2008) sees influence behaviours as leader behaviours designed to change member behaviour or attitudes. In this study, the term refers to specific leader actions viewed at a molecular level, meant to change behaviours

and attitudes of followers. Some influence behaviours that have been identified of late are appraisal, ingratiation, inspirational appeals, consultation and legitimating behaviours (Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996). These leader influence behaviours are a shift from grand narratives and try to address the question of effective leadership by looking at leadership behaviour at a much more detailed level, trying to capture the finer details of effective leader behaviour through eliciting and describing for others the micro-level processes leaders use to create effective follower outcomes. Studying how the leader's day-to-day interactions and actions influence followers' behaviour becomes very important in outlining the general and high level constructs about leader behaviours.

1.8.4 Power

Power is seen as the ability to influence someone else (Nelson & Quick, 2012). Power is also defined as the potential or ability of an agent to bring change in attitudes, behaviour, or belief by using resources available to him or her (Pierro et al., 2013). On the other hand, Von Dohlen (2012) defines power as the capacity or potential to influence. From the above definitions, power can be defined as the leader's potential or capacity to influence attitudes, behaviours, or beliefs of followers. Definitions of power I have given so far revolve power around the leader of an organisation. Whilst this is what obtains in many organisations because of the bureaucratic make up of most organisations, Foucault broke away from this tradition (Foucault, 1989). Michel Foucault's ideas on power changed people's understandings of power, leading away from the analysis power as something that can be possessed by leaders, and even away from the discreet structures in which these leaders operate, towards the idea that 'power is everywhere' (Foucault, 1989; Gaventa & Pettit, 2011). This is what Foucault (1988, p. 93) said to emphasise this point: "power is produced ... in every relation from one point to another"; it is "everywhere; not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere". In my study the implication of this for leadership is that power, as the capacity to influence, is not the preserve of the leader alone. Teachers, and other stakeholders have power and influence. This notion of power moves away from thinking about who holds power in the school to, how existing power relations influence leadership practice in the school; my point of departure in this study.

1.8.5 Leadership, management and power

Practically, a leader cannot lead effectively without using power derived from his or her formal position to manage the daily activities of the organisation. Neither can the leader manage without providing leadership (Bush, 2008). Whilst it is clear that leadership, management and power are different concepts, their application in practice brings them together and there is a natural overlap among the skills they require (Ratcliffe, 2013). Deducing from their definitions; power, leadership and management form an inseparable veneer. Despite the interconnectedness of the three terms however, let me hasten to say that it is out of the scope of this study to dwell on power and management issues as such. But in this study however, whenever the term leadership is used, management is subsumed in leadership. Issues of power are also subsumed in leadership too.

1.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The complexity, dynamism and scope of leadership and influence in education excludes the possibility of using one theoretical lens to analyse them. As such a theoretical toolkit was seen as appropriate to bring leadership and influence issues under study into sharp focus. As such a three legged theoretical framework utilising distributed leadership, the collegial model of educational management and Foucault's notions of power were used. Distributed leadership is defined as the expansion of leadership roles in schools beyond those in formal leadership or administrative posts (Harris, 2010). Central to this 'theory' is the fact that leadership is hinged on practice (the daily performance of leadership routines, functions, and structures). This is because, "A distributed perspective frames practice in a particular way, not simply as individual actions but rather as a product of the interactions among school leaders, followers and aspects of their situation" (Spillane et al., 2011, p. 161). The collegial model purports that both the school head and teachers determine policy and make decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus. There is room for free discussions, debates and disagreements but there is always a willingness to give and receive criticism in order to enhance practice (Bush, 2011). This research study also draws on Foucault's notions of power. Foucault explains how men can be subjected to power by authority to create what he called a disciplinary society by means of what he called disciplinary power (Anita, 2010; Bowdridge & Blenkinsop, 2011). Through disciplinary power, "Each individual has his own place; and each place its individual", through the mechanisms of Surveillance, normalising judgement and Examination (Foucault, 1975, p. 141). Through these mechanisms, humans and their behaviours can be monitored, standardised and documented for purposes influencing behaviour. This multi-

focal lens helps me to zoom into the micro level leader actions and interactions leading to a better understanding of leader influence targeted at changing behaviours and attitudes of followers.

1.10 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study is couched within the interpretive paradigm whose ontological belief is that there are multiple realities that are contingent upon human practices; constructed out of the interaction of social actors and transmitted within a bounded social context (Dillow, 2009). Interpretive epistemology propounds that knowledge is subjective and changes according to how people make meaning of their situation. My quest to generate insights that will improve practice, anchored upon rich contextual views about educational leadership from teachers and school heads is to a great extent enabled by this paradigm. Ethnographic methodology is used in this study. Ethnography allowed me to examine leadership processes in natural school settings and from the perspective of school heads and teachers. It also ensures an in-depth and detailed analysis of the problem within the context of a limited number of participants. The prolonged deep and sustained engagement with participants in the field affords me the privilege of going beyond getting what members say they did to direct observation of what they actually do. Purposeful sampling taps data from information rich participants (Crabtree & Miller, 1992). A sample of three high performing (Using Ministry of education data) school heads from a population of forty school heads was used. Further, five teachers from each school selected using stratified sampling are used in this study. Unstructured conversational and semi-structured interviews as well as unstructured observations are used to collect data so as to capture how the participants constructed their reality within relations of power and how this shaped school leadership processes. Ethnography's use of these multiple methods to generate data helps me to counteract biases that could emanate from the use of a single method (Robson, 2011). Ethnographic research places emphasis on humans as the instruments of data collection (Delamont, 2008; Newman, 2006). In line with this, I am the primary data collection instrument in this study. Qualitative data analysis should commence from the beginning of research (Pranee, 2009). In line with this recommendation, data analysis will be an on-going process done at the end of each day of fieldwork and at the end of the research process. I will work with the data, organising them, breaking them into manageable units, coding and categorising them, synthesising them and search for patterns.

1.11 A BRIEF GUIDE TO THIS THESIS

Chapter one served as an introduction and the reader's compass to point directions of what is to be found ahead as they travel the less explored area of the study of leader influence behaviours in educational leadership and management. It laid the foundation of this study by giving a background and purpose of the study. It stated the research questions and gave an overview of the research methodology and methods used in this study. I also defined and explained key terms used in this study.

The aim of Chapter Two is to review literature on leader influence behaviours. I discuss the work of dominant writers in the field of influence behaviours namely Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl et al. (1992) and of late Sampson (2012). Related studies in this area by Roger et al. (2011), Lian and Tui (2012), Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011), Pisapia and Pang (2013) and Von Dohlen (2012) are also discussed. As I discuss these issues, I carve a niche for my study by highlighting the contextual, methodological and theoretical strengths of the study so as to show how it contributes to new knowledge.

In Chapter Three, I discuss the theoretical framework underpinning this study. I employ a three-legged theoretical framework drawing from the practice of distributed leadership, the collegial model of organisational management and Foucault's notions of power respectively. Whilst each of the three frameworks speaks to issues of leadership and management relevant to this study, I see their complementarity as their main strength.

In Chapter Four, I discuss the paradigm, design, methodology and methods I used to carry out the study. I justify why I chose the interpretivist paradigm for this study. I also discuss the research approach and ethnography as my chosen research design, showing how it links with my paradigm and the nature of research I am doing.

In Chapter, Five and Six I focus on presentation and discussion of data about leader influence behaviours used by school heads at the three schools of my study obtained through observations and semi-structured interviews and artefacts.

In Chapter Seven I conclude this report by summing up the main findings in relation to the research questions posed at the outset of the study with the aid of a model to explain what can be learnt about leader influence behaviours from school heads and teachers' behaviours.

1.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter provides an exposition of the study, which has been set within a thorough discussion of the background and purpose of the study, the significance of this study, a highlight of the problem statement and research questions and definition of the terms used in this study. A general structure of the thesis has also been given. The key learning in this Chapter is that leadership and management in Zimbabwe has not paid adequate attention to the study of leader influence behaviours and how effective school heads influence teachers. The next chapter focuses on the literature review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1 the terms leadership, management, leader influence behaviours and power were defined and discussed in detail. I pointed out in the background to the study that many school heads in Zimbabwe are finding it difficult to lead their schools effectively as evidenced by discussions in professional circles, parents and negative reporting by the public media. I pointed out that leadership and management discourse in Zimbabwe has not paid adequate attention to the study of leader influence behaviours and how effective school heads influence teachers. With this background the key message of the chapter was that little if any is known about school heads' use of leader influence behaviours necessitating a need to investigate how effective leaders use leader influence behaviours to influence decisions in their schools. To understand this key aspect of leading; this ethnographic study about leader influence behaviours and school leadership will be crippled if issues of leadership are skipped in the literature review. Therefore in this chapter, I start by tracking what is known about leadership theory by looking at trait and behavioural theories, limiting the discussion to brief descriptions of theories relevant to this study. The phrase leader influence tactics has been the mainstay in leadership studies in the corporate sector for a long time. However it was dropped in this study in favour of leader influence behaviours. It is important to explain this deviation. In the second segment of this chapter, I explain the possible origins of the phrase leader 'influence tactics' as a way of explaining why I dropped it in favour of leader 'influence behaviours' instead. I then discuss leader influence behaviours looking at the work of Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992). I also discuss further studies that were done but related to the work done by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992). I follow this by looking at the work of Sampson (2012) who worked on identifying new influence behaviours more than a decade after the work of Yukl et al. (1992). The gaps this study tries to fill are also discussed.

2.2 Are leaders born or made?

It is not the objective of this study to go into deep details of leadership theories. However, a synopsis of how the process of leading or influencing followers has evolved over time in history is

important for a rounded understanding of leadership and leader influence behaviours as they are discussed in this study. The evolution of leadership discourse and consequently conceptions of how leaders influence followers is traced by briefly looking at how leadership theory has developed over time. The embeddedness of meaning and understanding in history and discourse is supported by Foucault (2000) who says that the subject, power and leadership processes are produced historically through certain discourses.

2.2.1 Trait model of leadership

Early leadership studies by personality and social science theorists of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were based on a belief that great leaders were born with innate superhuman traits of leadership like personality, intelligence, perseverance, ambition assertiveness, cooperativeness and decisiveness (Forde, 2010; Jones & George, 2009, also Refer to section 2.4, p. 22.) Researchers endeavoured to discover these traits by studying successful leaders. It was believed that if such people can be found they also can be great leaders (Eberly et al. 2013; James et al. 2009; Jones & George, 2009). A leadership theory from the trait model is the great man theory. The Great man theory is based on the following assumptions:

- People are born with inherited traits.
- Some traits are particularly suited to leadership.
- People who make good leaders have the right (or sufficient) combination of traits (James et al., 2009).

I think it is called the great man theory because when it emerged during the Machiavelli era discussed in (section 2.4, p. 22) below when leadership was generally regarded as a trade for male managers in factories and not women, “due to the persistence of a predominantly male culture in most institutions,” (Lalla, 2013, p. 1). The great man theory has served as a model to a number of other countries and was exported to Zimbabwe and other African countries by British colonialists (Forde, 2012). It is claimed it is the brainchild behind the boys’ high schools that are still prevalent today in Zimbabwe and many other countries (Forde, 2012). The theory may have also contributed significantly to many male stereotypes like the one that schools are led by headmasters. When I was piloting my research instruments for example, I visited a school lead by a woman but the door of her office had an old label written ‘Headmaster.’ She only realised it when I asked her about it. I also see the theory as fitting well with the bureaucratic structure of most public schools in Zimbabwe. I base this on James et al.’s (2009) assertion that the theory’s main contribution to the

bureaucratic system has been the order and unquestioning compliance by followers and that most organisations appear to run smoothly as a result. Elements of bureaucracy are still prevalent in schools I am studying and insights from the great man theory will be very helpful in analysing leadership practice. Also because leadership and influence become couched in social values and stereotypes, the danger is that this could produce followers who see leadership as unquestionable since leadership and influence become sort of God given privileges preserved for a segment of the population. I also see it as a theory that may promote and consolidate positions of dictators in school. Trait theorist spent many years trying to draw a list of traits linked to effective and ineffective leaders without any success. Then researchers turned their attention from studying traits to studying the behaviour of leaders; leading to the emergence of behavioural models of leadership (Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012).

2.3 BEHAVIOURAL MODELS

The concepts of power and influence and leader behaviours dominated research and literature after the onset of the Second World War (1939-1945) as well as into the early 1960s (Forde, 2010). This marked a shift from the trait theories of leadership that focused on the leader to what can be called behavioural theories of leadership. With behavioural theories of leadership, attention shifted from the individual leader to the group being led. This approach focused more on the leader's behaviour and how such behaviour affected and was affected by the group or followers (Robbins, Odendaal, & Roodt, 2003). This saw the mushrooming of new theories of leadership like situational theories (which focused on the context in which leadership takes place), contingency theories (which postulated that leadership is contingent upon behaviour, personality, influence and situation) and more recently transactional/transformational theories (which see leadership as being dependent upon role-differentiation and social interaction (Forde, 2010; Sadler, 2003) dominating the last years of the twentieth century. Unlike trait theories, behavioural theories of leadership do not seek for the inborn traits at all. They look at what leaders actually do because the belief is that through appropriate training any one can be made into a good leader regardless of his or her inborn characteristics. In addition to that, leadership effectiveness can be measured by observing the definable leadership behaviours of leaders (James et al., 2009). This study on leader influence behaviours, it can be seen now, is couched within the last generation of theories of leadership grouping contingency and situational theories, transactional and transformational leadership and more recently servant leadership theory and authentic leadership theories together under the umbrella term 'behavioural theories of leadership'. The philosophical ideas underpinning these theories and more importantly this study is that leadership and particularly effective leader

behaviours can be studied and learned through research for effective organisational success. This discussion on literature review does not go into details about all behavioural theories of leadership. I limit the discussion to only two theories namely transformational leadership and servant leadership theory which I found to be of direct relevance to some findings of this study and some leader influence behaviours from these theories are reference points for discussions in chapter 5, section 5.3, p. 98 and chapter 6, sections 6.2, p. 120 respectively. I start by discussing transformational leadership theory.

2.3.1 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is a behaviour-based approach to leadership that explains how certain leaders foster performance above expectations in followers by engaging in behaviours that help encourage followers to transform their values and goals from self-interests to organisational interests (Andrea, 2011; Burns, 2010; Hobman et al., 2011). Transformational leadership was first described by James Burns in 1978 and was refined by Bernard Bass in 1985 who described four specific leader behaviours (Andrea, 2011). I give a short description of each of these five behaviours below.

i) Idealised influence or charismatic leadership

The leader holds a clear vision, works to win trust and gain respect from followers. Followers see their leaders as role models whom they love, respect, trust and emulate because of the leader's solid moral and ethical principles.

ii) Inspirational motivation

The leaders generates expectations by involving followers in creating an inspiring vision and attractive future. These leaders demonstrate enthusiasm, confidence and optimism, and emphasize commitment to a shared goal. Followers are given challenging work with clear guidelines as to how set targets should be achieved and there is emphasis on shared vision.

iii) Intellectual stimulation

Transformational leaders seeks ideas, instil creativity by encouraging critical thinking, questioning old assumptions and encouraging novel ways of completing tasks like approaching old situations in new ways.

iv) Individual consideration

Leaders are concerned with the growth and achievement of followers and strive to attend to follower needs. To do this they offer support, encouragement, individual mentoring and coaching. (Burns, 2010; Andrea, 2011; Pounder, 2008). I was able to identify leader influence behaviours linked to individual consideration in this study. This will be discussed in more detail in section 2.3.2, p. 20 below.

Dems (2011) says transformational leadership has been proven to be effective in the long run as it instils a positive mind set in followers and is particularly effective during crises such as economic difficulties that hamper the growth of a particular organization. I saw this theory fitting well with the prevailing economic situation in Zimbabwe during the time of carrying out this study. The economic situation in the country is challenging (Coltart, 2010) with the country having lost its currency due to hyperinflation and incessant political squabbles. Another positive aspect of the theory is that a leader using this theory is seen as someone who excites subordinates and inspires their complete faith, admiration and respect for the leader (Pounder, 2008). The danger of this however is that this may create dictators and hero worshiping by followers, something that is not suitable for good practice. I was able to pick leader influence behaviours school heads use from servant leadership theory. I discuss this behavioural theory below.

2.3.2 Servant leadership

Servant leadership is another behavioural theory developed by Greenleaf in 1991 (Sampson, 2012). It was defined by Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) as a type of leadership demonstrated by empowering people; interpersonal acceptance, expressing humility, authenticity, providing direction and stewardship. The leader ensures that the highest priority needs of followers are served first before his and also wants to see those served grow; become more autonomous and more likely themselves to become servant leaders in future (Greenleaf, 1977). The leaders emphasise trust and fairness in all aspects of their leadership. There are similarities between these general characteristics of servant leadership and those of a transformational leader, particularly the one using individual consideration. What differentiates the servant leader from the transformational leader in this regard is that the servant leader has a very strong focus on followers needs whilst the transformational leader strives to meet these needs only if this will help the leader to achieve organisational goals (Sampson, 2012; Burton & Peachey, 2013). However, I saw this degree of emphasis to be occurring in a continuum in practice. During field work servant leader theory was

very important as it helped me pick up some of the leader influence behaviours school heads under study use in practice. These leader influence behaviours are stewardship and empowerment and I discuss them in detail below.

i) Stewardship

Stewardship as a general characteristic of the leader described under servant leadership above is important in this study and will be cross referenced many times. This makes it necessary for me to discuss this leader behaviour in more detail here. The word steward is not new in the literature. For example the Meriam-Webster online dictionary (2015) says it is an English word that was used before the 12th century to define a male person whose job was to serve meals and take care of passengers in a train, ship or plane. It was introduced in the organisational context by Greenleaf in his essays about the *leader as a servant* in the 1970s (Parris & Peachy, 2013). In its use in general descriptions of the characteristic of a leader in the evolving theory of Servant leadership which has been called a new research area (Burton and Peachy, 2013; Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2010; Parris & Peachy, 2013), it has been described as a measure of the extent to which the leader cares about the individual follower's concerns and is willing to support and care for the followers and organisational needs (Pounder, 2008; Riaz & Haider, 2010). The same characteristic of a leader can be likened to individual consideration in transformational leadership theory (Hobman et al., 2011; Lai, 2011; Pounder, 2008). The only difference is their point of emphasis. A leader who behaves as a steward prioritises service, the growth and welfare of the follower and the transformative leader using individual consideration prioritising attainment of organisational goals.

ii) Empowerment

Also of special interest to this study is the concept of empowerment linked to servant leadership (Refer to section 2.3.2, p. 20). Empowerment is not a new term. According to Sadan (2004) it originated from the American Community of Psychology with Julian Rappaport 1981 as one of the early contributors. Generally, it has been used to relate to three concepts. The first one, as a method of social work with oppressed Afro-Americans, the second as a way of improving the welfare services by means of mediating social institutions and the third as a world-view that includes social policies and approaches to the solution of social problems stemming from powerlessness (Sadan, 2004). Concepts like individual empowerment, community empowerment and women empowerment, which have become popular with the term are a product of this world view. When

used in leadership, which draws from the third world-view, it refers to professional support for people that enables them to overcome a sense of powerlessness. When used in the context of trying to influence positive work behaviours of followers, leaders exhibit empowering influence behaviours like engaging followers in self-directed decision-making, generating followers' self-confidence and providing them with a sense of personal power (Burton & Peachey, 2013).

The interest about what constitutes a good leader did not end with the advent of behavioural theories of leadership of which two examples have been discussed in this section. A more detailed study of leader behaviours is still work in progress with Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992) of late having tried to capture through research, key leader influence behaviours effective leaders use to influence followers. However, changing perceptions of how best leaders can lead and influence followers effectively still persist and this will be revealed in the discussion that follows.

2.4 FROM LEADER INFLUENCE TACTICS TO LEADER INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992) have researched extensively and dominate contemporary literature about influence behaviours in organizations. They called leader influence behaviours, 'influence tactics'. However, there has been a gradual migration from the use of the phrase influence tactics to the use of the phrase 'influence behaviours' by writers writing about leadership (Botha, 2013; Bush, 2008). I see this as having implications for leadership discourse and school heads and their practice. The shift in emphasis shapes perceptions of how we think leaders should influence others for effective organisational outcomes. To illuminate this further I dwell on this migration in a little more detail. The word influence tactics was first used by Kipnis (1980). It is not clear why he linked leader influence with 'tactics'. Drawing from the understanding that power is the capacity to influence (Von Dohlen, 2012; Nelson & Quick, 2012) and therefore influence has to do with power I, drew some possible insights as to how the word influence tactics could have been coined from this association.

In my historical survey of thought about early writings about power and leadership I learnt that modern thinking about power and leadership began with the writings of Nicolo Machiavelli in his book, '*The Prince*' in the 16th century and also Thomas Hobbes in his book, '*Leviathan*' in the 17th century (Clegg & Haugaard, 2009). Machiavelli viewed the capacity to lead a kingdom strategically. Whoever has the right to lead (*The prince*) had the right to command. The ruler was

best suited for office as a leader on Machiavelli's account, if he was capable of varying his conduct from good to evil and back again “as fortune and circumstances dictate” (Machiavelli 1965, p. 66). A good leader (who was always thought of as a man) was supposed to be a person endowed with strategic and military tactics that helped him to secure his position and rule over his subjects. As such leadership and indeed any attempt at influencing was laden with negatives. Survival in the leadership game was based on military and other shrewd tactics as purported by Machiavelli (1965). This is where my deduction of the later association of the word ‘leader influence’ with ‘tactics’ by early writers like Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990; 1992; 1996) who pioneered work on leader influence behaviours is deduced.

Following in the footsteps of Machiavelli, after the Second World War the work of Max Weber (1947) became a point of departure for thought about leadership. He saw power and leadership as factors of domination in the context of the bureaucratic structures of the organisation (Clegg & Haugaard, 2009). Many theories about leadership blanketly called traditional or classical theories of leadership (Bernal, 2011, Mazurkiewicz, 2011) towed this line of thinking about what makes a good leader and how the leader can influence followers. It is no wonder why up to today many, people view organisational leadership in negative terms (Foucault). It may partly explain also, why the strong and negative word, ‘tactics’ usually confined to military strategies nowadays was picked by early writers on leadership and influence. However, there was a quick reaction and migration from the dark territories of brutality and shrewdness depicted in *The Prince* to more enlightened and positive ways of thinking about leadership in organisations. This started with Thomas Hobbes in in the 17th century (Clegg & Haugaard, 2009). In direct contrast to Machiavelli, Hobbes in his 1651 book *Leviathan* viewed the power and influence behaviours of a leader from the perspective of social contract which espouses that all legitimate leadership must be "representative" and based on the consent of the people. (Clegg & Haugaard, 2009). His views only came to prominence after the world wars and attainment of independence by most colonised countries. The birth and popularity of democratic governance and post structuralism ideas such as those espoused by Foucault, (1975) also revolutionised our thinking about leadership and how leaders can influence followers. This new line of thinking might be the reason behind the gradual dropping of the phrase ‘influence tactics’ biased towards Machiavelli’s shrewd leadership tactics and military strategies and the adoption of the phrase influence behaviours which is used in this study. The bulk of ground breaking literature covering work on influence behaviours as we understand them today, by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990; 1992; 1996) also reported by Lee and Salleh (2009), Pisapia and Pang (2009), Moideenkutty (2011), Lian (2012) and Yukl, (2010) will be discussed

below.

2.5 LANDMARK STUDIES ON INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS

In chapter 1, I gave definitions of leadership and a common theme running through the definitions is that of influence. I agree with Bush's (2008) assertion that leadership may be understood as 'influence' but this notion is neutral in that it does not explain actions or behaviours that should be sought by leaders who want to be effective influencers in their organisations. This learning gap in the study of leadership created a new interest in researching more about leader influence behaviours effective leaders use to influence followers. I will not define what leader influence behaviours are here because in chapter 1, I discussed in detail what leader influence behaviours are and how they relate to leadership (Refer to chapter 1, section 1.8.3, p. 10-11). Taking into consideration the importance of influence in the leadership process, understanding leader influence behaviours may go a long way in enhancing the effectiveness of school leaders. Whilst the study of leadership may be as old as humanity, research on specific leader influence behaviours by behavioural theorists started quite recently. The first of these studies which I call landmark studies on leader influence behaviours in this chapter started with Kipnis et al. (1980). In 1980, Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson developed the Profiles of Organizational Influence Strategies (POIS) which was leader self-report questionnaire which they used to identify the first set of six leader influence behaviours of assertiveness, coalitions, exchange, ingratiation, rationality and upward appeal (Lee & Salleh, 2009; Lian, 2012; Yukl, 2010) used by effective leaders. From this list the leader influence behaviours of sanctions and blocking were dropped due to infrequent use.

A decade after the landmark studies of Kipnis et al. (1980), there was renewed interest in the study of influence behaviours with Schriesheim and Hinkin replicating Kipnis et al. (1980)'s study by conducting four studies which refined the original 58-item survey in Kipnis' study to 27, 21, and 18 item surveys (Lee & Salleh, 2009). Findings indicated a reduction in survey items and increased content validity (Lee & Salleh, 2009). Both studies by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Schriesheim and Hinkin in the 1990s focused on upward influence behaviours by targets only. The studies were mainly about how workers influenced their bosses in a bottom-up system of communication. There was a need to also investigate downward and lateral influence behaviours. This renewed an interest in the study of leader influence behaviours particularly in Yukl and his research colleagues. As a result, Yukl and colleagues (Yukl & Falbe 1990; Yukl, Falbe & Youn 1993; Yukl, Kim & Falbe 1996; Yukl & Tracey 1992) embarked on studies to examine and identify more leader influence

behaviours from the perspectives of both the leaders and followers. They managed to extend the work of Kipnis et al. (1980) by identifying the additional behaviours of inspirational appeals, consultation, legitimating, pressure and personal appeal to bring the total identified influence behaviours to eleven where they still stand today (Lee & Salleh, 2009; Yukl, 2010; Lian, 2012). The studies above were done using experimental methods in lab settings and also survey methods using mostly managers in the corporate sector. The results were analysed using rigorous statistical techniques for objectivity and transferability (Sampson, 2012). A description of the eleven leader influence behaviours as described by Yukl (2010) is given below.

Table 2.1 Proactive influence tactics and examples

INFLUENCE TACTIC	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE
Rational persuasion	The agent uses logical arguments and factual evidence to show a proposal or request is feasible and relevant for attaining important task objectives.	Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.
Apprising	The agent explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit the target personally or help advance the target person's career.	Describes benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, enhance your reputation).
Inspirational Appeals	The agent makes an appeal to values and ideals or seeks to arouse the target person's emotions to gain commitment for a request or proposal.	Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.
Consultation	The agent encourages the target to suggest improvements in a proposal or to help plan an activity or change for which the target person's support and assistance are desired.	Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.
Collaboration	The agent offers to provide relevant resources and assistance if the target will	Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she

	carry out a request or approve a proposed change.	wants you to carry out.
Ingratiation	The agent uses praise and flattery before or during an influence attempt, or expresses confidence in the target's ability to carry out a difficult request.	Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to carry out.
Personal Appeals	The agent asks the target to carry out a request or support a proposal out of friendship, or asks for a personal favour before saying what it is.	Asks you as a friend to do a favour for him/her.
Exchange	The agent offers an incentive, suggests an exchange of favours, or indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time if the target will do what the agent requests.	Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.
Coalition Tactics	The agent seeks the aid of others to provide information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or persuade the target to do something, or uses the support of others as a reason for the target to agree.	Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it.
Legitimizing Tactics	The agent seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request or to verify the authority to make it legitimate by referring to rules, policies, contracts, or precedent.	Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.
Pressure	The agent uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to carry out a request.	Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.

Adapted from Yukl, (2010).

To measure the above influence behaviours, an Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ) was used. Since 1992, the IBQ has been used and revised to research proactive influence behaviours in organizations (Von Dohlen, 2012). The most recent IBQ has two versions, the IBQ-R and the IBQ-G. Each of these questionnaires has a target and an agent version which differ due to minor word changes only. The IBQ-R is used for longitudinal studies to compare respondent ratings over time. The IBQ-G is used to measure proactive influence behaviours at one point in time. Below is a

leader self-report version of the IBQ-G which a researcher can use to find out the influence behaviours a leader under study uses and also the rate he or she uses each influence behaviours. Each influence behaviours is assessed by four items in the questionnaire. Before analysing and Yukl's work on influence behaviours let us move on to look at an excerpt of the questionnaire he used shown below, to generate the influence behaviours I have just described above so as to get a more holistic picture of their work. Here I have only given the first eight items but the original questionnaire consists of 44 items. Also note that the same questionnaire can easily be changed by rewording some sections of it so that it can be used with subordinates reporting on their leader as a way of increasing the reliability of the results.

Table 2.2 The influence behaviour questionnaire adapted from

<p>Now, think of different ways you try to influence colleagues. Please describe how much you use (or have used) each type of behaviour in an effort to influence colleagues in the past year. For each behaviour item, select one of the following response choices.</p> <p><i>1 I can't remember ever using this tactic with colleagues</i> <i>2 I very seldom use this tactic with colleagues (only once or twice a year)</i> <i>3 I occasionally use this tactic with colleagues (several times a year)</i> <i>4 I use this tactic moderately often with colleagues (every few weeks)</i> <i>5 I use this tactic very often with colleagues (almost every week)</i> <i>If an item does not apply to you, then use the #1 response.</i></p> <p>As I lead, I...</p> <p>___ 1. Use facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.</p> <p>___ 2. Ask as a friend to do a favour for me.</p> <p>___ 3. Praise a colleague's past performance or achievements when asking him/her to do a task for me.</p> <p>___ 4. Offer to do a specific task or favour for him/her in return for his/her help and support.</p> <p>___ 5. Make an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.</p> <p>___ 6. Say he/she is the most qualified person for a task that I want him/her to do.</p> <p>___ 7. Demand that he/she carries out a request.</p> <p>___ 8. Say that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.</p>

Adapted from Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, (2008)

Research has also focused on the frequency with which specific influence behaviours are employed

with different followers in attempts to obtain desired objectives in the corporate environment. Yukl and Falbe (1990) discovered that inspirational appeal, consultation, ingratiation, exchange, pressure and legitimating tactics were among the most frequently used downward influence behaviours with most managers experiencing successful influence episodes when using them (Lian, 2012; Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011). More studies on the relative effectiveness of different proactive behaviours have been conducted by (Fu & Yukl, 2000; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, Falbe & Youn, 1993; Yukl, Kim & Falbe, 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) using research methodologies such as surveys, critical incidents, experiments, and scenario studies. For example, inspirational appeal and consultation were rated as most effective and pressure, coalition and legitimating behaviours were found to be the least effective in securing task commitment or compliance in corporate organisations. In another study by the same authors in 2002, it was found that upward appeal behaviours and pressure were negatively correlated with perceived managerial effectiveness and their third study found that rational persuasion, consultation, collaboration, and inspirational appeals were the most effective in gaining subordinates' commitment. The four behaviours have subsequently been termed core behaviours (Yukl, 2010).

It is important to note that all the studies discussed above were done either in lab settings or corporate scenarios in America using quantitative approaches exclusively. This could have been due to the sweeping influence of positivism in the 1980s and early 1990s (McDonald & Wearing, 2013). This became a basis for contesting the validity and reliability of these studies. For example;

A problem with these studies has been their transactional and experimental nature; the studies have generally been conducted in laboratory-type environments using scenarios context and in isolation from other factors such as the leader-subordinate relationship and the organisational context (Sampson, 2012, p. 10).

Sampson's claims becomes more valid if one considers that the studies were about human behaviour which is complex and unpredictable, which cannot be easily quantified using simple experiments in confined labs.

The way I see it in this case is that, it is only by spending time with people, walking in their shoes, interacting face-to-face with them that we can begin to capture their experiences (Dillow, 2009). I see qualitative approaches with a bias towards researching about human behaviour in situ, considering socio-cultural variables as an alternative that can yield better results. My choice of ethnographic design for this study may be the most suitable approach to studying this elusive and subjective aspect of human behaviour and it stands better chances of yielding more relevant and

valuable findings (see chapter 4, section 4.7.1, p. 67 about the ethnographic design).

2.6 FURTHER STUDIES ON LEADER INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS

Since the 1980 and 1990s study by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990) and his colleagues' work on leader influence behaviours has been work in progress with researchers mostly trying to apply knowledge obtained from Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al.'s (1990) studies to different situations. As such numerous studies have been done which have become the building blocks of the bulk of literature on this subject today. I start by reviewing a study done by Faeth in 2004 below.

2.6.1 Frequency of use of leader influence behaviours

Faeth (2004) used Yukl's (1992) influence behaviours among ordained and lay leaders in the Episcopal Church. The purpose of her study was to examine the differences in the use of influence behaviours used by lay and ordained leaders in the Episcopal Church. She examined the differences between these two groups of leaders in terms of their reported use of 11 behavioural influence behaviours identified by Yukl's (1992) self-reporting leader version of the Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ). Unlike Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990; 1992; 1996) whose work was mostly restricted to lab settings (Sampson, 2012), Faeth's study was one of the first studies to focus the study of influence behaviours within an organization focussing on a large population of 75 ordained and 77 lay leaders of the Episcopal Church. Faeth found out that collaboration, consultation, and rational persuasion were used most frequently. Although Yukl and his research colleagues studied leader influence behaviours for more than a decade, results of their studies discussed above were far from being conclusive as demonstrated by among others Faeth 's (2004) study reviewed here. It could not be established which leader influence behaviours were used most often by leaders since different studies and different researchers always produced different results (Sampson, 2012). This might be one of the reasons why more and more researchers have been attracted to also research on various aspects of organisational life in the context of leader influence behaviours.

Whilst studies I have mentioned above tried to identify new leader influence behaviours or test their effectiveness at influencing followers, the studies I now discuss below can be seen as application studies. They try to examine how leader influence behaviours identified by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990; 1992) above apply to different

situations in the context of other organisational situations in practice. I have selected a few of these studies which I see as having direct relevance to my study, for review. They are predominantly from the West because that is where most studies on leader influence behaviours have been done so far (Sampson, 2012). I discuss these studies starting with a study done by Roger et al. (2011) in America.

2.6.2 Leader influence behaviours and trust

After realising that little research had examined how well theories about trust, or results about trust found in laboratory settings, apply in organisational settings, Roger et al. (2011) set up a study to develop and test hypotheses about how a leader's direct use of power and influence behaviours affect trust. His aim was to explore the potential value of such findings to the practice of management. The conceptual model that guided this research was Trust theory, Social power theory and Social learning theory. The study was carried out at a plastic manufacturing company in America using quantitative approaches. The researchers used questionnaires with company workers. Findings of the study were that, changes of trust were substantially related to increase in specific types of power use and influence attempts. The results of this study suggest that the judicious use of referent power, expert and reward power led to more trust while use of legitimate and coercive power diminished trust between leaders and followers. Further, the use of influence behaviours that allow the trustor to maintain self-worth and work supportive behaviours were found to increase trust in the supervisors. Roger et al. (2011) suggested that future research should examine how power and influence behaviours affect trust in other contexts, both in hierarchical relationships as studied here and in other relationships such as between peers, individuals within a network, or buyers and suppliers. I agree with this suggestion and my study partially addresses this concern by trying to study leader influence behaviours in different contexts and in relatively horizontal relationships other than the usual hierarchical relationships. I also found Roger's study quite relevant to my own study in that it seeks to understand more about trust, a critical aspect in leadership and leader influence behaviours. I found a culture of trust being a key component of leader influence behaviours in this ethnographic study and insights from Roger et al. (2011) helped me understand how influence occurred and why teachers responded to leader influence behaviours in certain ways.

In another study, Freire and Fernandes (2015) analysed the way in which access to empowerment structures (information, support, resources, opportunities and the access to power), by Portuguese teachers could influence their trust in leadership, personalized by the school heads. In other words,

their study sought to analyse whether influencing teachers by empowering them and giving them access to empowerment structures created the desire in teachers to repay this by placing trust in the school head. The study used a theoretical framework based on the model of structural empowerment presented by Kanter (1993), from the distributed leadership perspective (Harris, 2004; Harris, & Spillane, 2008; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004) and on the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). A questionnaire was presented to 112 teachers and the data was analysed using various statistical techniques. Findings of Freire and Fernandes (2015) confirmed that the empowerment of teachers has a positive effect on their trust of the school head. The study revealed that teachers who realize they have access to the factors of empowerment, and who feel that they exercise influence within the school where they work were more likely to trust their school head. Freire and Fernandes' (2015) study gave me very important insights about trust and enabled me to pick and analyse empowerment leader influence behaviours discussed in detail in chapter 6, section 6.2 p. 120.

2.6.3 Downward influence behaviours and employee organisational citizenship behaviour

The effects of leadership styles on employee organisational citizenship behaviour as mediated by downward influence behaviours were examined by Lian (2012). Organisational citizenship behaviour can be defined as extra-role behaviours that exceed the requirements of in-role expectations. The behaviours are largely discretionary and seldom include formal job descriptions. Examples of employees' OCB include accepting extra duties and responsibilities at work; working overtime when needed and helping subordinates with their work (Lian, 2012). The study was carried out in Malaysia using the Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory (TLBI), Yukl's (1992) Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ) and Leader Reward and Punishment Behaviour Questionnaire (LRPBQ) with managers and professionals in various industries who were randomly sampled (Lian, 2012). The study was based on transactional and transformational leadership theories. Various forms of statistical correlations were used to analyse data. Findings of the study were that leadership style predicted influence behaviours used and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). Transformational leadership was associated with soft tactics and enhanced OCB and transactional leadership with harsh tactics and poor OCB. In future they suggested that further research need to ascertain the effects of various behavioural combinations and to determine how their effects vary across contexts and tasks. The results of this study agree with those of a similar study done by Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) in Oman, an Arab Muslim country who found out that positive downward influence behaviours were positively related to positive exchange relationship and OCB and harsh behaviours had the reverse effect after carrying out studies in a

hospital and some local private companies. In this study, teachers demonstrated a lot of organisational citizenship behaviours when as responses to school heads' use of various leader influence behaviours. Without the rich literature and insights from these two studies it would have been difficult for me to interpret these responses from teachers.

2.6.4 Influence actions and culture

Pisapia and Pang (2013) carried out a study to determine if Chinese school principals used influence actions differently from American principals based on their cultural differences. The study was carried out in Hong-Kong, China and America public schools in Miami using a quantitative non-experimental design. Only principals of the selected schools responded to a questionnaire called the Strategic Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ). Hofstede's Culture-power distance theory informed the study. Descriptive statistics and multiple univariate analyses of variance were used to evaluate the relationships among societal and organisational culture and leader influence actions. Pisapia and Pang found that Chinese and American principals used influence actions differently. The data suggest that (1) managing and transforming actions are universal, (2) relationship influence actions are culturally sensitive and (3) societal values are less important than local values in determining which influence actions principals employ. Overall, societal and local culture influenced the way school principals used influence behaviours. The researchers suggested that societal and local cultures are only two of the multiple determinants of the use of influence behaviours; other determinants that influence the use of influence behaviours needed to be investigated in future. In my study I try to fill this gap by answering a question; why do teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do? By this question, I hope to discover other determinants that influence the use of influence behaviours other than societal and cultural ones. Apart from the fact that my study is ethnographic, which mainly concerns itself with investigating and describing a social group's culture. As a result how culture mediates influence processes was indispensable in my study's data analysis (Refer to chapter 5 section 5.2.1, p. 94 & section 5.3.2, p. 108).

2.6.5 Teacher leadership behaviours and proactive influence behaviours

Von Dohlen (2012) examined teacher leadership behaviours and proactive influence behaviours used among interactions of teachers. The conceptual framework for this study used a blend of Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond's theory of distributed leadership and Yukl's (1992) identified 11 proactive influence behaviours. This study used a correlational, cross-sectional research design.

The sample consisted of classroom teachers in seven school districts across North Carolina. The Teacher Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire was used to explore specific teacher leadership behaviours and the target and agent versions of Yukl's (1992) Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ) were used to measure behavioural influence behaviours used among teachers. The study revealed that there was little support for distributed leadership from principals and that persuasion, ingratiation, inspirational appeals, self-promotion and collaboration behaviours were most used amongst teachers when they try to influence each other. Pressure tactics were least used. They suggested that future research should consider among others the following question: What proactive influence behaviours do principals use on teachers? The researchers identified a dearth in research about the use of influence behaviours by principals. My study endeavours to contribute and grow the body of literature and research about leader influence behaviours that can be made available to leaders in education, particularly school heads. It in part addresses Von Dohlen's (2012) suggestion for other researchers to investigate leader influence behaviours used by school heads to influence teacher behaviours. However, I did not benefit from the study and indeed from all the other related studies I have discussed up to this point in terms of methods and methodology. All the studies used quantitative approaches and statistical techniques to analyse data. My approach in this study is to use qualitative approaches. The study that I discuss next slightly differs from the studies discussed above in that it did not want to test the application of Yukl's ideas about influence behaviours. The study explored new leader influence behaviours.

2.7 NEW SET OF INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS BY SAMPSON (2012)

Sampson (2012) set out to research on influence behaviours regardless of the extensive work that had been done by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990) because of the following reasons that I have also found to be relevant to circumstances surrounding my decision to embark on research on influence behaviours:

1. Generally, the study of influence behaviours had focused on the immediate outcomes of influence behaviours without looking at broader questions of how a leader's use of influence behaviours affects his or her effectiveness.
2. The primary work to identify influence behaviours was last done in the 1980s and 1990s and has remained static ever since. However, new leadership theories and styles like transformational leadership, authentic leadership and servant leadership emerged afterwards suggesting there could also be new ways leaders are influencing follower which could not have been described by the previous group of researchers.

3. Existing research (Furst & Cable, 2008; Sparrowe, Soetjpto, & Kraimer, 2006) into leader-follower quality and influence behaviours suggest that there is much more at play than just choosing and deploying the right influence behaviours. The leaders and followers' day to day interactions and communication are fundamentals for leader effectiveness that need further study.

4. The question of saying which influence behaviours contribute to leader effectiveness has not been adequately researched upon (Sampson, 2012).

The aim of Sampson's study was to identify new forms of influence behaviours and if warranted, develop an extended typology of influence behaviours with the aim of offering practical fine-grained information about effective leader processes. Sampson carried out his study in a large health organisation in Australia and the study involved clinical leaders who were sampled using theoretical sampling. In this study, Sampson managed to identify seven new influence behaviours used by the clinical leaders. These new influence behaviours are described in the table below.

Table 2.3 Sampson's new influence behaviours

INFLUENCE TACTIC	DEFINITION	EXAMPLE
Challenging assumptions or broadening perspectives	The leader gives a statement or question meant to challenge a target's underlying assumptions or broaden their perspectives about a situation.	Leader asks questions, give suggestions and offer provocations that make target see additional points of view.
Listening openly	Leader listens openly eliciting and acknowledging views, concerns and objections without judging or criticising.	Encouraging a target to say out frustrations and concerns with the leader.
Sharing/delegating responsibility	Handing over responsibility for decision making to the target or a group.	Allowing targets to sort it out for themselves.
Constructive feedback with support	Giving clear feedback with clear positive intent.	Leader consciously having discussions with staff to clarify behaviour expectations.

Modelling though behaviour	Being a role model and teaching or leading by example.	Demonstration of said tasks purposefully for targets who will do the same task to see how best it should be done.
Inspirational vision	Describing an attractive future state and demonstrating personal conviction and motivation towards the vision.	Always having a “positive can do” attitude; focusing on positives which most people were not seeing.
Advocating or facilitating for	Motivating by providing active and transparent support on an issue.	Giving extra-role support. Leader surprising followers by getting out of their way for them.

The conceptual model which guided this research was grounded theory. The study was carried out using qualitative approaches in which interviews and qualitative surveys were used. The newly identified influence behaviours cannot be categorically established and require additional research to confirm constructs (Sampson, 2012). Sampson’s comment is quite valid because when going through the list of his new influence behaviours one can say some influence behaviours resemble those already described by Yukl (2010), for example Inspirational appeal (Yukl, 2010) and Inspirational vision (Sampson, 2012) and also Collaboration (Yukl, 2010) and Facilitating (Sampson, 2012). The descriptions of each influence tactic are not yet so clear that they can easily be confused. This can be an indication that Sampson’s work needs further refinement.

However, Sampson (2012) also came up with some surprising results. Of the eleven influence behaviours by Yukl (2010) which have been a house-hold name in the corporate sector for nearly fifteen years, Sampson discovered that contemporary and effective leaders were not using most of them, except rational persuasion and consultation. Whilst Sampson is not clear as to why, a possible reason I infer from reading his whole research article is that things have since changed. Perceptions about leadership and leadership approaches have changed particularly with the coming in of new leadership theories offering different perspectives about how best to influence others in work environments. In addition, this surprise outcome of Sampson’s study could be because of differences in methods that were used to gather and interpret the results. It could also be because of poor validity due to the instruments that were used to collect the data; Yukl’s (1990) instruments were rigorously tested and used with satisfactory results in many other related studies but the same

cannot be said about Sampson's research instruments. Results that are more dependable could be obtained by replicating Sampson's study in similar situations probably.

On the other hand, it cannot be ruled out that Sampson's results are a reflection of new developments in the study of leader influence behaviours. In this case, this strengthens the argument that there is still need to research on influence behaviours used by effective leaders particularly in the education sector where such research has been scanty in developed countries and almost unheard of in developing African countries like Zimbabwe. My study tries to build on the landmark studies by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1990), the related studies above and the latest study by Sampson (2012). As I embark on this journey, my mind is open to the possibility of identifying yet new sets of leader influence behaviours that my predecessors did not identify. The named group of researchers looked at influence behaviours in organisations where power and influence were exercised in a top to down hierarchical structure. They also viewed the power of the leader as something followers have to accustom themselves to; leaders influence and followers are influenced. This study aims to stir the debate in a different direction and widen our understanding of leader influence behaviours by gazing at leadership processes using lenses from collegial management, distributed leadership and Foucault's ideas on power. Collegial and distributed lenses picture a scenario where power and influence in leadership are widely shared in the organisation such that the school head and teachers work in collaboration to produce leadership outcomes. Foucault's notions of 'technologies of the self' point out that human beings and followers in an organisation are not meant to be lead only. They are to some extent able to transform themselves within the existing field of power relations (Anita, 2011). Foucault also emphasized that individuals are able to shape themselves with the help of various practices of self-government, and these practices help individuals to resist the existing forms of domination and discipline (Anita, 2011; Armstrong, 2008; Gaventa & Petit, 2011). As such, my point of departure in the discussion is that followers may not only be influenced but they may also actively resist influence attempts in their day-to-day interactions with their superiors in the same way that they also influence their superiors. What will be of special interest in this study is how this resistance (in the context of leader influence behaviours) is shaped and how it also shapes itself in practice.

Almost all the studies I came across in my literature review and other readings were done in the corporate sector and out of Africa and mostly in America. Challenges associated with this are well explained in the quote below:

Managing labour forces in complex contemporary organizations poses a challenge to

developing nations dependent on managerial guidance based on research originating in mainly first world Western nations, especially the United States. Although leadership research, in general, is copious, it is sparse in third world nations (Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011).

Following Moideenkutty & Schmidt's (2011) reasoning above, it may be said then that results of these studies whilst they are quite relevant in the private sector and the western world, and some of them were used in education, may not be equally applicable in complex educational settings particularly in Africa and the Zimbabwean context. Pisapia and Pang (2013) also strengthen my argument through findings of their study which stated that societal and local culture influenced the way school principals used influence behaviours. Following that reasoning studies done in the West if they were to be replicated in Africa, were not going to produce same results as a consequence of the differences in cultural contexts. Also, unlike the current trend where quantitative approaches are used to study the use of influence behaviours as reflected in the literature, this study uses qualitative approaches with a view of capturing insights that may have been missed by quantitative approaches. Therefore, this study will be one of the few studies to try to cover this contextual and methodological gap. Also, this study partly extends research frontiers in the use of influence behaviours by trying to establish the extent to which influence behaviours are used by school principals as suggested by Von Dohlen (2012) above after noting a lack of research in this area.

The dominance of structuralism ideas about power and leadership in the past as revealed by the literature reviewed above has seen most school heads working in environments which placed great emphasis upon their accountability within a hierarchical chain of command (Fertig, 2012). Realising complexities and challenges of school leadership, most states like Zimbabwe have made great strides shifting away from strict bureaucracies to policies designed to decentralise decision making in education, empowering teachers, raising learning and accountability standards, and developing more productive relationships between schools and their communities (Hallinger, 2011). As such, this study is influenced by post-structuralism ideas which see power and influence as diffused in organisations. The study examines leadership in shared and collaborative school environments in the context of Zimbabwean local cultures; following on the argument that leadership and management are socially constructed processes embedded in the norms, values and cultures of particular societies (Hallinger, 2011; Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012; Lathero & Risku, 2012). My quest to study leader influence behaviours as they are used in other types of relationships other than strictly hierarchical ones is also supported and inspired by Roger et al. (2011) in their

suggestions for future research in their study discussed above (Refer to page 34 above). He suggests that leader influence should be studied in other relationships where structures are flat like in schools practising collegial management and distributed leadership or other relationships such as between peers, individuals within a network, or buyers and suppliers.

From the review of literature I only managed to find one study dedicated to finding how teacher leaders used influence behaviours (Von Dohlen, 2012) and did not find one about how school heads used the same leader influence behaviours suggesting that more work needs to be done in this area. This is particularly so if one compares this with the volume of research that has been done so far on leader influence behaviours in the corporate sector. What is even more exciting is the fact that the context in which educational leadership occurs at present differs significantly from the context it occurred during Yukl and others' time particularly due to the democratisation and adoption of participatory leadership styles in education. My supposition is that Influence behaviours school heads use do shape the behaviour of teachers and they are in turn shaped by the influence teachers also wield in the relationship. (McCauley-Smith & Williams, 2015). During Kipnis and Yukl's time, researchers treated influence attempts as isolated episodes, rather than as reciprocal processes that occur in a continuing relationship between the leader and follower (Yukl, 2010). Leader influence behaviours were viewed as what leaders do to follower to achieve certain tactical goals with no due regard to reciprocity, the practice context and continuing leader- follower relationships (Lee & Salleh, 2008; Lian, 2012; Moideenkutty, 2011; Pisapia & Pang, 2009; Yukl, 2010). Definitions of leadership in the literature are still tilted towards this end. My point of departure in what entails leadership from insights I got from the literature include interaction, influence and reciprocity of actions of both the leader and the follower in flatter structures. Apart from the change in emphasis about the way leaders think about leadership and lead schools this different way of thinking about leadership and influence may see a new school arrangement and product of schooling emerging such that;

The school shall prepare the students for participation, sharing of responsibilities, rights and duties in a society with freedom and democracy. The education in the school as well as the daily life of the school therefore must build on intellectual liberty, equality and democracy (Mahoney & Moos, 2010, p. 307).

This study is moving away from the hero worship of charismatic and transformational leadership where everything about the school revolved around the leader alone (Mahoney & Moos, 2010;

McCauley-Smith & Williams, 2015). The influence behaviours school leaders are using and the extent to which they are using them in this new environment where power is shared is interesting to explore and drives this study in a new direction. My study focuses on leader influence dynamics in contexts of shared decision making and intricacies of multiple day to day interaction between followers and leaders in the context of local cultures.

2.8 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to review literature on leader influence behaviours. I started by tracking the possible origins of the phrase leader ‘influence tactics’ as a way of explaining why I dropped it in favour of leader ‘influence behaviours’ instead. I then discussed leader influence behaviours looking at the work of Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992). I also discussed studies related to the work done by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992). I followed this by looking at the work of Sampson (2012) who worked on identifying new influence behaviours more than a decade after the work of Yukl et al. (1992). I also pointed out the gaps this study is trying to fill. One thing to learn from this chapter is that though well researched in the corporate sector, research on leader influence behaviours is still work in progress particularly in the education sector where little research has been done, if any. In the following chapter I will discuss the theoretical framework underpinning this study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I discuss the theoretical framework underpinning this study. I draw from the practice of distributed leadership, the collegial model of organisational management and Foucault's notions of power as my theoretical lens. I discuss the application of the theoretical lens' to educational leadership and management and leader influence behaviours and limitations thereof. I also discuss how the theoretical framework I chose helped me to illuminate my understanding of issues surrounding leader influence behaviours in primary school settings.

3.2 CHOOSING DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP

In my first proposal draft, I had decided to study leadership practice using the lenses provided by contingent theories of leadership. I thought they would offer wide applicability due to the claim of adaptability of leader influence behaviours to different leadership situations. As I engaged in critical discussions about my theoretical framework with others, I came to the realisation that like transformational leadership, contingent theories strongly emphasised exceptional leadership abilities of the leader. They see the success of the school organisation as hinged more on the leader than on other members of the school organisation (Burns, 2010; Deventer & Kruger, 2009). I dropped contingent theories and continued my search for a theory that would acknowledge the active role followers play in school leadership. I also wanted a theory that would also speak to Foucault's views and the collegial model I had already chosen as lenses for my study. After reading Gronn (2008), Leithwood et al. (2007) and Spillane et al. (2011), I realised that ideas about distributed leadership, apart from complementing those of the collegial model of educational management propounded by Bush (2011) and Foucault's (1975) notions of power, also brought in a critical aspect of organisational culture which most studies on leadership have largely ignored. I then adopted distributed leadership as part of my theoretical framework. I discuss it in detail below.

3.2.1 What is distributed leadership?

The term distributed leadership is not new in leadership literature. Benne and Sheats first mentioned it in 1948, when they commented on the diffusion of leadership functions and by Gibb in 1954 in

the Handbook of Social Psychology (Gronn 2008; Leithwood et al., 2007). In the last few years, distributed leadership has gained prominence in leadership circles partly due to the falling out of favour of traditional leadership models which equate school leadership with the charismatic and heroic school head (Gronn, 2008). Times have proven that heroic, charismatic and solo leadership models are no match to the complex and expertise driven leadership terrain in education (Gronn 2008; Leithwood et al., 2007). In addition to that Gronn (2008) argues that, versus the background of knowledge-based society, a successful school is no longer an alone kingdom ruled by a single heroic principal. Distributed leadership draws from theoretical and empirical work of Distributed cognition theory and Activity theory (Hatcher, 2010). Distributed cognition theory states that, the knowledge required to solve complex problems is dispersed throughout organisations. In the school context, it is argued that the work process has become much more complex and intensive, and heads are dependent on their teacher colleagues' expert knowledge in various areas to implement mandated reforms. On the other hand, Activity theory says the division of labour in an organisation means that the actions of each individual only make sense in the context of the collective activity of the interdependent participants (Hatcher, 2010). Therefore, collaboration and teamwork are seen as enhancers of successful leadership. Nevertheless, what really is distributed leadership?

Distributed leadership is defined as, 'the expansion of leadership roles in schools, beyond those in formal leadership or administrative posts (Harris, 2010). Distributed leadership can also be seen as a social distribution where a leader's power of decision-making is dispersed to all members of the school who are then viewed as a collaboration of leaders (Hasanvand et al., 2013; McCauley-Smith & Williams, 2015). Definitions of distributed leadership are many but they mostly revolve around the following key terms: participatory decision-making, empowerment, teamwork, interaction, collaboration, democratic environment, flat structures and shared responsibility. These key terms will feature and are described throughout my discussion of distributed leadership below.

3.2.2 Characteristics of distributed leadership

Distributed leadership is not a type of leadership or a style of leadership. It is not something you put on top of a school and say; now you are doing distributed leadership (Diamond, 2009). Distributed leadership can be seen as an attitude or an integrative way of thinking about leadership that is hinged on practice (the daily performance of leadership routines, functions, and structures). "A distributed perspective frames practice in a particular way, not simply as individual actions but rather as a product of the interactions among school leaders, followers and aspects of their situation" (Spillane et al., 2011, p. 161). School heads act in situations that are defined by the

actions of teachers, parents, education officers and other stakeholders and the outcome of interactions that take place during these contacts are what constitute leadership. Therefore from a distributed perspective, leadership practice is constructed as school heads and teachers play off one another in these situations through social interactions, creating a reciprocal interdependency between their actions and those of teachers and all others involved. This conception of leadership links well with Foucault's conception of power relations when he says the exercise of power is not simply a relationship between partners, individual or collective but is a way in which certain actions modify others (Foucault, 2000). This may also suggest that the centre of power and influence in a school may not be static. Exercising leadership influence this way sees the school head selling ideas to followers, allowing debate to contest diverging views and finally taking on board the best ideas. There is no imposing of ideas but openness, shared commitment and transparency. It also implies creating opportunities for others to exercise leadership where it is appropriate. However, my observation is that successful heads are those who balance this with the bureaucratic accountability systems of government.

In discussing distributed leadership, Spillane (2011) emphasises the role of local cultures in shaping leadership practice. Culture is best understood as, "the totality of socially transmitted behaviour patterns, arts, beliefs, institutions and all other products of human work and thought" (Bhengu, 2012, p. 13). Definitions of culture are varied but most of them revolve around a community of people sharing common value systems, symbols, artefacts and shared meanings (Barr, 2011; Engels et al., 2008; Jogulu & Ferkins, 2012; Lathero & Risku, 2012). School culture affects the way school heads consciously or sub-consciously think about leadership. The African way of life and indeed the Zimbabwean people's way of life, is hinged on the concept of sociality from which concepts like African personality, African identity, African solidarity and virtues like patience, optimism, mutual sympathy, empathy and communal participation can be derived from (Bhengu, 2012). As a way of driving towards understanding aspects of the situation and culture from an African perspective in the context of *Ubuntu*, below is a description of the way of life of the Chinyika people of Zimbabwe from which some insights about school leadership and practice can be deduced.

We love each other, not because we are pretty or handsome but because we are human. We share ideas. We share food. We share all what we have openly. We share grazing; we drink from the same borehole. We share happiness and celebrate our success together. We belong to each other. We live for each other. We learn together and we develop together (Bhengu, 2012, p. 191).

Bhengu's words can mean that African leadership is not individualistic like in most Western cultures. It is collective and for the people; no one is left out in celebrating its success. The group is more important than the individual is. Therefore, the school head cannot say 'my school'. People build the school for each other, they lead it together and power is shared, it belongs to the teachers, it belongs to parents, the children and the nation at large.

As such, distributed leadership in the context of this study should be understood in the context of African national and local school cultures. Contextual and cultural variables for each school differ and this has an effect on how distributed leadership may be practised in these schools. This is also echoed by Woods in Crawford (2012, p. 613) who says, "Distribution is framed within a culture of ideas and values which attaches to different people different measures of value and recognition, and indicates where the limits are to what is open to discussion and change". In short, our cultural ideas have a lot to do with what we understand as leadership and what can be shared in the leadership process. As such, understanding a culture of a people is the starting point for understanding leadership and influence in organisations like schools. In this ethnographic study, particular attention will be paid to observing the enabling and limiting aspects of each school's culture to effective leadership practice with a view of trying to understand how this impacts on leader influence behaviours.

Distributed leadership is not the same as dividing task responsibilities among individuals who perform defined and separate organizational roles; it involves sharing power, flattening structures and giving individuals greater responsibility and accountability for their work in an atmosphere of mutual trust (Corrigan, 2013; Diamond, 2009, Spillane et al., 2011). In addition to that, school heads should create an atmosphere of shared purpose, teamwork, and respect. This is seen when the formulation of the school vision, mission and many strategic planning activities is done through active participation of all; teams being formed to implement the outcomes of the various planning activities and members with different opinions being free to air them in meetings and other gatherings. In such an open culture, making a mistake is not a crime but just a learning curve. School heads cultivate mutual trust by assigning leadership tasks to members who are then, 'left to get on with it' (Bush & Glover, 2012). Whilst strict supervision can be dropped, observation and surveillance mechanisms remain in place for accountability purposes. This is because despite whatever they can do at local level to provide leadership, school heads are still accountable to the ministry of primary and secondary education and should still abide by certain policy guidelines.

Decisions about who leads and who follows are dictated by the task or problem situation, in relation to the expertise of those who are eventually chosen for leadership and not necessarily by where they sit in the school's hierarchy. In such schools it is normal to see junior teachers leading the various committees or teams in the school; senior members being just followers. "The core assumption is that each member has some leadership abilities that will be needed by the group at some time" (Harris, 2008, p. 174). This flows from ideas of distributed cognition theory alluded to before at the beginning of this discussion (Refer to section 3.2.1, p. 41) which propounds that the knowledge required to solve complex problems is dispersed throughout organisations. In Zimbabwe, teachers specialise in certain subject areas making them specialists in these areas. School heads practising distributed leadership pick such teachers to lead in areas where they have specialised training in, and this can enhance leadership in these areas. This results in a situation where a leader's power of decision-making is dispersed to all members of the school who are then viewed as a collaboration of leaders (Dlungwane, 2012; Pillay, 2014).

Whilst not all can lead at the same time, those chosen for leadership involve followers in the leadership process by widely consulting. For example, the school head would not make a policy decision without consulting the deputy head and other arms of his or her management team. The atmosphere in the school is more about cooperation than competition and teachers and staff share the same mission and understand that they contribute to it in different ways, hence the prominence of teams and an emphasis on subject area specialisation in primary schools, something that used to be a feature of the secondary school. Therefore, members participate and influence leadership outcomes either through direct participation as leaders or through sharing their ideas and wisdom with those in leadership positions. To add to this, from a Foucauldian point of view, ideas and influence should come from everywhere and the accrued wisdom can help strengthen leadership and management in schools (Foucault, 1988). Distributed leadership is hinged on some key assumptions. The following key assumptions I have chosen about distributed leadership coloured my gaze as I engaged in fieldwork.

3.2.3 Basic assumptions about distributed leadership

With the increasing complexities in education, no single individual possesses all of the knowledge or skills to lead a school without distributing leadership responsibilities (Hulpia & Devos, 2010). "The core assumption is that each member has some leadership abilities that will be needed by the group at some time" (Harris, 2008, p. 174). So school heads following the distributed leadership style see each individual teacher as a potential leader with a talent they must help grow. As a result,

all teachers are afforded the opportunity to take up leadership roles in the school. Most primary schools in Zimbabwe achieve this by choosing new team leaders for all the organs of the school's leadership and management teams at the beginning of each year. All stand a chance of being chosen into these leadership teams since members are chosen through voting by all members in attendance. Since everyone is considered as having leadership abilities, all those who want to study leadership and management can do so without vetting or first getting recommendations from their superiors, something that used to happen in the past. However, the possibilities of recruiting people agitated by other motives and are not suitable for leadership should not be underestimated.

Apart from the fact that each member has some leadership abilities, distributed leadership is based on the assumption that everyone in an organization has at least some influence (Hasanvand et al., 2013). This is in line with Foucault's (1988) assertion discussed earlier on that power is everywhere and it also comes from everywhere and also Bush (2011, p. 6) who says, "There are multiple sources of influence in schools. The central concept is that of influence; a form of power which can be exercised by anyone in the organisation and is not confined to those holding formal leadership positions". Based on this assumption, I see primary school heads as leaders who listen to and respect the opinions of students, parents, fellow heads, education officers and other stakeholders. They do so not because they are part of the school system, but because they believe that members of an organisation have value and that their participation and voice is a plus for the school organisation. This further drives us away from seeing the outcome of leadership processes as heroic achievements of the school head to seeing them as concerted and collaborative efforts of everyone involved.

Another assumption of distributed leadership follows the old adage "two heads are better than one," (Hasanvand, 2013). This assumption is what has made group work, team work, cooperatives and collaborations more attractive than solo activities in schools. In Zimbabwe, Bush's (2011) collegial approaches dominate leadership and management activities in primary schools. In most primary schools, there are many committees where teachers with similar expertise work together sharing ideas and the committees usually report to the deputy head who in turn reports to the school head. The point of emphasis for this study is that school heads who learn from the wisdom of the group make better leadership decisions that are not likely to be contested than those who use solo approaches

3.2.4 Distributed leadership: role of the school head

When everyone becomes a leader, one wonders if there will be anything left for school heads to show as leaders of their schools. Will it be necessary to have the post of school head after all? Whilst much of the literature assumes a ‘harmony’ model, where team members work collaboratively to achieve clearly articulated objectives, the reality is that teams may also experience disagreement, leading to conflict (Bush & Glover, 2012). The role of the school head is to foster unity and shared commitment among team members. This can be done by holding regular meetings with team leaders and using relevant influence behaviours to focus members’ attention to important strategic issues the teams must accomplish. This makes it important for leaders to know which leader influences to use and how teachers can respond to them; the point of emphasis of this study. It is also during the regular briefings that the school head should constantly clarify roles and responsibilities of all members to avoid possible conflict due to role ambiguities. His or her other important role is to set team boundaries and carefully managing them to avoid unnecessary confusion and role conflict (Crawford, 2012).

Effective school heads play an active role in the organizational and instructional processes of schools by taking the lead in changing the positional power of the school head and distributing power among the administrative team and teacher leaders (Hasanvand et al., 2013). Without the active role of the school head, distributed leadership can never be achieved. I see the influence of school heads increasing when they share power because leadership teams empowered by the school heads act as ‘foot soldiers’ helping the school heads to spread, articulate and implement policy (Anderson, 2010). This point of view is given credence by the assertion that, if one is successful in giving his or her people power, they will surely lift him or her on their shoulders to heights of power and success he or she would never have dreamed possible in life (Lunenburg, 2012).

The school heads must also be facilitators and creators of a united team (Bush & Glover, 2012). They can do this by leading in creating space for others to lead and emphasising cohesion of the team and not individual interests. Folktales, ritual and heroes that succeeded through teamwork can be foregrounded in shaping the culture of leadership in the schools.

3.2.5 Advantages of distributed leadership

Increased participation in decision making from more members will generally lead to greater commitment to organizational goals and strategies (Leithwood et al., 2007). This argument is based

on the belief that hierarchical and status-based leadership models are less effective in securing outcomes than consensus-based models. With consensus-based models, the contribution of the individual member is less constrained. Also, members measure their contribution in terms of the climate of participation, the level of influence they can have on decisions and the processes of involvement (Bush & Glover, 2012; Corrigan, 2013; Gronn, 2010). Increased participation also becomes a basis for members to claim ownership to leadership decisions and actions, a positive development for the leadership process. As a school head, I remember making use of committees and consulting teachers who were likely to be affected by decisions I wanted to take as I led. This produced good results.

By recognising the contributions of all members, distributed leadership increases group members' self-efficacy, which is teachers and staff's belief about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over their work output. (Hasanvand et al., 2013). This can lead to an increase in overall individual determination that improves members' experience of work (Leithwood et al., 2007). Therefore, the assumption is that practising distributed leadership can influence organisational members towards exerting double effort and commitment to the ideals of the school. However, more work needs to be done to establish the extent of the relationship between the use of distributed leadership and work outcomes (Corrigan, 2013). More so, influence processes that can enhance leadership in such contexts are yet to be investigated fully from my review of literature.

It is argued that, "Teachers may understandably believe 'flatter' leadership structures and patterns of interaction will inevitably mean that new professional relationships will emerge based upon collaboration and mutual agency rather than power or 'top-down' coercion" (Harris, 2008, p. 184). It is further argued that the rhetorical appeal of distributed leadership to the teaching profession is not incidental, but a 'packaging' of the underlying power dynamics in a way that appeals to the shared value orientations and aspirations of educators (Corrigan, 2013). Such aspirations are based on a rejection of heroic and hierarchical structures, in favour of liberal and humanistic approaches to leadership based on inclusion, equity and agency; giving teachers their voice at last.

3.2.6 Challenges of distributed leadership

There is the danger that teachers may take advantage of the opportunity offered by distributed leadership to challenge and resist the dominant policy agenda. A problem with this is that it may

militate against broad ministry policy as well as local policy. In addition to that, this may make it difficult to achieve school goals as such a situation results in tensions and conflicts of interest. The strategy most commonly adopted by school heads to minimise the risks of distributed leadership is to avoid starting with a fully-fledged distribution and starting by restricting its operation to a minority of senior staff like the senior management team (Hatcher, 2010). I however argue that this may not be a weakness of the distributed leadership approach *per se* but a challenge caused by how some leaders decide to implement distributed leadership. School heads should not hurry to implement distributed leadership before groundwork for its implementation like developing teamwork; trust, collective commitment and a commitment to share power are addressed first.

Another challenge is that, if school leaders are accountable to external agents for externally mandated targets, distributed leadership may have distinct limits on its uptake in the organization, even if it is rhetorically part of practice (Crawford, 2012). Woods and Gronn (2009) also echo similar sentiments when they say they see the potential for distributed leadership to contribute to the democratic character of schools, but without a resolution of power as it resides within the individual (agency) and the organisation and society (structure), it is difficult to imagine how. Whilst I agree with Woods and Gronn (2009) and Crawford's (2009) position my, position is that school heads can take advantage of the privileges afforded them by government to take charge of school leadership and management at local level. They can do this by sharing power locally and at the same time coexisting with government's formal accountability structures; injecting their own creativity and initiative since this is the essence of leadership. In the field, the distributed leadership framework enlightened me on the use of influence behaviours by school heads in complex and culturally dynamic leadership environments. It is a theoretical framework that closely describes leadership practice as it is currently practised in the post-modern era and it assisted me to come up with new insights about how current successful school leaders are influencing teachers. For example seeing leadership as being distributed among school heads and teachers helped me in analysing school heads' use of influence behaviours like consultation, sharing responsibility and empowerment discussed in detail in chapters 5 and 6, sections 5.2, 5.4 and 6.2 respectively.

3.3 CHOOSING AN ORGANISATIONAL MANAGEMENT MODEL

In chapter 1, I pointed out that leadership and management are inseparable in practice and that good leaders are those who can manage their schools well. As such, I realised that my study will be crippled if I try to understand how school heads use leader influence behaviours without looking

at the management context in which all this plays out. At first, Tony Bush's political model of educational management appealed to me and I adopted it for my study due to its inclination towards power relations and influence in organisations. My thinking was, it was going to complement Foucault's notions of power, but I later on found out that it did not. As pieces came together, I realised that whilst it espoused that power and influence do not reside in one person like the school head but it can also be exercised by individuals and departments who triumph in negotiations. It contradicted with my thinking about members' perceptions of organisational relations that are based on exchange of favours where goals are contested making the school organisation very unstable as I know it (Bush, 2011). Therefore, I came to the conclusion that this model did not describe the reality of management practice on the ground in Zimbabwe where teachers work in teams, subject clusters and committees and generally share a common understanding and vision of their schools as organisations. After carefully studying all of bush' management models, I eventually saw a perfect match between what obtains in Zimbabwean schools and the collegial model of organisational management. I will discuss the collegial model as one of my chosen framework in detail below.

3.3.1 Collegial model of educational management

As stated previously, the way educators think about leadership and management in schools is varied. This is reflected by the diverse theories of educational management that have been proposed to date. Bush (2011) classified theories of educational management for over 20 years and came up with six managerial models which are Formal, Collegial, Political, Subjective, Ambiguity and Cultural models. For this study, the other models are not of concern except the collegial model. "The collegial model became established in the 1980s and 1990s as the most appropriate to manage primary schools" (Bush, 2011, p. 219). The collegial model of educational management can be defined as a model that assumes that:

- i. The organisation determines policy and makes decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus.
- ii. Power is shared among some or all members of the organisation who are thought to have a shared understanding about the aims of the organisation (Bush, 2011, p. 72).

The essence of collegiality is that;

- i. participation in decision making, not consultation or delegation is what is needed,
- ii. Decisions are arrived at through consensus,

- iii. There are common professional values and shared objectives and,
- iv. Therefore it is possible to solve problems by agreement.
- v. Decision-making can be elongated by the search of compromise.
- vi. The ethical dimension of collegiality sees it as wholly appropriate to involve people in the decisions that affect their professional lives (Bush, 2011).

School managers who are inspired by the collegial model make use of departments and various committees (Bush 2008; 2011). In Zimbabwean primary schools; each school has the Early Childhood Development department, the Infant Department and the junior department. In some schools the departments have some latitude to take decisions without first getting permission from the head when it comes to most professional issues affecting the departments. There are also many committees that are responsible for running various administrative tasks in the school, like the sports committee, bereavement committee and many others. Important decisions in these committees are usually taken in meetings after arguments and debates. School head can use their privileged position to influence decisions in these various departments and committees by spelling out guidelines and desired targets, however their successes at influence varies enormously from one school to the other. This precipitates the need to understand influence processes that happen between the school head, teachers and these administrative bodies in their day to day functioning in these schools practising collegiality.

A visitor to a school practising collegiality management will notice it because he or she will see that:

- i. Teachers in the school talk about teaching,
- ii. There is shared planning and preparation,
- iii. Presence of observers in the classrooms is common,
- iv. There will be mutual training and development,
- v. There is willingness to give and receive criticism in order to enhance practice (Bush, 2011).

From my understanding, the picture Bush is painting is of schools where teachers collaborate on many professional issues like staff development sessions, team supervision and meetings where ideas about teaching and learning are freely debated and exchanged. In such schools there will be class and classroom tours where all staff members participate, share notes and ideas about how they can improve their practice. The role of the school head will be to facilitate and nurture this

collaborative culture in the school. The extent to which school heads control collegiality activities in their schools differ from one school to the other. Hargreaves (1994) has spent considerable time studying the phenomenon of collegiality in schools. One of his conclusions was that in practice some school leaders practice what he called contrived collegiality. Contrived collegiality is administratively regulated, compulsory, implementation- oriented, fixed in time and space, and predictable (Datnow, 2011). Contrived collegiality is also called by different names like restricted, authorised, formal distribution, representational and planful alignment by Bush, Gunter, Macbeath, Haris and Leithwood respectively (Bush, 2011; Datnow, 2011; Youngs 2013). This kind of collegiality works well as a preliminary phase in schools that had no collegiality before. There is also 'pure' collegiality where all members have an equal voice (Bush, 2011). This is ideal for schools with a fully-fledged collegial culture. Moving on with the trends of democracy, it will be ideal to have everyone's voice being heard. However, as I see it, the desire to democratise and maintain teachers' participation in decision making is militated against by external demands for accountability. At the end of it all, the school head is held accountable for all that happens in his or her school and as such, I see most school heads in Zimbabwean schools opting for the restricted collegiality that leaves them with more power and influence over how things are done in the school. However, contrived forms of collegiality are criticised for not promoting spontaneous collaborative cultures in schools with most school heads manipulating them for their own good (Datnow, 2011; Kruse & Louis, 2009; Youngs, 2013).

Despite some limitations, the collegial framework was helpful to my understanding of how school heads influence teachers. Unlike other theoretical frameworks like the formal or managerial models, (Bush, 2008) which rely on authority and force, the collegial model espouses participation and influence which makes it the most appropriate tool for studying leader influence behaviours like consultation and sharing responsibility discussed in Chapter 5 sections 5.2 and 5.4 respectively. The model also gives a more accurate description of how most schools are managed in Zimbabwe where participative leadership approaches are being encouraged. This is based on the assumption that collegiality is in line with democratic principles the nation embraced at independence and that participation will increase school effectiveness (Bush, 2008). Democratic principles and values are desirable particularly when considering what teachers have gone through due to the tight bureaucratic controls inherited from the colonial government which the current government is slowly dismantling. At this point, I move on to discuss the third and last part of my theoretical framework. Taking it from the point of view that leadership is the exercise of power (Clocke, 2009; Pierro et al., 2013), I realised that leader influence behaviours could not be understood from the

perspective of leadership and management theories alone. As a result, I saw a theory of power as indispensable. Below I discuss Foucault's (1975) notions of power as my other theoretical lens for this study.

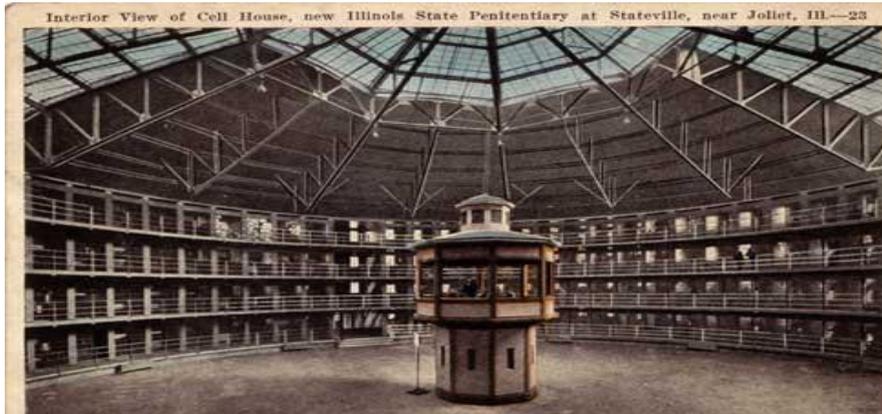
3.4 CHOOSING FOUCAULT

In my quest to find theoretical lenses through which I can use to understand leadership and influence behaviours, I read theories of leadership like the great man theory, contingent theories and behavioural theories. The theories are based on divergent philosophical views about the nature of human beings and how they can be led. However, one thing I found common among them was that they are all in agreement that leadership and influence are about power. This is reemphasised by a definition of leadership as power in action given by Clocke (2009) and Pierro et al., (2013). I then realised that it was critical for me to understand leadership and influence from the perspective of power as well. I then read extensively about power and at one time adopted Steven Lukes' three dimensions of power theory as my theoretical framework. It was not long before I realised that the theoretical framework was not good for my study. It described power and how leaders in the modern era used it to influence subordinates in bureaucratic systems where leaders were a given and their power could not be challenged. I wanted a theory that described power and influence as we see them today in the post-modern era where leadership is dynamic, shared and is more about mutual influence than about authority and structures (Bernal, 2011; Gaventa & Pettit, 2011). When I read and heard Foucault being explained in cohort lectures, I discovered that I had found the theory I had been looking for. I will discuss Foucault's ideas on power in detail below.

3.4.1 Discipline and organisational structure

Foucault explains how man can be subjected to power by authority to create what he called a disciplinary society by means of what he called disciplinary power (Anita, 2010; Bowdridge & Blenkinsop, 2011). The notion of disciplinary power is from Foucault's book; *Discipline and Punish* (1975) in which he used Bentham's Panopticon prison structure to describe how technologies of power work to produce the intended influence behaviours in subordinates. It is necessary therefore to describe Bentham's Panopticon prison structure to facilitate understanding of the concept of Disciplinary power used by Foucault. The Panopticon, shown in image 3.1 is a circular building made up of cage like rooms that are open to the front and have big windows at the back to make the inmates of the rooms visible to prison wardens stationed at the observation tower at the centre of the building.

Figure 3.1 Bentham’s Panopticon



Interior view of Illinois State Panopticon structure (Shone, 2013)

This tower is pierced with wide windows fitted with blinds so that the prison inmates cannot see inside the observation tower and cannot tell whether they are being observed or not, but the wardens have full view of all the inmates due to the effect of backlighting. The prisoners are locked up each one in his or her own cell and cannot see or communicate with each other. So the inmates behave on the assumption of being under constant surveillance and observation from the prison officers stationed at the observation tower at the centre of the Panopticon. The Panopticon is an efficient machine for exercising power since fewer people are needed to take charge of many. Surveillance power can be exercised by almost anyone; even the master’s children or relatives can do it since prisoners will never know who is in the observation tower, that is, if there will be anyone in there after all. The Panopticon can be understood as a generalisable model of functioning; a way of defining power relations in terms of the everyday life of men particularly in organisations (Shone, 2013). This is what Foucault set out to demonstrate as will be discussed below.

3.4.2 DISCIPLINARY POWER

The principal mechanisms that disciplinary power develops and by means of which it operates are surveillance or hierarchical observation, normalising judgement and examination. These concepts are discussed in detail below.

3.4.2.1 The hierarchical observation

Like in the Panopticon shown by image 3.1, hierarchical observation is the ability of those in charge in organisations to observe their entire range of surveillance in a single gaze. Foucault says;

He who is subjected to a field of visibility, and knows it, assumes responsibility for the

constraints of power; he makes them play spontaneously upon himself, he inscribes in himself the power relation In which he simultaneously plays both roles; he becomes the principle of his own subjection. (Foucault, 1975, p. 202).

In a school situation Hierarchical observation refers to the presence of hierarchical figures in this case Teacher In Charges (T.I.Cs), deputy heads at the bottom of the hierarchy, school heads, district education officers, Provincial education directors and the minister at the top of the hierarchy, who explicitly or by implication keep a watchful eye on all school activities. In most primary schools, the school head's office is strategically located so that the leader can best view the whole school's activities from his office. This system automatizes power and ensures that those under observation like teachers, discipline and supervise themselves out of fear of the real or assumed constant gaze of authorities who can pay an unexpected visit any time. Although District education officers live very far from most rural schools, the effect of hierarchical observation makes school heads work as if these officers are sited in their offices. Hidden like the prison officers in the Panopticon, the power of hierarchical observation remotely influences the behaviour of both teachers and school heads.

The Panopticon was also a laboratory; it was used to isolate and study prisoners with the view of finding best ways of disciplining them. Foucault said that;

Discipline proceeds from the distribution of individuals in space . . . Discipline sometimes requires enclosure . . . It does this first in the principle of elementary location or partitioning. Each individual has his own place; and each place its individual (Foucault, 1975, p. 141).

The same can also be said of school heads. Each one has his or her own school and works at his or her station in isolation from his colleagues and superiors just as teachers, each work in the isolation of his or her classroom. The data gathered from observation reports and study of these isolated workers is transmitted up the hierarchy and is used by policy makers to scrutinise and improve practice. Disciplinary mechanisms of hierarchical observations are a starting point for the next stage of disciplinary power which is Normalising judgement.

3.4.2.2 Normalising judgement

Normalising Judgement is the process whereby rules and norms are established and then learned and adopted by individuals, and these norms become the standard against which the individuals are judged and "the non-conforming is punishable" (Foucault, 1975, p. 178). In the panopticon

normalising judgement is achieved through the already mentioned methods of enclosure and surveillance. Whilst individuals are in this isolation, data collected through surveillance is studied and the knowledge used to create norms and rules for enforcing compliance to these norms. As teachers work with their classes in isolation of their classrooms, challenges they encounter are usually brought to the school head's attention through caucus and other meetings. This becomes the birth bed for local policies and norms that the school head, and teachers as leaders in areas they would have been given responsibilities to lead use to control behaviours of other teachers. The invisible hand of power influences school heads as well as teachers in their day-to-day activities through the reports they send to their superiors monthly and sometimes weekly. It is from these reports that norms about effective leadership and school standards are derived. Those who fail to live up to the norms face penalties like poor ratings in performance appraisals and worst cases can be fired on the basis of incompetence whilst those who live up to the norms can get favourable rewards like a promotion or a good rating.

School heads can influence leadership processes in their schools by using the techniques of normalising judgement like setting minimum standards of performance in various subject areas for teachers and foregrounding rituals like prize giving days where teachers and pupils excelling in their work are publicly rewarded. They can use the knowledge they gather about teachers' work through supervision and other reports to perfect management and their leader influence behaviours. Whilst the same can be done for school heads by their superiors the issue of distance comes in where some school heads may resist the pressure of normalising judgement by copying old reports without updating. It is equally difficult for school heads to monitor the effectiveness of certain rules and norms in schools since teachers mostly work in the isolation of their classrooms. Information and data gathered through hierarchical observation and normalising judgement is also crucial for the last stage in the disciplinary power machine called, 'The examination'.

3.4.2.3 The examination

Foucault (1975) noted how power is exercised through the examination, which creates a field of documentation that could be used for comparison and further employed to determine one's rank within a group. "The examination combines the techniques of an observing hierarchy and those of a normalizing judgment" (p. 184). Documentation about teachers work is obtained from teacher supervision critiques and evaluations of various performance targets and key result area forms they complete every year. Teachers' attendance and punctuality in schools is also monitored by the clock in-clock out register. The school head also log acts of indiscipline. At the end of each

term teachers submit mark schedules for their pupils' performance in tests apart from other records like the individual progress record submitted fortnightly to the school head's office for his scrutiny. From this data, teachers can be ranked as either poor or high performing. This knowledge about teachers becomes the basis for planning future surveillance and normalising judgement strategies meant to influence teachers' behaviours. This completes the power/knowledge cycle. District education officers use the same disciplinary procedures against school heads too.

3.4.3 Foucault's assumptions about power

Michel Foucault's ideas on power changed people's understandings of power, leading away from the analysis of actors who use power as an instrument of coercion, and even away from the discreet structures in which those actors operate, towards the idea that power is everywhere (Gaventa & Pettit, 2011). This is what Foucault (1988, p. 93) said to emphasise this point: "power is produced ... in every relation from one point to another, it is everywhere, not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere." In my study, the implication of this for leadership is that power, as the capacity to influence, is not the preserve of the leader alone. This can be demonstrated by the existence of School Development Committees (SDC) and the management team comprising senior teachers who participate in leading and managing school affairs together with the school head. In addition, teachers, parents, education officers and other stakeholders have influence and the outcome of school leadership therefore is not a solo endeavour (Pillay, 2014; Naidoo, 2012).

Foucault also believes that power does not exist as a thing and cannot be possessed by people but only exists when it is put into action and we see its action upon the actions of others. In fact, it is a way in which certain actions modify others (Foucault, 2002). He was making the point that power does not reside in institutions or certain people like school heads. We can only see power by observing its effects in people's relationships since power is relational. When certain actions modify others, we talk of power players as using influence behaviours at their disposal to alter the behaviour of relational others. The ideal will be the use of no crude force but just influence. This way of viewing power moves away from thinking about who holds power in the school to, how existing power relations influence leadership practice in the school. My understanding of this is that whilst school heads influence teachers, they can also be influenced by teachers' actions in many ways. As a result, the outcome of leadership processes will not be a product of the school head alone but a concerted collective effort of all. This is one of the reasons why I chose ethnographic design for this study for this will afford me the privilege of observing the effects of power and

influence processes in the field as school heads and teachers influence each other in their day-to-day work routines and interactions in culturally bound settings (Refer to chapter 4 section 4.7.1, p. p. 68).

Many things come into people's minds when one speaks of power and Foucault thinks that;

When one speaks of "power," people think immediately of a political structure, a government, a dominant social class, the master facing the slave, and so on. That is not at all what I think when I speak of "relationships of power." I mean that in human relations, whatever they are—whether it be a question of communicating verbally, as we are doing right now, or a question of a love relationship, an institutional or economic relationship—power is always present (Foucault, 1988, p. 11).

Foucault was explaining that power pervades all human relationships and we cannot live outside of this relationship. This suggests that any leadership action, relationship or communication should be understood as a power relation (Romer, 2011). Apart from being present in every relationship, Foucault sees power as all-embracing; that is, everybody in a relationship is a source of power and subservience, silence, or subjection do not necessarily signify a lack of power but can in fact signify a different manifestation of power. These assertions make Foucault break with traditional power discussions where leaders were seen as having power and their followers were powerless (Bernal, 2011). Following this reasoning, school leadership as a result should respect the expert power of teachers and see them as important sources of knowledge, experience and wisdom gathered from years of practice.

The idea that power relations are inescapable was understood by Foucault's pessimistic critics as creating a trap for everyone by leaving no room for any agency. He responded to this by saying;

We are not trapped. We cannot jump outside the situation and there is no point where you are free from all power relations. But you can always change it. So what I have said does not mean that we are always trapped but that we are always free— well, anyway there is always a possibility of changing. (Foucault, 1997, p. 167).

Foucault was explaining that power operates only in free subjects who are free to exercise agency and can choose where there are alternatives for example;

A man who is chained up and beaten is subject to force being exerted over him, not power. But if he can be induced to speak, when his ultimate recourse could have been to

hold his tongue, preferring death, then he has been subjected to power (Foucault, 2002, p. 324).

Therefore, power is always a way of acting upon an acting subject or subjects by virtue of their acting or being capable of action (Foucault, 2002). For it to qualify as a power relationship all actors involved should at least have some degree of freedom so that they can decide on their own whether to reject or give in to power. What this can mean is that even those school heads regarded as dictators rarely close all avenues for teacher agency and manifestations of other forms of power and influence. Silence or no action by teachers for example can be seen as a show of power instead of lack of it since this can result in some activities or instructions the school head would have given being left undone eventually resulting in a poor rating for the school head by his superiors. As such when school heads exercise leadership, which is power in action, the assumption is that they do not do so on docile bodies; teachers are active individuals who exercise agency who; given alternatives can make rational choices about themselves, their work and others. This also suggests that power relations are not static; they can always be altered through the use of appropriate influence behaviours and leaders should therefore be people who are dynamic, accommodating and considerate of alternative ideas from others.

Foucault revolutionised thinking about power in organisations by challenging:

The traditional division between a devilish realm of domination in which employees are directed by dark-suited overlords and a world of sweetness and light in which emancipated employees frolic in a corporate playground overflowing with opportunities for naughtiness. In this world of stark contrasts, managers are thought to be morally deranged creatures who seek to exercise their will to control at any opportunity (Fleming & Spicer, 2008, p. 304).

Foucault moved away from the above conception about power and leadership and emphasized that power is not only negative and repressive but can also be positive, productive and enabling. He said, “We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms...., the individual and the knowledge that may be gained of him belong to this production” (Foucault, 1991, p. 194). He derives the meaning of power from the French verb, *pouvoir* (to enable), from which the noun form is derived (Nielson, 2010). He admits that power can be a dirty word, particularly if exercised irresponsibly, and goes on to say that if used responsibly power enables the individual to influence and modify the actions of other individuals in order to realize desired collective organisational goals. This has important implications for our understanding of school

management and leader influence. Solo leadership and dictatorship are not ideal in educational leadership and management. On the other hand, effective and rewarding leadership in schools based on democratic principles can be enabled by the responsible exercise of power in which the leader and the led all have influence over each other and this influence is exercised with the welfare of the organisation and common good in mind.

In his late works, Foucault shifted his focus from the examination of power to that of resistance. Foucault's notion of resistance was first developed in, *'The History of Sexuality Volume 1'*, where he says that, "where there is power, there is resistance" and "consequently this resistance is never in a position of exteriority to power" (Foucault, 1981, p. 95). In other words, power is the force that produces the resistance and resistance to power is shaped and draws its social position from the existing forms of power. Therefore, resistance as a part of power relations is constituted by power and does not necessarily operate against it. A possible implication of this is that successful exercise of power may mean promotion of certain forms of resistance that may not challenge the existing forms of power that created it. Such forms of resistance therefore cannot seriously undermine the power that be. This assumption is no good news for resistance movements and those reeling under the effects of perceived negative power since it offers no hope of ever overturning oppressive power relations. Though Foucault insisted and said that, "What I have said does not mean that we are always trapped but that we are always free – well, anyway there is always a possibility of changing" (Foucault, 1997, p. 167); he did not explain how resistance could overcome the power that created it.

Hope comes from Armstrong's (2008) notion of 'dis-identification,' which is a power to distance ourselves both from what we are and from the mechanisms and norms which form us. Armstrong (2008) says there will always be a relation to oneself that resists codes and powers because, as a self-relation, the subject is able to take itself as an object, to disengage from, and reflect on itself. This way, the individual can see disparities in power relations and use Foucault's technologies of the self (in his talk of 'the self as a work of art') to alter existing power relations (Anita, 2011). This is a shift in Foucault's earlier assertions in his archaeological and genealogical works. He saw the individual he called the 'subject' as constituted by power and had to get accustomed to it, and shifted to a new assertion in his late work in Ethics and aesthetics where he now saw the individual now called the 'self' being self-constituting and being capable of exercising agency (Anita, 2010). Because actors in power relations exercise agency it means power relations are dynamic. For school heads, this means that teachers are self-constituting individuals who can resist and shape power relations in search of self-actualisation. Leadership ceases to be a matter of

authority; it becomes a matter of the use of relevant influence behaviours and responding creatively to the influence coming from others.

Foucault's ideas of freedom and agency of individuals to make choices can be seen to be located within the tradition of libertarianism, postmodernism in which overarching 'grand narratives' seek to explain and give meaning to all aspects of human existence (Fertig, 2012). As such, Foucault's ideas as my lens in this study leave great room for interpretation (Armstrong, 2008; Gaventa & Petit, 2011) and are thus easily applied to various issues in the field of educational leadership. In addition, Foucault may provide the best analytical tools for describing and rethinking educational leadership under the new forms of schooling accountabilities that are currently unfolding in Zimbabwe particularly when looking at educational practice through his concepts of surveillance, normalising judgement and examination discussed above which are widely practised in the country. In this regard one can think of these ideas in terms of the various supervision mechanisms and structures in schools and how data obtained from this process feeds into policy formulation and implementation.

Foucault's concept of disciplinary power can be the best example of how power is exercised in bureaucratic organisations. His ideas on ethics and aesthetics also covering the concept of resistance can be taken to describe how power is exercised in organisations with flat structures where the leader and the lead all influence each other and can resist influence attempts from each other again. This double barreledness of Foucault's views on power and influence makes them more suitable for this study because they perfectly describe the leadership terrain I am studying where bureaucracy (structure) is still in place but is giving in to agency and democratisation (post structuralism) in most schools. Leadership practice is gradually moving away from structuralism ideas embracing post structuralism ideas (Burnett, & Lingam, 2012). Most theories come in strait jackets and will not attempt to describe two different philosophical ideas in one. So rarely can these theories achieve the flexibility demonstrated by Foucault here who claims that his is not a theory but just a theoretical toolbox that can be used to analyse power relations (Clegg & Haggard, 2009). Foucault's notions of power were very relevant in illuminating the dynamics of leadership practice where power and leadership influence did not flow from the school head alone but also from teachers. Foucault's ideas of freedom and agency of individuals (self-constitution) to make choices gave me important insights about how teachers choose to resist or agree to a school head's leader influence behaviours and how success at such influence attempts could be enhanced in practice. I could have missed a lot in analysing how leader influence behaviours and teacher agency play out

during teacher supervision and policy implementation were it not for his analytical tools of disciplinary power.

3.5 The three leggedness of the theoretical framework

So far I have discussed distributed leadership, the collegial model of organisational management and Foucault's notions of power as core components of my theoretical framework. My theoretical framework can be likened to a three-legged pot. Each 'leg' contributes in a different way to the overall understanding and meaning in this study. I see them as complementing and supporting each other in a special way. In Chapter 1 stated that (Refer to chapter 1, section 1.6.5, p. 11), studying influence behaviours hinges on leadership, management and power. It is clear that leadership, management and power are different concepts and their application in practice brings them together and there is a natural overlap among the skills they require (Ratcliffe, 2013). As such, I chose a theoretical lens on leadership, management and power respectively to illuminate and help me delve on issues covered by these three areas addressed by my study adequately. For example, a theoretical lens on leadership (distributed leadership) was very helpful when I analysed how influence occurs as school heads interacted with teachers in their day-to-day work activities. The day-to day work activities which can be called management activities (Myers, 2012; Ratcliffe, 2013) were studied over time during my field work and they culminated in what I can call the school heads' leadership practice. In their management activities school heads work in centralised systems that, "prioritises the efficient implementation of external imperatives, notably those prescribed by higher levels in the hierarchy," (Bush, 2008, p. 12). This may necessitate the use of power to meet compliance requirements. I found Foucault's notions of power very helpful in illuminating how school heads used notions of power to enforce management decisions in their schools. The wealth of insights I got from the theoretical lens of leadership, management and power collectively as a result, helped me to identify and learn how school heads used various leader influence behaviours to shape practice. The three-legged theoretical framework is also united in its emphasis of the fact that leadership and influence in school organisations can come from more than one source. This is a point that steers this study in a different direction from many previous studies on leadership that have largely seen influence as coming from the leader alone. So, whilst my three legged theoretical lens can stand alone as components of the study's theoretical framework they also complement each other and offer me a sharp gaze of the dynamics of leadership practice.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to discuss the theoretical framework underpinning this study drawing from the practice of distributed leadership, the collegial model of organisational management and Foucault's notions of power giving their advantages and disadvantages as well as their application in school organisations. I then showed how the theoretical framework helped me understand leader influence behaviours in schools by first looking at the three frameworks as building blocks of my overall theory and then looking at them as complementing each other. One important thing to note in this chapter is that Solo leadership is giving way to collaborative forms of leadership in most schools in Zimbabwe and influence in school organisations can come from more than one source. School heads, teachers and the school's stakeholders have influence the school head should bear. In the next chapter, I discuss the paradigm, methodology and methods I used to generate data in the field.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter 3, I discussed the theoretical framework underpinning this study drawing from the practice of distributed leadership, the collegial model of organisational management and Foucault's notions of power. I give their advantages and disadvantages as well as their application in school organisations. The thrust of this chapter is to explicate the design and methodology of the study. I commence by discussing the research paradigm that I then link to the research approach and design I adopted for this study. I then discuss the methods I used to generate data to answer my research questions as well as data analysis techniques I used to analyse data. I use a criteria for evaluating the trustworthiness of research proposed by Guba & Lincoln (1994) to evaluate the rigor and trustworthiness of my study. The chapter is a step closer to answering the study's research questions which are:

- How do school heads influence teachers in their day to day work context?
- How do teachers respond to school heads' influence behaviours?
- Why do teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do?

I start the discussion by looking at research paradigms and the paradigm informing my study.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The way we think about how to do research is shaped by our philosophical dispositions. The underpinning philosophical ideas that determine the type of problems that should be investigated and the way in which they should be investigated are termed paradigms (Babbie and Mouton, 2008). A paradigm can also be defined as, "a perspective about research held by a community of researchers that is based on a set of shared assumptions, concepts, values and practices (Johnson & Christensen 2012, p. 31)." In other words, it is a world view, a view of what counts as accepted or correct scientific knowledge by the community of researchers. As a result, paradigm perspectives have far-reaching implications for research. For example, this study is informed by the interpretivism paradigm and this world view influenced my choice of the research problem. It also

influenced how I phrased it, the questions I set out to answer in this study, the methodology I adopted and the kind of data I generated and how I treated that data. Whilst different writers will use the term paradigm to refer to different aspects of research I specifically use the term to refer to philosophical perspectives like positivism, critical, post structuralism/postmodernism and interpretivism; the enduring world views in research circles (Lofgren, 2013). A paradigm defines the research process along three dimensions namely ontology, epistemology and methodology (Babbie & Mouton, 2008; Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The terms ontology and epistemology will be discussed in detail here since they form the bedrock of my philosophical standpoint underpinning this study and my discussion on paradigms.

4.3 ONTOLOGY

The term ontology is from two Greek words *onto* meaning existence and *logia* meaning science or study (Lofgren, 2013). Ontology therefore can be seen as beliefs about existence or what the researcher believes to be real. Researchers establish their ontological standpoints by answering the following philosophical questions:

- Is reality a given out there in the world or is it created by one's own mind?
- In other words is reality a fact, objective and true or is the idea of objective truth an illusion shaped by the observer's interpretation of what he perceives?
- If yes, to what extent? (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2012).

My ontological position is that reality is shaped by the observer's interpretation of what he perceives. Detailed answers to the three ontological questions above that guided me in this study will be provided later in the discussion about interpretivism in section 4.3.2. The next dimension of the research process is epistemology. I discuss epistemology below.

4.4 EPISTEMOLOGY

The term epistemology is from two Greek words *episteme* meaning knowledge or understanding and *logia* meaning science (Lofgren, 2013). Epistemology concerns the basis of Knowledge; its nature and forms, how it can be acquired and how it can be communicated to other human beings (Cohen et al., 2011). It can also be referred to as a theory of knowledge (Cohen et al., 2011, Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Springer, 2010). Epistemology is also about whether knowledge is a set of value-free truths, transcending opinion, or whether it is subjectively built and progressively understood, through experience. A researcher must be clear about the following epistemological

questions before settling for a particular research approach.

- i) What is knowledge? How is it acquired?
- ii) What do people know?
- iii) What is the basis for true knowledge?
- iv) How do we know that something is true? (Brooke 2013; Lofgren, 2013).

My epistemological position is that knowledge is subjectively built and progressively understood, through experience, hence my desire to capture the lived experiences of school heads and teachers at their school sites. More elaborate answers about my epistemological assumptions as I carry out this study will come out in the discussion where I discuss in detail the interpretive paradigm I chose for this study in section 4.3.2 below. Before I discuss the interpretive paradigm in detail I first give an overview of major paradigms as a way of positioning the interpretivism paradigm which informs this study among other major paradigms.

4.5 COMMON RESEARCH PARADIGMS

I commence by describing major research paradigms namely positivism, interpretivism, criticalism and postmodernism but without getting into details as a way of giving the reader a broader picture of issues under discussion. This way, how my choice of a paradigm responds to the above mentioned questions will become clearer to the reader. In addition to that this also enhanced my understanding of the paradigm I chose for my study. Furthermore, the overview worked as my compass as I navigated through the uneasy task of distinguishing my methodology and methods. For example, throughout the study I used my knowledge of how different my chosen paradigm is with other paradigms as a reference point. This helped me to avoid mixing and blaring ideas shaping my methodology and methods informed by my paradigm with those of otherwise conflicting paradigms. Below is an overview of some of the most enduring paradigms I will give a synopsis of namely the positivist paradigm, postmodernism and critical paradigms.

4.5.1 Positivism, Postmodernism and Critical paradigm

Positivism originated in the work of Comte as a reaction to the religious and magical understanding of the world during the middle ages (Brooke, 2013; Daishu, 2011; Vine, 2009). Its key assumption is that knowledge can be attained through empirical data collection methods using quantitative and statistical approaches to make truth statements about what we can know (Burnett & Lingam, 2012). On the other hand Postmodernism recognises that knowledge is not absolute but relative (Merriam,

2009) and shares many of its perspectives with critical paradigm. The critical paradigm's view is that the formation of hegemony is not separated from the production of ideology, which is the cultural forms, meanings, rituals, and representations that produce consent to the status quo and the individual's place in it (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Strawn, 2009). The main research focus for the critical paradigm is on power and justice issues.

My study is rooted in the social sciences where the immense complexity of human nature and the elusive and intangible quality of social phenomena contrast strikingly with the order and regularity of the natural world proclaimed by positivists (Cohen et al., 2011). As such, this made positivism unsuitable for this study since it was not going to allow me to participate and delve into the dynamic and complex organisational life of school heads and teachers I am studying. On the other hand,

whilst postmodern and critical paradigms share the belief of multiple realities with interpretivism, I did not consider them because they did not mirror the purpose of my study. I am neither focusing on diversity issues, emancipation nor marginalised groups. Instead, I am focusing on how leader influence behaviours shape school leadership practice and I see the interpretive paradigm as the best for this study. Next I discuss the interpretive paradigm in detail.

4.5.2 The interpretive paradigm

The interpretive paradigm underpins this study as already mentioned. Interpretivism pioneered by the work of Weber, Schutz and Winch is based on the observation that there are fundamental differences between the social and natural world (Strawn, 2009; Daishu, 2011). Unlike in the natural world where a particular action consistently produces a given result, social actors do not uniformly react to stimuli, rather they actively interpret the situation in which they find themselves in and act on the basis of these interpretations (Daishu, 2011). The interpretations these social actors make are subjective because there are many differing realities of the world. The belief is that reality for everyone is different because from the point of view of interpretivists it is in fact perception that is the sole creator of reality. Therefore, reality is something we construct with our minds as a product of our cognitive processes.

It follows, from the above discussion, therefore that knowledge, meaning and truth are acts of interpretation and cognition and there cannot be objective knowledge that is not influenced by human reasoning (Babbie & Mouton, 2008; Brooke 2013; Creswell, 2009). Thus as a

researcher following this approach I took into account how school heads and teachers' behaviours and experiences construct realities which are inherently subjective and unique to each individual, school setting and time. To be effective, I valued the experiences of participants and tried to understand the social world from the viewpoint of those who experienced it (Strawn, 2009; Walters, 2009). This is the emic view where the researcher views the research and participants from an insider perspective (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). As such the experiences of participants were essentially context bound and as a researcher I understood the socially constructedness of the world and realised that my values and interests and those of my participants were part and parcel of the research process. I was not detached from the sites and people I investigated. To avoid producing a report watered down by biases however, I identified my biases and monitored them through the process of reflexivity. "Reflexivity refers to the conscious reflection on the effects of the researcher's own assumptions and biases on the ethnographic process," (Springer, 2010, p. 394). In this study, I did not strive for replication of the study because participant perceptions, their history, and context differed from one school to the other and also because the social world is not orderly or systematic and so it is not easy to achieve consistency and objectivity in the sense positivists would understand the world.

Weber (1864-1920) argued that in human sciences it is necessary to have '*Verstehen*' or *understanding* rather than mere '*Erklaren*' or *explanation* (Cohen et al., 2011; Brooke, 2013). Put another way, Weber believed that empathetic understanding of research participants in their given context should be based on reflective reconstruction and interpretation of actions of research participants. This was seen just as important as prediction and control in the natural sciences. For Weber it was, "essential to be concerned with process (the why and the how) of research as well as the outcome or facts (the where, the what, who, and the when)" (Brooke, 2013, p. 431). Unlike positivists who use statistical inference, interpretivists achieve understanding through the use of thick descriptions of the phenomena under investigation. A thick description can be seen as data in which the researcher attempts to capture all the details of a special setting in an extremely detailed description and conveying an intimate feel for the setting and the inner lives of the people in it (Newman, 2006). Based on the belief that the world is complex and that there are few simple explanations for human behaviour (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014), a multiplicity of methods are used to generate the data used to make these thick descriptions (Refer to section 4.11 below). This way, a complete understanding of the setting and an accurate reflection of the complexity of human behaviour can be achieved.

One of the criticisms of interpretivism is that it does not allow for generalisations because it

encourages the study of a small number of cases that do not apply to the whole population (Vine, 2009). Despite its limitations, I saw my quest to generate insights that will improve practice, anchored upon rich contextual views about educational leadership from teachers and school heads being enabled by this paradigm, since it is a holistic approach that gave me wide and deep angled lens to examine school leadership processes in the context of leader influence behaviours. Paradigms are abstract philosophical ideas and on their own may not give us a clear picture of how the research study is going to be structured. In the next section I move closer to the practical field of research by discussing how these philosophical ideas translate into the research approach. I discuss the qualitative research design chosen for this study below.

4.6 RESEARCH APPROACH

A research approach is a grand plan or a structured framework that describes how a research study is to be conducted so as to best solve the research problem or question (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005; Ntaote, 2012). The research approach describes in detail the research plan, approach or paradigm, the research methodology, and methods and techniques the researcher intends to use to answer research questions. Basically there are three research approaches; the qualitative approach from social sciences and the quantitative approach from the natural sciences and mixed methods approach. This study follows a qualitative approach which is in line with interpretivism which sees knowledge, meaning and truth as acts of interpretation and cognition and acknowledges the role of the researcher in the production of knowledge. Next I discuss the qualitative research approach in more detail.

4.6.1 Qualitative research approach

I discarded the quantitative approach mainly because the approach is positivist and is hinged on the researcher being detached from research participants. This approach contrasts with the qualitative research approach for its respect for the lived experiences of people and the stories of their lives (Dillow, 2009). As a researcher following the qualitative research approach I was interested in understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they constructed their worlds, and meanings they attributed to their experiences (Merriam, 2009). Apart from this as a researcher following a qualitative research approach, I shared a detailed engagement with the object of study (school heads and teachers). I selected a small number of cases to be studied and used multi-method approaches; and was also flexible in that my methods allowed me as the researcher to adapt and make changes to the study, where and when necessary. The focus was on

process, meaning and understanding using myself, the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection and analysis. The reader will appreciate the qualitative approach better if it is discussed in the context of the research design underpinning this study. There are many designs within the qualitative research approach that can be identified, for example biography, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and the case study (Babbie & Mouton, 2008; Cohen et al., 2011; Merriam, 2009). The ethnographic design informs this study and I discuss it in detail and why I also chose it.

4.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is the aspect of a paradigm that emphasises the question of how the research should proceed (Vine, 2009). It can also be seen as a description of how the researcher goes about generating knowledge (Babbie & Mouton, 2008; Johnson & Christensen, 2012). This study follows an ethnographic design as alluded to before. At first however, I had settled for case study design. Critical discussions with colleagues revealed that instruments like surveys commonly used with case studies (Melbourn, 2010) may not capture in full the values, beliefs and attitudes that shape the behavioural patterns of school heads and teachers in relations of power and influence. I could have chosen phenomenology but its emphasis on bracketing or suspending personal experiences when generating data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011) was untenable since this study is partly about my personal experiences as a school head. I saw ethnography being able to generate data that could best answer my research questions. In the next paragraphs I will define ethnography and describe its key features which among other things made me to choose it over other designs I said I discarded.

4.7.1 ETHNOGRAPHY

Ethnography is the art and science of investigating and describing a social group, culture, subculture or cultural scene, which includes the daily lives, routines, behaviours, values, beliefs, norms, dress, language, artefacts and attitudes that create a describable pattern in the lives of groups of people, communities or organizations (Gulati et al., 2011). Whilst ethnography can be seen as a study based on a written description of a particular culture, the customs, beliefs, and behaviours, Gulati et al., from my point of view, could have also included this key aspect of the ethnographic design that it is based on data collected through prolonged stay in the field.

The rationale underlying the ethnographic design is based on a set of beliefs shaped by the interpretive paradigm and its ontological and epistemological foundations discussed above. The ethnographic design speaks to the culture of a people and this mostly distinguishes it from other

methodologies. Apart from this, it is also hinged on principles of naturalism, holism, qualitativensness, subjectivity and reflexivity which I will discuss in detail below.

4.7. 2 Ethnographic research is Naturalistic

Many ethnographers believe that human behaviour is strongly influenced by the settings in which it occurs (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014; Vine 2009). This is because human beings live their lives in wider social contexts of shared beliefs, attitudes, values, and behaviours or culture which helps them to meet their human and social needs, which are also influenced by significant historical events and processes. When individuals or groups of participants respond in a research study, their ideas and behaviours are influenced by the physical environment, history, and real and perceived human needs found within specific natural settings (Whitehead, 2005). I propose that, while one can interview social members like school heads and teachers outside contexts of their schools, and may secure somewhat *emical* answers, and still the strongest means to achieving the greatest validity regarding the school heads and teachers is through fieldwork done in natural settings at their schools. Ethnographers share the view that the aim of social research is to capture the character of naturally occurring human behaviour. This can only be achieved by first-hand contact with school heads and teachers as they engage in their daily work routines and not by inferences from what they say they do at their schools when asked in an interview (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). This supports my choice to be at the schools where action occurred and be there for a prolonged period of time seeing for myself the lived experiences of school heads and teachers.

Whitehead (2005) strengthens his argument about doing research in context by bringing in the concept of emic validity which he defines as understanding hosts in the study from their own system of meanings. He argues that this can be achieved only by being in the host community and coming to a thorough understanding of the daily lives of the study hosts. By studying school heads in their natural setting, I did not only become familiar with the spatial dimensions of the research setting and its socio-cultural dynamics, I also gained deep insights into the way school heads use leader influence behaviours by directly observing them in practical action. I also collected data directly from the school heads and teachers themselves. In this study I therefore saw spending long periods of time in the field as having gone a long way in enhancing my ability to comprehensively describe components of cultural systems of schools that I studied in a way that enhance the study's emic validity. This was likely not going to be

possible had I chosen other competing designs within the interpretive paradigm like case study and phenomenology for they do not emphasize prolonged stay in the field but brief encounters with participants for interviews or surveys.

4.7.3 Ethnographic research is holistic

Related to the concept of naturalism, where the emphasis is on studying phenomena in natural settings, the holistic approach seeks to study phenomena within the larger context in which it occurs (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). This is based on the premise that schools are more than the sum of their parts. In a school setting, the particular, which is leader influence behaviours, can best be understood if studied in relation to other related aspects like leadership, school cultures and power structures within the schools. Holism sees studying a concept, say of influence behaviours without relating to other school activities connected to it as providing a limited and potentially misleading understanding of the phenomenon under study.

Researchers following the positivist paradigm which insist on objectivity and broad applicability of results may wonder about the reliability of qualitative research. They may even question where the credibility of ethnography is if its results cannot be replicated or be generalised to other situations. This is however a matter of the reasons for which a research is done. The purpose of the ethnographic design is the quality and depth of data not its potential for generalizability. As such, as an ethnographer I was interested in conducting in-depth studies of smaller populations and groups of school heads and teachers for what they are and not for their generalizability.

4.7.4 Ethnography is subjective

Because ethnographers believe in the subjective nature of social reality, I tried to give insights from the perspective of research participants (school heads and teachers), using direct quotations of what they said. I also tried to see things the way my participants saw them rather than imposing my own framework which might distort the ideas of my participants. This is what Johnson & Christensen (2012) calls empathetic understanding. Ethnography is based on the premise that social scientists cannot understand human behaviour without understanding the context and perspectives within which participants interpret their thoughts, feelings and actions (Hoey, 2013; Myers, 2008; Reeves & Hodges, 2008). By observing participants and listening to their accounts, I was able to come to a better understanding of processes by which school heads and teachers influenced each other, made meaning of their behaviours, their intentions and motives and also the rules that controlled their

actions. This assisted me get answers to one of my research questions seeking to know why teachers responded to leader influence behaviours in the way they did. My actions in this study were driven by my epistemological conviction that as a researcher I am not the prime source of knowledge and as such I must not trust my own senses, logic and reasoning more than I should trust that of my participants who have a lived experience of the situation under study. The ethnographic design is an approach that values people and the stories of their lives (Dillow, 2009). I spent the greater part of my fieldwork listening and noting down interactions among research participants. I also tried to understand things the way school heads and teachers did by also taking part in their daily routine work and after work activities. In the process, I was able to constantly remind myself not to fall into the trap of going “native” and forgetting my role as an outsider and researcher.

4.7.5 Ethnographers are reflexive

Research findings are interpretations made by the researcher of what he or she has observed in the field the research setting. As such it has long b e e n a c c e p t e d among positivist researchers that biased interpretations are possible (Whitehead, 2005). To minimise the negative effects of researcher bias, ethnographers do not look up to the rigorous statistical controls and objectivity of the natural sciences. Instead, ethnographers are of the view that the researcher be an empathetic observer, whose gaze is coloured by his or her own subjectivity (Web, 2010). This is based on the concept of reflexivity. Reflexivity is reflecting on how the researcher’s background, views, and interests may influence the research (Gulati et al., 2011; Villiers, 2010). The researcher is the main data collection instrument. His or her own subjectivity as a social being will always interfere with his or her researcher role and this must be acknowledged in the study (Hoey, 2013; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). During data collection, I kept a separate fieldwork journal where I wrote my views and feelings concerning particular events I was observing. A detailed description of my past as a head using leader influence behaviours definitely affected what I was able to see, hear or capture in the field and this had to be accounted for in my reflexivity notebook during my data collection. This was very important for it helped me to guard against a tendency to self-absorption. Whilst these are the key activities an ethnographer does in the field, there are many other activities that I also engaged in.

4.8 WHAT I DID IN THE FIELD AS AN ETHNOGRAPHER

In the above discussion, I touched much on what I was doing in the field as a researcher using the

ethnographic design. There are many other things that an ethnographer must do and they cannot all be exhausted in this small chapter. I can only summarise some of these “to do activities” below.

While in the field, as an ethnographer I:

- 1) Observed ordinary events and everyday activities as they happened in natural settings in addition to any unusual occurrences.
- 2) Became directly involved with the teachers and school heads being studied and personally experienced daily social life in the field setting.
- 3) Acquired insider point of view while monitoring the analytic perspective (Outsider distance).
- 4) Used a variety of techniques and social skills in a flexible manner as the situation demands.
- 5) Produced data (extensive written notes, diagrams, pictures and maps) to provide thick descriptions.
- 6) Saw events holistically and individually in their social context.
- 7) Understood and developed empathy for school heads and teachers in the field setting and not only record “cold objective facts.”
- 8) Noticed both explicit (recognised, conscious, spoken) and tacit (unspoken, hidden) or implicit aspects of culture.
- 9) Observed without imposing outsider point of view.

I derived most of the ‘to do activities’ above from reading Neuman’s (2006) work and also Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) and Hoey (2013) on doing ethnographic research which guided me in the field. Ethnographies are widely used in educational research but however, there were some challenges that I faced when I got into the field to generate data for my study. Some of these challenges are discussed below.

4.9 CHALLENGES OF USING THE ETHNOGRAPHIC DESIGN

Coping with high levels of stress, ambiguities and ethical dilemmas are some of the challenges I faced as researcher using ethnography whilst in the field. The extensive field notes that I generated led to data overload ambiguities and stress as I went through them searching for patterns and meaning. In addition, the close relationship that as an ethnographer I developed with participants and the various permissions to be sought raised many ethical dilemmas for me as a researcher. The prolonged stay in the field was also costly too since I was not on full salary because I was on study leave. To minimise stress, ambiguities, and issues of access, I thoroughly planned for the fieldwork. Permissions were sought well in advance. My daily activities were well documented

and data analysis was done daily for each set of notes generated to avoid data overload. My own biases were monitored through reflexivity and personal moral obligation to be honest and true in my reporting.

Despite the above challenges ethnography had the potential to steer this study towards achieving its purpose. One of the most valuable aspects of ethnography is the depth of understanding that I got about the phenomenon under study. I may not have gotten this depth of understanding with other designs within the qualitative approach like biography, phenomenology, grounded theory and the case study. This is because I was not going to get as close to the participants as I did when I spent a very long time in the field as an ethnographer. This depth of understanding led to new insights that I used to challenge the ‘taken for granted’ assumptions about leadership processes. After learning a lot about ethnography, it may be interesting to know how as an ethnographer I went about generating research data in the field. This is what I am going to discuss in detail below.

4.10 DATA GENERATION SOURCES

“In keeping with neo-liberal reforms in education, there has been wide scale devolution of powers to school sites.” (Naicker, 2011, p. 433).” This expanded the roles of school heads phenomenally. The effect this could have had was to stretch my data generation parameters beyond the scope of my study. So I decided to limit my data generation to key areas of the school head’s work as defined by the Zimbabwe school heads *circular number 32 of 2014*. The key areas of the school head’s work identified by this Zimbabwean circular are similar to those identified by the University of KwaZulu- Natal *Module EDMN814*, (2013) and the South African *Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998*. These sources suggested the responsibility of the school head among other things, as managing curricular and extracurricular activities, policy planning and implementation, teacher development, communication, school resources and discipline. Therefore, these areas became the broad themes for my observation and interview schedules. The number of areas about the school head’s work I dealt with made my coverage about the school head’s work comprehensive thereby enhancing the trustworthiness of my conclusions.

4.11 DATA GENERATION METHODS

Data generation methods describe how researchers go about collecting research data (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). The literature acknowledges that ethnographers indulge in certain data

generation methods which are in line with their methodological frames when generating research data (Gulati et al., 2011; Myers, 2008; Villiers, 2010). The most common of these methods are observation, surveys, documents and interviews (Merriam, 2009). For this study I, chose observation, interviews and artefacts and dropped surveys and documents which I saw as weak in generating data coloured by participants' interpretations of the situation. Next I discuss how I used my data generation tools starting with observation, my main data generation tool.

4.12 OBSERVATION

Observation is more than just looking; it is looking and noting people, events, behaviours, settings, artefacts and routines systematically and over time (Cohen et al., 2011). Observation can be of facts, for example, the number of times a school head uses influence behaviours in general staff meetings in a term or it can be about the researcher's interpretation and judgements of events like what parents think about the outcome of a school board meeting. It is the latter kind of observation that this study is aligned to. The observation is qualitative and seeks to derive meaning and interpretation from observed events.

The kinds of observations available to the researcher lie in a continuum from structured observations to unstructured observations (Cohen et al., 2012). In a highly structured observation, the researcher knows in advance what he or she is looking for and will have a draft of an observation schedule before entering the field. In a semi-structured observation the researcher has an agenda of issues and will gather data to illuminate these issues in a far less predetermined or systematic manner. In an unstructured observation the researcher will be less clear about what he or she is looking for and will therefore get into the field and observe before making a decision whether the research site is relevant for the study (Cohen et al., 2012; Creswell, 2009). For this study, I chose semi-structured observation in which I had a role of a participant observer (Refer to section 4.13.2 below). This is in line with the holistic approach of ethnography utilised in this study which, instead of looking for a few particular occurrences seeks to study phenomena within the larger context in which it occurs (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). To achieve this the researcher has an agenda of issues for observation in the field. The set of issues I took to the field revolved around school heads' use of leader influence behaviours. In line with the cultural focus of ethnography (Gulati et al., 2011) which guided me in this study, I focused my attention on cultural, social, economic and contextual issues that might have been impacting on school heads' use of influence behaviours. Three primary schools were identified for the study and the participants signed consent letters permitting me to do the study with them. I spent one month at one

site observing. Finer details of the actual observation are detailed in chapter five and six. However, I can say my observation structure was less predetermined. In order for me to get the best out of observation, I needed an appropriate researcher role. In this study I chose the role of participant observer. How I functioned in this role is the subject of discussion under participant observation below.

4.12.1 What is participant observation?

On a daily basis we observe various phenomena at home, at work or outings and sometimes participate in what will be happening in many ways. This is a good starting point for us to think about what the concept of participant observation is and the role of the participant observer in it. Participant observation is a qualitative approach with roots in traditional anthropology and ethnographic research. The researcher systematically describes events, behaviours and artefacts in a social setting chosen for study in as much detail as to give what can be called a ‘written photograph’ of the setting and events of the research phenomenon under study (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Kawulich, 2005). As a participant observer I learnt about how school heads and teachers under study influenced each other in their natural settings through observing and participating in daily school activities. Although participant observation has become the name of this data collection method in practice participation in activities vary in a continuum. In this continuum, a researcher can assume the following researcher modes of participation. I assumed these roles to varying degrees though on the main I was a participant observer.

- *Complete participant:* is a researcher who takes on the role of an insider and in most cases will not declare his or her role as a researcher. The researcher share secrets with participants and can be said to have gone ‘native’ or has abandoned his initial researcher role and has become a full member of the group he or she is researching on. To a limited extent I shared some secrets with teachers at one of the schools (my home school). This is because the teachers felt I was part of them as a former teacher and a local parent at the school and shared with me old secrets. I however checked against abandoning my researcher role by being reflexive and noting down all such encounters.
- *The participant-as-observer:* is part of the social life of participants and documents and records what is happening for research purposes. He or she is known as a researcher by participants and also actively participate in participants’ daily routine work activities. This was my main researcher role and I discuss it in detail later in this section.

- *The observer –as- participant*: He or she is known as a researcher by participants and has less extensive contact with the group. This researcher takes on the role of observer more than the role of a participant and spends relatively less time in the field. At my home school I opted to stay out of the staff cottage to avoid being too intimate with participants who were very familiar with me. I did not want my role as a researcher to be blurred by over familiarisation with participants. When I played this role it was mainly to avoid going native and jeopardising the reliability of my findings.
- *The complete observer*: The researcher fully takes the role of an outside observer and will not inform the participants that they are being observed such that the participants will not realise that they are being observed at all (Cohen et al., 2011; Springer, 2010). At times my participants would not realise that they were being observed particularly when I participated in the ordinary day-to-day school activities they engaged in like sports. I did this to ease reactivity problems and capture lived experiences of the participants.

As a participant observer, my role was balanced learning from the strengths of the two extremes of observation namely complete participant and the complete observer. There are serious ethical concerns I had to bear by choosing either of the two extreme modes of participation namely complete participant and the complete observer. As a complete participant, I was going to become too involved and could have ended up forgetting my role as a researcher and as a complete observer; I might have become too detached to the extent that I would have failed to capture intimate and complex leader influence processes at play among participants. On the other hand as a participant-as-observer, I was able to alternate taking the role of observer and that of participant (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). The advantages I got from participant observation, the mode of observation I adopted for this study will be discussed in more detail later. It should be remembered always, however, that these modes or degrees of participation are not cast in rigid compartments. Depending on the situation being observed as a researcher, at certain times I found it necessary to move up and down this participation continuum I have just outlined. So as a participant observer I spent most of my time in the field actively participating in school activities like teaching, sports and also taking some leadership roles. I also took part in after school social activities my participants engaged in so that my observations of school heads influence behaviours could be holistic. It is also interesting to know the kind of data that I collected as a participant observer who spent a long time in the field. I will discuss this in the next paragraph.

4.12.2 Forms of data generated through observation

Participant observation data consists of the detailed field notes that I recorded in a field notebook. Cohen et al., (2012) say such data may include;

- *Context maps* which are sketches and diagrams or some graphic displays of the physical context of each school under study. This brings to prominence the study context and its variables in the study.
- *Socio-metric diagrams* which are diagrams indicating social relationships for example isolates (whom no one chooses), stars (whom everyone chooses) and dyads (who choose each other). I found recording of such information important learning from interactionist and interpretive ontology that sees human behaviour in social settings as a product of community life (Dillow, 2009) from which influence patterns can be discerned.
- *Organisational charts* showing school management hierarchies and other structures in the schools I was studying as these are seen as embodiments of power relations among the participants (Cohen et al., 2012).
- *Speech acts* like verbal and non-verbal communication showing how school heads influence subordinates.
- *Pen portraits* of participants, descriptions of physical settings, events, activities behaviours, and descriptions of the researcher's activities and behaviour during the period I was in the field doing observations.

I found recording all the above forms of data very important and to be relevant to this study. It may be quite interesting to find out why ethnographic observation that was once personal to anthropology (Kawulich, 2005) has become a staple in educational research and may be the best for this study. This is what will be discussed next.

4.12.3 Advantages I derived from being a participant observer

Data obtained through participant observation can be used as a check against participants' subjective reporting (Creswell, 2009). Participant observation afforded me the privilege of going beyond getting what school heads said they did certain things to influence teachers to direct observation of what they actually did in the field. It has been found that when members know that they are participating in a study they have a tendency to alter their behaviours in most cases, trying to be socially desirable ((Babbie & Mouton, 2008; Cohen et al., 2012). My prolonged stay in the field helped to ease this tension or reactivity problem so that members gradually slid back to

their usual ways of behaving ignoring my presence. However, this did not occur without effort and good public relations on my part. To counter reactivity I spent considerable time in the field building rapport with the participants. I spent time striving to inspire enough trust and acceptance to enable my research participants to act as much as they would if I were not there. In the process going 'native' was not any of my options. I do not have to be viewed as a complete insider. My focus remained both on building rapport and observing for a long enough period to have a sufficient range of experiences so as to observe and learn about the use of leader influence behaviours by school heads in the normal course of their leadership roles in schools I was studying.

Observation is also useful for gaining and understanding of the physical, social, cultural and economic contexts in which the participants live (Creswell, 2009), giving the researcher a nuanced understanding of context that can only come from personal experience. Because of the elusive nature of power relations in organisations like schools there can be no substitute for witnessing or participating in these power games so as to get a personal feel of how leader influence shapes and can also be shaped by prevailing power relations in each particular school context. This is another reason why I saw participant observation as suitable for this study.

At times verbal descriptions alone may not be able to capture the whole essence of a research scene or activity. Some elements of human experience are only visible to those who are actually there on the ground where action is taking place and capturing live data. This is described as the power of immediate awareness or direct cognition (Cohen et al., 2012). As an observer, I saw myself excelling in doing this more than other researchers using different approaches particularly when it came to rules and norms that are taken for granted by participants due to over familiarity. As an unfamiliar observer I had the highest chances of capturing these rules in situ as they happened unlike what a researcher using a survey instrument or an interview could have done. Also actions and thoughts that research participants generally do not recognise as part of the story such as personal rituals and routines are sometimes missed or hard to uncover in conventional interviews because people may not think to mention them or may think it not proper to bring them up. Participants also sometimes find it impolite, taboo or may just be unwilling to share certain kinds of information with untrusted outsiders (Creswell, 2009). Mutual trust and prolonged stay participating in members' daily activities gives participant observation one of its unique strengths allowing me access to these mostly no go areas for other conventional researchers. Whilst I have demonstrated that observation is quite suitable for data generation for me as an ethnographer, readers must not fall into the common pitfall and see this method as flawless. There are some challenges those who use this method are likely to face in the field and I will discuss

some of the challenges I faced.

4.12.4 Limitations of observation

It may not be true that observation is the easiest method to generate data (Babbie & Mouton, 2008). For example, it was hard for me to observe and record everything that is important and at the same time participate in all other activities in the school. At times either the observation or the participation suffered because it was difficult to multi-task. Also because notes are expanded later, memory loss problems were a challenge I had to grapple with. Observation is also time consuming and was costly, not to mention the daily challenges like ethical issues and gatekeepers I had to bear with apart from high levels of stress I endured. Where possible I used audio recordings to capture interviews and discussions as a way of minimising data loss due to pressure of work and memory problems. I made appointments well in advance to save myself time and undue stress. I also did not stay in the field beyond what was necessary to save costs.

Despite these challenges, I saw observation and participant observation in particular as having stood the highest chances of generating the most authentic data for the study and as such, I made it my main research instrument. It is a method well suited to capture the dynamics of and unpredictable and elusive behaviours of human beings. While it can be so good, observation forms an even more formidable force if it is used in conjunction with interviews (Merriam, 2009). So in the following part of the discussion I will be discussing the concept of interviewing and how it complemented my data generation strategies.

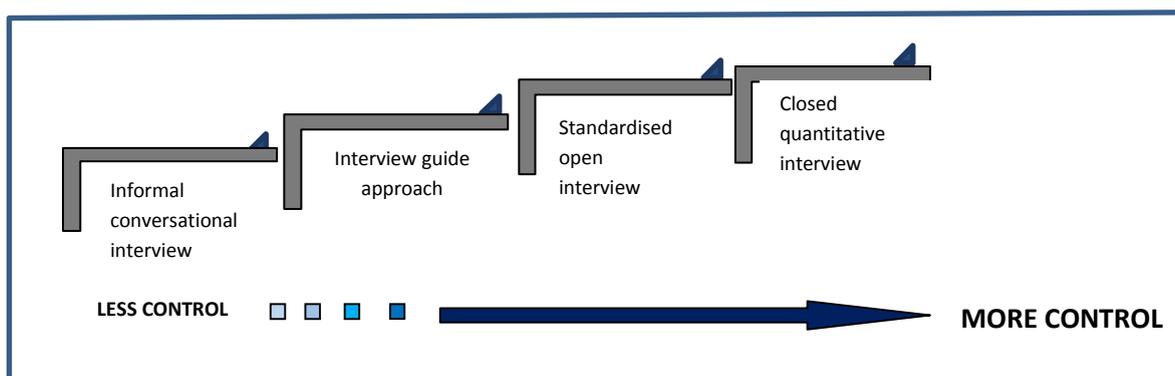
4.13 INTERVIEWS

A writer in research, Kvale, saw the use of the interview in research as marking a move away from seeing human subjects simply as objects for manipulation by the knowledgeable researcher and data as somehow external to individuals (Cohen et al., 2011). Interviewing was a way of moving towards regarding knowledge as generated between humans often through conversations. One such conversation, the interview was one of my supplementary data generation strategies. Interviews are conversations, usually one-on-one between an interviewer and an interviewee, meant to generate information on a specific set of topics (Harrel & Bradley, 2009). It can also be seen as an exchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual Interest (Cohen et al., 2011). From these definitions an interview can be seen as a planned discussion, usually one-on-one between an interviewer and an interviewee(s), meant to exchange views on a topic of mutual

interest. From the writings of Cohen et al. (2011), unlike everyday conversation an interview has a specific purpose and is question based with the questions being asked by the interviewer. The interviewer alone may express ignorance not the interviewee who in this case is supposed to be the source of raw data sought after by the interviewer. It's a planned event not a mutually occurring social event. For my interviews I had to choose the most knowledgeable informants and thoroughly plan for each interview to maximise chances of the interview process yielding the data that was relevant.

The purposes of interviews are many. Here I give just a few that have direct relevance to what I was doing in interviews in this study. According to Harrel & Bradley (2009) and Cohen et al. (2011), interviews can be used as the researcher's primary data generation method to generate information from individuals about their own practices, beliefs, or opinions. However, here I used them as a supplementary method. They can be used to generate information on past or present behaviours or experiences. Interviews can further be used to obtain background information or to tap into the expert knowledge of an individual. Interviews can be placed on a continuum of structure, from "unstructured" (informal conversational interviews) to highly "structured." (Closed quantitative interviews). I use figure 4.1 below to illustrate the degree of control an interviewer may have with the different types of interviews. In informal conversational interviews, the interviewer will have

Figure 4.1: Degree of interviewer control in interviews



Adapted for this study from Harrel & Bradley (2009) and Johnson & Christensen (2012).

the least control over the interaction while in closed quantitative interviews the interviewer will have the most control over the interaction (Harrel & Bradley, 2009; Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Because of my epistemological belief that knowledge is generated between humans often through conversations, I chose interview approaches that allowed spontaneous and informal conversation. Informal conversational interviews and the interview guide interview approaches were

chosen for this study. These two approaches to interviewing are discussed in detail in sections 4.10.1 and 4.10.2 below.

4.13.1 Unstructured interviews (Informal conversational interviews)

Informal conversational interviews are most spontaneous and loosely structured interviews. The interviewer discusses the topics of interest, probing and following all leads of interest that emerge from the discussion. The questions asked by the interviewer are not pre-planned but rather emerge from the immediate context (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Jones, 2010). Because there is no interview protocol the best way to capture notes from this kind of interview may be to tape-record the interview (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Jones, 2010). With informal conversational interviews, the researcher has a clear plan, but minimum control (see figure 4.1) over how the respondent answers. The conversation can change course many times, and the researcher has minimal or no control over the direction of the conversation. He or she might follow explanations with additional questions and probes based on the topics that the respondent brings up, but the session would be relatively spontaneous. During my stay in the field, I conducted many of these informal conversational interviews with school heads and teachers. Whenever I saw the situation as suitable, I would start conversations with topics of interest to my research and let the discussions free-flow as I capture relevant data in my notebook. In most cases, I joined a discussion that was already going on.

Generating information through informal conversational interviews led to very rich and nuanced data and enhanced relevance of interview questions that built from and usually emerged from my observations. This type of interview can also be personalised to suite specific circumstances and individuals. These types of interviews were most suitable because I had a great deal of time to spend with the school heads and teachers I was studying. Harrel and Bradley (2009) also noted the suitability of this type of interview. However, different information collected from different people with different questions might make data organisation and analysis very difficult (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). This however did not trouble me since I focused on broad issues in all my interviews and I picked only data that was directly relevant to answering my research question.

4.13.2 Semi-structured interview

In semi-structured interviewing, a guide is used; with specific open-ended questions and specific topics that must be covered in outline form (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Please refer to appendix G, page 202 for the interview guide I used in this study. Among other things the guide shows that the questions are standardized and will be asked to all respondents. As the

interviewer, I had some discretion about the order in which I asked questions. I used probes to ensure that I got in-depth responses and also that all key issues were covered. I kept the interview on track by bringing the respondents back when they went off topic as suggested by Cohen et al. (2011) and Johnson & Christensen (2012). This kind of interview collected detailed information in a style that was somewhat systematic and conversational. As a result, semi-structured interviews are often used when the researcher wants to delve deeply into a topic and to understand thoroughly the answers provided (Harrel & Bradley, 2009). In addition, the interviewee responded to the same questions that made it easier to compare the responses during data analysis. After weeks of observation, I started these semi-structured interviews with school heads and teachers. The interviews were follow-ups to key issues that I wanted to understand thoroughly and came as supplementing observation the main research instrument. Artefacts were another supplementary data collection instrument and I discuss them in the paragraph that follow.

4.14 Artefacts

Artefacts can be defined broadly as physical objects found within the study setting like tools, implements, utensils and instruments that members of a culture use in their everyday work routines (Merriam, 2009; Zemli, 2008). In the field, I talked to participants to learn from them about the purpose, history and peculiar features of the artefacts I identified. I also made observations of how the school heads and teachers used the artefacts in daily influence processes. I then had conversational interviews with both teachers and school heads to learn how the artefacts were used as objects of leader influence. Please refer to Appendix G, page 202 for an artefacts observation schedule prepared for this study. The data collection methods discussed below were not used to generate data from all participants in the field. In fact a few participants were selected. In the following discussion, I will go through how I went about selecting research sites and participants.

4.15 SAMPLING

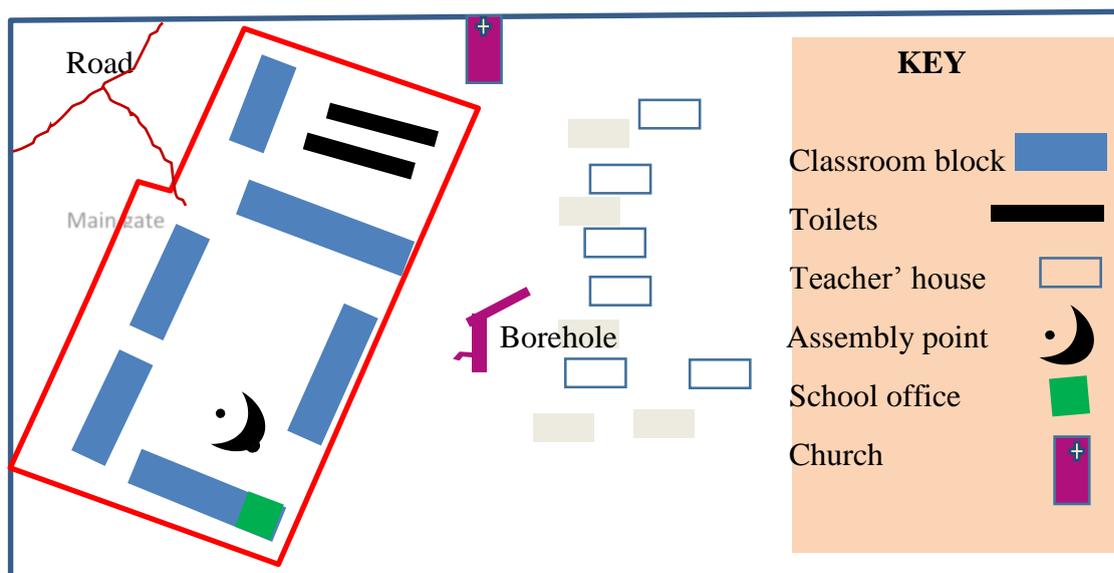
“The quality of a piece of research not only stands or falls by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 143). As a result discussing the sampling procedure used for this study is very important. I chose purposive sampling for this study. “Purposive sampling is a procedure in which the researcher samples whoever he or she believes to be representative of a given population,” (Springer, 2010, p. 107). In the process, the researcher handpicks the cases to be included in the sampling on the basis of his or her judgement of the typicality or possession of particular characteristics being sought (Cohen et al., 2011; Johnson & Christensen, 2012). Purposive

sampling is mostly used to access knowledgeable people; those with in-depth knowledge about particular issues (Cohen et al., 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). A sample of three high performing school heads from a population of forty school heads and five teachers from each selected school in Zvishavane district participated in the study. I agreed with the District education officer to use the Zimbabwe ministry of education's school heads yearly evaluation criteria for selecting the three high performing school heads. As already alluded to, the school heads were chosen because of their experience and high performance and this way they were most likely to be school heads leading their schools well and may be using leader influence behaviours effectively. I also assumed that since the school heads were appointed and experienced heads they were most likely to have in-depth knowledge about leadership issues born out of their experience in the field. I used stratified random sampling to select teachers. I first put teachers in groups of five year intervals according to years of teaching experience, then randomly picked one teacher from each group. This ensured that characteristics of the population were represented proportionately. The district was chosen purposefully for convenience and also because it is where I had my experiences as a head and experienced the problem I am now researching. Because my methodology required me to be at a school for a long time I could not use a bigger number of schools due to time constraints and my reluctance to have big samples that are representative in the sense of suitability for generalising to other contexts. I chose my sample for what it was instead.

4.16 THE SCHOOLS AND THEIR SCHOOL HEADS

As explained under sampling in section 4.13 above, the district education officer supplied the names of the school heads. They are Mr Sheik of Glow primary school, Mr Chinos of Myrna primary school and Mr Jacob of Zubi primary school. Please note that the names supplied here are pseudonyms. Glow, Myrna and Zubi are rural schools whose parents are subsistence farmers. The school heads have classes to teach and they divide their attention between office work and classroom work. The schools are not very big with teacher enrolments ranging from ten to 16 which is the normal trend for most schools in the district.

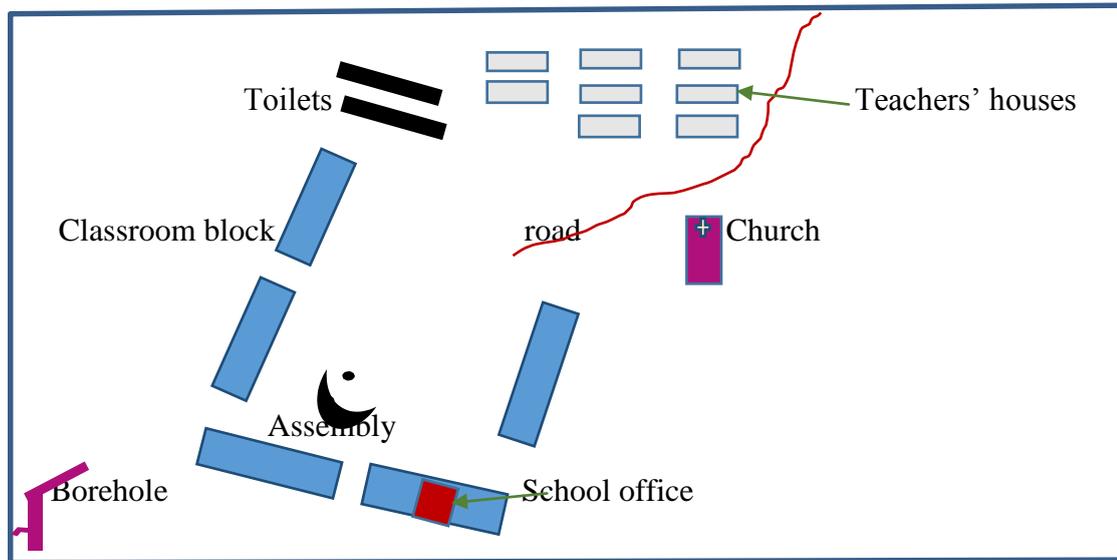
Figure 4.2 Sketch map of Glow school.



Mr Sheik of Glow was appointed a substantive school head in 1990 after working in many schools as a deputy head in in the same district of Zvishavane. He was posted to a primary schools that was in ruins and that is where his leadership talent was identified. When he was upgraded and left the school for Glow school in 2000, parents went to protest at the district office. Glow School was built by the Churches of Christ missionaries in 1922 and was handed over to the Runde rural council in 1969. Figure 4.2 is a sketch map of Glow School. The school was refurbished starting in 1994 using mostly donor funds. Mr Sheik sourced the donor funds and secured the support of parents who supplied free labour. Looking at the school, I saw that all the school buildings looked modern and must have been painted recently. The grounds were well managed. In fact, Glow school stands as a model school of what an ideal primary school should look like by local standards.

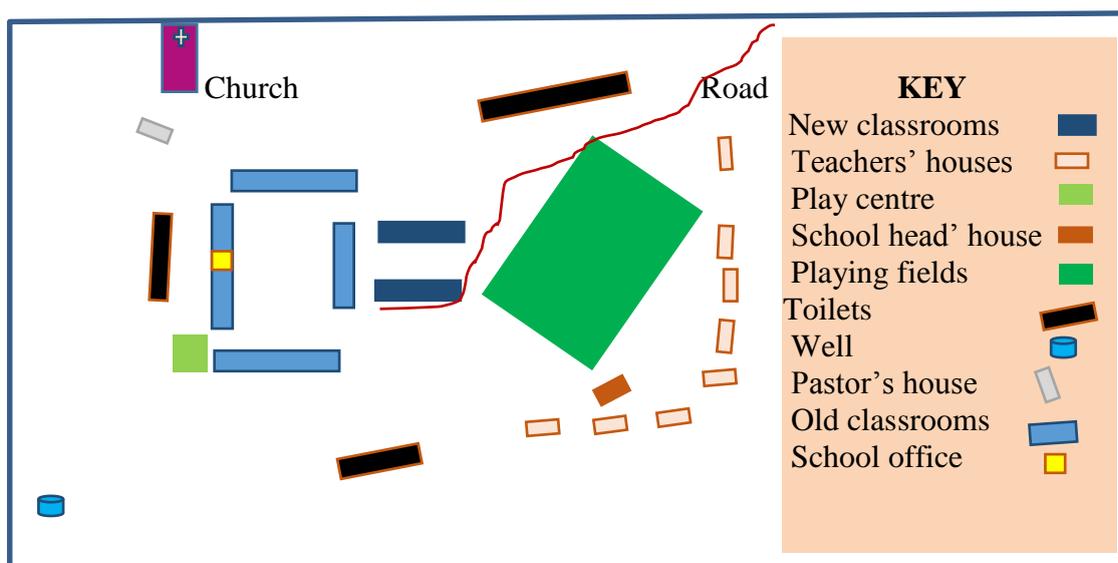
Mr Chinos of Myrna primary school was appointed deputy head in the 1983 and was subsequently promoted to become a school head in 1988. He worked deputising the current Education Officer at the Zvishavane district office for many years. He is well known for raising the pass rate of Myrna primary school from single digits to over 50% within a few years of his stay at the school. The school was started in the 1930s by Catholic missionaries and was handed over to the local council in 1969. I learnt from the School Development Committee (SDC) chairperson that plans are at an advanced stage to have the school back under Catholic control. There is a big catholic church inside the school yard. Though it is no longer a mission school, catholic traditions are visible in the school. Rockeries and other walled structures in the school have catholic inscriptions and drawings. Figure 4.3 below is a sketch map of Myrna primary school.

Figure 4.3 Sketch map of Myrna School



Mr Jacob of Zubi primary school is one of the most progressive school heads in the cluster judging by comments from the community. He was posted from Mberengwa district in 2009 to take over from a school head who had been in the post since 1975. Zubi is my home school and parents were frustrated because the school had been run down. When Mr Jacob took over, the school was face lifted in no time and it is now a famous school in sports, pass rate and general school improvement issues. Figure 4.4 below is a sketch map of Zubi School.

Figure 4.4 Sketch map of Zubi School



When I visited the school, two new classroom blocks and a teachers' house had been

constructed. There were toilets under construction. The school looked more or less like a construction site. As a local person I knew about the exceptional performance of the school in cluster tests and grade seven result as well as sports.

Looking at figure 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 showing sketch maps of the schools under study, their plans roughly follow an enclosed rectangular pattern. All classroom doors face inwards and this plan puts all classrooms in full view of the school head's gaze (Foucault, 1975) as he or she works from a strategically positioned office. I found this layout of buildings quite helpful during my fieldwork. I could easily observe what was happening in the entire school from the school head's office where I stayed most of the time. All the schools have a strong Christian background and have churches in their school yards or a short distance away (Refer to figure 4.2, 4.3 and 4.4 section 4.16). The role played by religion in influencing leader influence behaviours was significant and is discussed in detail in chapter 6, section 6.4.1, p. 140.

4.17 DATA ANALYSIS

For this study I used what Merriam (2009) calls Ethnographic data analysis. Ethnographic data analysis presents analysis as, (i) description, (ii) analysis and (iii) interpretation. Under description I gave detailed accounts of what was going on at the research sites. At the analysis level I identified essential features and systematically described interrelationships among them. This involved organising, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of participants' definition of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities (Cohen et al., 2011). Ethnographic data analysis should commence from the beginning of research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014; Pranee, 2009). In line with the above recommendation, data analysis was an on-going process done at the end of each day of field work. I read the data I generated in the field many times. In reading and re-reading the data, I made sense of the data I had generated. Early analysis helped me pick up important issues from this data and avoid data overload since massive sets of data were generated. As Pranee (2009) suggests, the re-reading of data I generated in the field and movement back and forth can also be a healthy corrective for built-in blind spots. Coming second time around, at times I was able to pick up insights that I had missed the first time. Also moving back and forth between the data I had generated was a strategy to collect new and often better data as I was refining my approaches each time. For example, during the first three days of data collection at Glow school, I did not indicate the venue where recorded events occurred. I realised that this was very important for contextualising the events

after reading and trying to make sense of my data on the third day of data generation. At the end of the data generation process, I read the whole set of data, identifying themes and coding them. I then put the themes into categories using a Microsoft office word program. I then searched for patterns in these categories. The last phase of Ethnographic data analysis is interpretation. Interpretation speaks to meaning (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). At this stage, I asked myself, what the patterns and themes revealed by my data mean with special regard to use of leader influence behaviours and leadership practice. Because my study is about people leaders and how they directly affect peoples' lives, I should strive to make results of my data analysis as trustworthy as possible by injecting rigor in them. The discussion that follow describes how I enhanced the trustworthiness of my findings.

4.18 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

The terms validity and reliability are not suitable for the qualitative approach, because they are seen as being aligned with a quantitative approach and therefore impossible to be achieved within qualitative inquiry (Cohen et al., 2011; Ntaote, 2011). Guba & Lincoln (1994) proposed what they say was a qualitative criteria for measuring the trustworthiness of research and their criteria act as principles against which the trustworthiness of this research will be evaluated. These criteria include credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability.

4.18.1 Credibility

Credibility involves establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participants in the research (Creswell, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; McMillan & Schumacher, 2014). These authors point out that from this perspective, the purpose of qualitative research is to describe or understand the phenomena of interest from the participants' eyes. So the participants are the only people who can legitimately judge the creditability of the results (Ntaote, 2011). To meet this condition I used member checking, that is, getting feedback on data interpretations and conclusions from the School Heads and teachers themselves. In most of the cases my interpretations and conclusions agreed with those of the participants.

4.18.2 Transferability

Transferability refers to the fit or match between the research context and other contexts as judged by the reader (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014) and the extent to which the study invites readers to

make connections between elements of the study and their own experiences. The qualitative researcher can enhance transferability by thoroughly describing the research context and the assumptions that were central to the research (Ntaote, 2011). In my study this was enhanced by describing the whole research process and setting. Sketch maps of research sites were also provided to give a vivid description of the research sites (Refer to figure 4.2 to 4.4 section 4.16, p. 83-85). Descriptions are a vehicle for communicating to the reader a holistic and realistic picture. The geographical, time and socio-economic context of the Zvishavane schools under study is described generously to make it possible for the readers to decide whether similar processes will be at work in their own settings. I also made available data generation instruments in the appendices (Refer to Appendix G, p. 202) to enhance descriptions of how I did the research.

4.18.3 Dependability

Dependability refers to whether one can track the processes and procedures used to collect and interpret the data (Cohen et al., 2011). A trail is left behind and the trail comprises the tools used for data collection, personal notes, memos and documented procedures for analysing the data and generating theory (Ntaote, 2011). I described in detail and thoroughly, how I collected and analysed data what Leedy and Ormrod (2005) call an 'Audit trail'. The tools used for data collection, personal notes, tape recordings and documented procedures for analysing the data will be kept safe so that other researchers who may want to check on the dependability of my work can refer to them.

4.18.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results can be confirmed or corroborated by others (Creswell, 2009; Ntaote, 2011). I achieved this by documenting the procedures that were employed for checking and rechecking the data throughout the study (Refer to section 4. 11). Audit trails involving the use of written field notes, and tape recordings were used and filed for other readers who may want to verify my work. I also beefed up the confirmability of my findings by using 'peer debriefing' which involves asking a colleague to examine my field notes and then asking me questions that helped me examine my assumptions. The colleague is a lecturer I work with at our college who had just completed his doctorate degree with the Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University. I also used inter-rater reliability; the process of checking on the consistency between ratters to reduce the potential bias of a single researcher generating and analysing the data (Creswell, 2009; Johnson & Christensen, 2012). In this case I asked workmates

who teach Research to code several interviews on my behalf. The workmates were very eager to assist me with this task. However, there were slight differences in their coding. This was largely because some issues fell in more than one category and at times this was or was not noted during coding by some of the workmates when coding the interviews. I easily corrected this.

4.19 ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethical issues involve drawing up a set of principles to protect the rights of participants in research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014; Somekh & Lewin, 2011). For example, before undertaking data generation in the field I applied for formal ethics approval from the university's local ethics committee explaining very clearly how I will store the research data including ensuring that participants' details and their responses will not be accessed by other parties. My application was approved (Refer to Appendix H, p. 207). Below, I address in more detail what I have done to address ethical dilemmas I faced in the field namely informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity.

4.19.1 Informed consent

Informed consent means that, "those interviewed or observed give permission in full knowledge of the purpose of research and the consequences for them of taking part" (Somekh & Lewin, 2011, p. 26). In an informed consent letter I sent to participating school heads and teachers I explained the purpose of my study (Refer to appendix E, p. 199). I gave a description of the project, the methods I used, the nature of their involvement, how I will protect them from any harm and how they may benefit from participation as means of addressing the issue of participants' expectations of the project versus the actual nature of the research project. I also included a description of participants' rights at each point in the project and gave my contact details. I also gave contact details of my supervisors and the Dean of Faculty of Education of the University of KwaZulu-Natal so that the participants have someone to contact if they have questions about the project or if they have a concern about a particular issue related to the project. I also stated when their involvement will begin and end.

4.19.2 Confidentiality and anonymity

Confidentiality is a principle that allows people not only to talk in confidence but also to refuse to

allow dissemination of findings that they think may harm them (Merriam, 2009; Somekh & Lewin, 2011). An essential aspect of observational research is how I protected the anonymity of the participants by presenting observations in reports in such a manner that identities of my participants remained undisclosed (Refer to section 4.16, p. 83). I ensured that all information and data obtained was held in confidence and was not disclosed to anyone else and that names and identifying information were removed from the final report. Pseudonyms were used instead of real names. All data collected will be kept at a safe location at the university and will be disposed of in the most appropriate way after five years.

4.20 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to discuss the paradigm, design, methodology and methods I used to carry out the study as well as how I sampled and analysed generated data as well as how I protected the rights of my participants. I started by giving an overview of major paradigms the positivist, postmodern, critical and interpretivism paradigms. I justified why I chose the interpretivist paradigm for this study. I also discussed the research approach chosen for the study. Next I discussed Ethnography as my chosen research design, showing how it links with my paradigm and the nature of research I am doing. After this, I discussed the methods. I discussed observation, interviews and artefacts as the methods to be used to generate data to answer my research questions. I discussed how I sampled sites and participants for the study and how I analysed data using ethnographic data analysis approaches of coding and seeking patterns in data. I discussed Guba and Lincoln's (1994) criteria for evaluating validity and reliability issues in qualitative research. Lastly, I discussed ethical issues impacting on this study.

As I move to the next chapter the key issue arising from this chapter is that, one's worldview (paradigm) will influence what phenomena is worth researching and how best to go about doing that research. It influences what the researcher will consider as data worth capturing in the field and the data that will be taken as irrelevant for research. In the next chapter, I look at the practical data generation in the field.

CHAPTER 5

ENACTING LEADERSHIP: SCHOOL HEADS CONSULTATION, STEWARDSHIP AND SHARING RESPONSIBILITY INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four focused on the research design and methodology. This Chapter focuses on the findings and discussion thereof related to research questions one to three of my study. The critical questions are concerned with how school heads influence teachers in their day-to-day leadership practice, how teachers respond to school heads' influence behaviours and why teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do.

In this Chapter I present and discuss data on leader influence behaviours of consultation, stewardship and sharing responsibility leader influence behaviours used by school heads derived from literature and identified from the data I collected at the three schools. To make chapters manageable I will present and discuss data on the other influence behaviours of empowerment, rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and legitimation in chapter six. I look at how school heads used the identified leader influence behaviours to influence teachers in areas relating to the core duties and responsibilities of school heads. The core duties and responsibilities of the school head are policy formulation and implementation, resource allocation, curricular and co-curricular activities, teacher development, communication and teacher discipline. However in the data presentation and analysis no one leader influence behaviour appeared across all core areas of the principal's work. Some influence behaviours would appear in many core areas of the principal's work but the appearances were very minimal and insignificant for analysis. I decided to leave out these appearances in the data presentation and discussion and discuss those that appeared in a more significant way in an area; suggesting a sustained use of the influence behaviour in that area.

For each identified leader influence behaviour I present and discuss data on how it was used by the three school heads and how teachers responded to the school heads' use of the influence behaviour. After presenting the leadership influence behaviour, next I present and discuss data on why teachers responded to each of the leader influence behaviours used by school heads in the way that they did. I infuse into the data presentation and discussion an analytical interpretation of the data by drawing on my adopted theoretical framework and relevant literature. At the end of the presentation of each leadership influence behaviour, I engage in a cross school analysis of the findings. To strengthen data presentation and analysis and to add to the descriptions in this ethnographic study, I capture the participants' lived experiences through descriptions from sustained participant observation field notes and numerous verbatim responses from semi-structured interviews I had with interviewees. This is also supplemented by conversational and artefact interviews.

5.2 CONSULTATION

From the data I gathered, consultation is one of the leader influence behaviours school heads use to influence teacher behaviours. Consultation leader influence behaviours are when the leader encourages the led to suggest improvements in a proposal (Yukl, 2010). In this case the leader who is the school head can ask teachers to help plan an activity or change for which the teachers' support and assistance are desired. A school head can ask teachers to give suggestions that can help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem. In the next paragraphs I present and discuss findings on how school heads used consultation to influence teacher behaviours.

5.2.1 Schools heads' use of consultation leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

At a very early stage of my data gathering at the three schools, I observed that consultation influence behaviours were used in most core areas of the school head's work but more intensely in the area of curriculum implementation. As a result, I sought to find out more about the school heads' use of consultation leader influence behaviours in this area. In this

area I focused on school heads' critical role during the after assembly caucus meetings in coordinating and influencing curriculum implementation. As I gathered data at each school I learnt that the curriculum comprised curricular and core curriculum activities. In this context, curricular activities are teaching and learning activities that are more academic happening mostly inside classrooms and core curriculum activities are those that mostly align themselves with sports and recreation done mostly outside classrooms. I observed that holding after assembly caucus meetings which were held twice or thrice a week normally lasting ten to fifteen minutes was a culture at the three schools. However, I learnt that this event which looks ordinary was used as a unique management tool that helped influence teacher behaviours and drive curriculum implementation in the three schools. The caucuses were done whilst teachers were standing at the assembly point and were chaired by the teacher on duty. The purpose was to raise daily operational issues the schools were facing and suggesting solutions to them. I however observed that during the consultative caucuses the school heads actively participated and brought in many issues they wanted to influence teachers over. I observed openness and two way communication in these gatherings which at times took longer than expected because teachers and the school heads talked and debated issues. During the consultation process teachers and school heads worked as a collaboration of leaders tackling professional challenges about curriculum implementation as a collective. This collaborative culture is not what I observed in schools I have worked before where school heads took this opportunity to give orders and make announcements before teachers dispersed for their classes.

I asked each school head to shed more light on how they achieved influence through these consultative meetings. This is what the Glow school head had to say, "We say everyone must be head." He explained that the ownership of ideas that result from this open door policy of consulting results in most teachers being eager to implement policies, "... in such a way that the head will not always be on your back, you supervise yourself." In response to the same issue of achieving influence through these caucus meetings, Mr Chinos the Myrna school head had the following to say: "Our coming together is to find out from the other staff members what their views are concerning that identified problem... We work on consensus"

Mr Chinos said he involved all teachers giving them a sense of personal obligation to implement decisions that were commonly arrived at.

On the same matter Mr Jacob the head of Zubi School said the following: “The way we work here is such that we want ideas to come from all directions.” For example below is an excerpt from my field notes of what I observed at one of the caucus meetings at Zubi School which partly demonstrates what Mr Jacob said. The school head gave this comment after the caucus had discussed class performance after end of year tests.

I am also concerned about the state of our text books in some of our classrooms. I was thinking that the deputy head and TIC move round classrooms inspecting our text books and writing a report for each grade because I feel as teachers we are accountable for the books in our care.” For half a minute teachers talk amongst themselves and the head waits for the buzz to go down. A teacher from the infants department rejects the head’s suggestion saying, “When we were allocated classes this year we did not get an inventory and the state of books was not checked as a result. So the report you are suggesting will not be fair to some of us.” The head says, I understand. Mr X (deputy head who keeps inventory records) can we improve on this for next year.

The majority of teachers I interviewed at Glow and Zubi also agreed with what the school heads said. Teachers pointed out that they aired their views freely at caucus meetings. For example Mrs Dube of Glow School said, “The head rarely speaks. In most cases he gives teachers the floor and they say what they think.” Adding to this Mr Celo of Glow school said Mr Sheik would, “only moderate the discussion and guide us where we deviate from broad ministry policy.” Still on the same issue Mrs Tom of Zubi School said, “There is room for us to contribute...We feel that we are part and parcel of the school and we are valued and trusted contributors to the running of the school.” As a result teachers actively contributed to leadership by suggesting ideas they thought worked best, she said. Whilst the generality of teachers interviewed said they actively participated in decision making, some teachers at Myrna had a different opinion. The majority of these teachers interpreted participation in ways similar to what Mrs Moyo said, “Our participation is minimal since it is the admin team that dominates the discussions. I do not think this is good for the school since it makes you

feel like you are nobody at a place.” She said there was no enthusiasm in implementing most curriculum issues whose decisions were arrived at in this way.

I also observed the use of consultation influence behaviours in the area of human resource allocation. I became particularly interested in the more sensitive area of class allocation. I wanted to know how school heads influenced teacher behaviours by the way they allocated human resources in this area in their schools because it was an area that challenged me a lot when I was a school head. I remember at one time engaging a third of the staff at my school who were refusing to take up classes I had allocated to them. Like the other school heads I worked with at that time. I would sit and consider supervision reports to allocate teachers classes and then announce this in a staff meeting. The approach at the three schools in this study was totally different as revealed in semi-structured interviews I had with the three school heads. At Glow school, instead of closing everyone else out and doing teacher class allocation alone, the school head, Mr Sheik purported that he, “may discuss allocations here and there but class allocation rests with the head.” In an interview with teachers, the majority of them, like Mr Soko concurred that “Sometimes he can call you and consult but at times he just does it alone.” He said on many occasions some teachers had rejected classes allocated to them leading to a lot of misunderstandings. I also see this approach as breeding mistrust as teachers would feel that they are unfairly treated since some are consulted and some are not.

On the other hand, responding to the same issue, Mr Jacob the Zubi School head said, “The five members of his administration team do the staffing. I give them pieces of paper and ask them to come up with a staffing list then we look at this together.” The school head’s assertion corroborated what teachers interviewed at the school said which is exemplified by what Mrs Tom pointed out when she said, “The school head consults the management team (Teacher In Charge ‘TIC’, Deputy head and senior teachers). In fact they do it together.” Here Mr Jacob involved a team of five senior members of his administration team who in this case participated in teacher supervision. The team consulted with teachers and used that feedback in their meeting with the school head. Also, in most schools qualified teachers are not consulted concerning staffing issues but the Zubi school head was very generous with his consultation behaviours. Apart from consulting all qualified teachers I observed him and his

management team consult all student teachers about classes he could allocate then in 2015. However, the meeting took very long and was punctuated by diverging views, debates and arguments. The school head allowed this to play out until consensus was arrived at. Some suggestions he made were brushed aside by some senior teachers but he did not appear to be hurt. I asked him about this after the meeting and his response was,

At times my ideas are accepted, but at times they may be rejected and they give their own reasons...The way we work here is such that we want ideas to come from all directions so that at the end our decisions are consistent and not questionable. At times these senior teachers will be arguing from experience so the head learns from their experiences too.

His approach seemed to be more inclusive than what was happening at Glow and when class allocations were eventually announced, teachers responded by clapping hands and passing comments to say they were eager to meet their new classes. I saw this as putting teachers in their positive minds well before the actual teaching and learning started with their classes. Such positive influence could influence teacher performance and work output.

On the same subject of class allocation, consultation was even widened further at Myrna primary school. This is what Mr Chinos, the school head had to say on how he did teacher class allocations. “Well over the years I haven’t met with resistance unless if it is hidden resistance.” I probed and said, “But what have you observed like you say at times you observe. I want to believe that you have observed something over time.” He explained saying,

Where there are reservations, the issue is brought to the attention of the deputy head... As we move towards the end of the year like this, we give members a chance to decide which classes to take into the next year. Whilst we will be having our own tentative allocations based on supervision of teachers and also pupils’ work, but we move on to consult.

On how the final allocation of classes was done he said, “It will be based on consensus with staff members. Whilst we ask and they may give diverging views we still have to sit down and agree.” What Mr Chinos said was echoed by most teachers in their responses in a semi-structured interview. A typical response from the teachers is what Mr Fuma of Myrna school

said, “At times the head sends a circular for teachers to propose grades they want to teach and can perform at their best level; then the head starts from there.” Mr Chinos involved all teachers giving them a sense of personal obligation and teachers said they welcomed their new classes.

A cross analysis of the three schools revealed that caucus meetings were held at all schools in an effort to involve everyone in decision making. However, teachers at Myrna felt there was no genuine consultation at these caucus briefings which were usually dominated by the management team. I also noted that a smaller number of people (management team) was closely consulted by the Glow school head while at Myrna and Zubi there was a tendency to consult as many teachers as possible on class allocations. Falling back on one leg of my three- legged theoretical framework and using lenses of collegial management to analyse noted instances of close consultation, Bush (2011) sees this way of managing, where all are involved as resonating with what he called pure collegiality where everyone must be heard. This is because collegiality sees it as ethical and wholly appropriate to involve people in the decisions that affect their professional lives. The idea of involving all teachers in leadership decisions is also a building block of the second leg of my three-legged theoretical framework of distributed leadership. Its core assumption is that each member has some leadership capability that is needed by the group at one time or the other (Harris, 2008). This then could be the justification for widely consulting like what I observed at the three schools under study, as a way of enriching school leadership with this untapped reserve of leadership talent in teachers.

However, satisfying each and every teacher and at the same time meeting all accountability requirements from the ministry of primary and secondary education may not be feasible at all times. Teachers may have subjective and selective perceptions regarding staffing and other issues leading to disagreements as was noted at the three schools in some areas (Refer to section 5.2.1 above) If not handled properly, this approach can result in ‘too many cooks spoiling the broth’. This can be one of the reasons why some school heads (like what the Glow School head did) would avoid pure collegiality and restricted distributing leadership to the management team only. However, analysing this using the third leg of my three-pronged

theoretical framework and drawing from Foucault's analytical tools, wide consultation can be seen as good practice. Foucault (2002) sees good leadership practice as a situation where certain actions modify others. This suggests that ideas should be allowed to come from all teachers and school heads since good practice is born out of the interaction of their ideas. The big word is influence. On another note, teachers gave interesting reasons for the ways they responded to consultation behaviours of schools heads. This is what I present and discuss below.

5.2.2 Reasons for particular teacher responses to consultation influence behaviours

I was interested in knowing reasons behind teacher responses when consultation influence behaviours did not go well and also when they went well. Consultation influence behaviours did not go well in some cases at Myrna. I noted that teachers responded by exerting minimal effort when they realised or felt they were not fully consulted at after assembly consultative caucus meetings at Myrna School, as was echoed by Mrs Moyo and many teachers at Myrna School (Refer to section 5.2.1 above.) In a similar case it was noted that at times Glow teachers rejected class allocations done by the school head. On this issue Mr Nkomo of Glow said, "As a result other members end up withdrawing because they feel that their views are not valued." In both cases I learn that when people feel valued they take value in what they do (Good, 2011). On the other hand some consultation influence behaviours went on well in the area of policy implementation and human resource allocation during both caucus meetings and class allocations. On this note I asked the Glow school head why teachers actively participated if consulted during caucus meetings and he said they liked the culture of collaboration, openness and two way communication at the meetings. Mr Sheik explained that he took his teachers as partners in running the school and recognised and valued their professional wisdom. Teachers liked this and it enthused them to always contribute actively wherever it was needed. I asked some of the Glow teachers in a semi-structured interview why they were so enthusiastic to participate at caucus meetings. Some of the teachers, for example Mrs. Dube said, "I like it because he (school head) recognises us as mature and thinking adults." Mrs Dube's response suggests that if teachers feel their contributions are valued they will put value in whatever they do. This may enhance practice by improving teacher performance and their organisational citizenship (helping) behaviours.

On the same issue of participation in caucus meetings, Mr Jacob the Zubi school head had this to say,

We don't impose because we see that if they see that their ideas are welcome and taken seriously they also support the new policy. They feel a sense of belonging to the institution. This ownership of ideas makes them feel obliged to fully implement the new policy.

What Mr Jacob said about participation in caucus meetings above appeared to be a sentiment shared by many teachers at his school. For example, in a semi-structured interview Mrs Tari of Zubi said they actively participate in consultation meetings at their school because, “We feel that we are part and parcel of the school and we are valued and trusted contributors to the running of the school.” Responding to the same issue the Myrna school head also reiterated the issue that teachers responded to consultation by actively participating in leadership processes because they felt the school head recognised and valued contributions they made to the smooth running of the school and if there was a challenge the teachers, “Will take the problem as their own problem which needs a collective solution.” They would then actively participate in resolving the identified leadership challenge collectively. However, this did not come out when I interviewed Myrna teachers who as earlier on indicated that caucus discussions did not fully engage them.

When analysing teachers' responses to leader influence behaviours of consultation, one can say teachers' responses to consultation behaviours at Glow, Myrna and Zubi were similar. Their responses suggest that they responded to school heads' consultation leader influence behaviours by actively contributing and committing themselves to issues that shape leadership practice in the schools if they perceived consultation to be genuine. For example, Mrs Tari of Zubi said, “We feel that we are part and parcel of the school and we are valued and trusted contributors to the running of the school.” The teachers believed that the school heads valued their contributions and also recognized them as players in the leadership process.

In trying to find out why teachers at the three schools showed greater commitment and participation than would normally happen in schools that I have taught or led in the past, I applied Foucault's (1975; 1998; 2002) analytical tools. I saw that what happened at the three schools in circumstances where consultation was genuine and accepted by teachers concurred with the migration in Foucault's thinking about the role of the leader and the led relationship. Here, we see a shift in Foucault's earlier assertions in his archaeological and genealogical works (Anita, 2010). In his archaeological and genealogical works he saw the individual he called the 'subject' as constituted by power and having to get accustomed to it. He later migrated to a new assertion in his late works in Ethics and Aesthetics where the individual now called the 'self' was self-constituting and capable of exercising agency (Anita, 2010; Foucault, 2002). This transforms the passive teacher of yesteryear into an active and influential individual as we see with teachers under study here who directly shaped leadership practice in their schools. As already alluded to in the presentation, instead of being mere followers, the teachers at the three schools actively participated in the leadership processes. They openly and freely aired their views and would reject or support leadership initiatives from their school heads like what happened at Glow and Myrna Schools (Refer to section 5.2.1 above). This may be an eye opener to the reader that collegial management and distributed leadership approaches that promote consultation may not be based on harmony as it sounds like in the literature. The consultation process can be frustratingly long and may result in confrontations and tensions due to the open talk and diverging views from teachers. I however, see this not as a weakness but as a characteristic of the democratic process and culture. Apart from consultation, the school heads also used stewardship influence behaviours to influence teacher behaviours and I present and discuss data on this below.

5.3 STEWARDSHIP INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS

The word stewardship has of late been used in general descriptions of the characteristic of a leader in the evolving theory of Servant leadership (Refer to chapter 2 section 2.3.2, p.21) which has been called a new research area (Burton and Peachy; 2013; Dierendonck, 2010; Parris & Peachy, 2013). It has been described as a measure of the extent to which the leader cares about the individual follower's concerns and is willing to support and care for the

followers and organisational needs (Pounder, 2008; Riaz & Haider, 2010). They were generally willing to take responsibility for the entire school and put the interests of the school over and above their own self-interests. In the process the school heads acted as role models; setting an example for teachers to emulate and inspiring them to act in the common interests of all. I present data generated at the three schools below showing how school heads used stewardship behaviours as tools to influence teacher behaviours.

5.3.1 Schools heads' use of stewardship leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

In the first part of the presentation I looked at how school heads influenced teacher behaviours in the area of curriculum implementation. In this area I focused on the role played by the school heads with regard to implementing both the curricular and extracurricular activities in their schools. What I observed at the three schools was that there were no general hands hired to do general cleaning and minor repairs in the schools. These activities, as a result are part of the extracurricular programme and are done mostly by pupils under the supervision of teachers. But at times you find teachers volunteering and working with pupils where they think pupils are in need of help. However, if money is available schools can hire contractors. In my data gathering I started by Glow school, observing and interviewing to learn more about school heads' influence behaviours in the area of extracurricular activities. For example, when the school's prize giving ceremony was just over, I observed the prize giving day ceremony secretary thank teachers at an after assembly caucus for making the prize giving day ceremony a success. The secretary also thanked the school head for volunteering to remove the tent and clearing the arena that was used for the ceremony. It surprised me that the school head humbled himself to that extent and volunteered to do such menial jobs when teachers and pupils or some contracted people could have done this. This was not the only incident when I observed the school head volunteering and humbling himself during the general work period. One day after the teacher on duty had assigned pupils work to do and was about to assign teachers to supervise the pupils the school head said, "Excuse me. Is there anyone who can assist me put some screws on teachers' broken chairs? I have repaired the five in the office already." One teacher volunteered. Mr Sheik left with the teacher for his office but before they got there another teacher had joined them. I took it that

the reaction he got from teachers was as a result of the transformative power of the stewardship behaviours he always displayed during his interactions with his teachers.

In another show of putting the school's interests first and displaying hard work and selflessness, there was a day when I was at the classes very early and I was waiting for the school head to arrive whilst talking to contractors repairing school furniture. When Mr Sheik arrived I told him that I heard these contractors working until very late at night yesterday. He said, "I was working with them." I was not expecting a school head to be out and working with contractors up until very late like this. Thoughts of underhand dealings with contractors can even cross one's mind. In an artefact interview (Photo of the school's soccer team) I asked teachers how the school head influenced the success depicted in the photo and what happens in extracurricular activities in general. Mrs Dube echoed a popular sentiment among teachers I interviewed that Mr Sheik is not good at coaching but at times you could see him mending the pitch or doing other duties at the sports field as a way of showing his involvement." Following the same issue but looking at curricular issues, this is what Mr Sheik had to say, "I always say when you do your classroom displays do it like what you see here," (Referring to very good charts in his office). His modelling behaviours were cited by most teachers in an artefact (school office) interview for teachers. For example Mrs Dube explained, "His office is also exemplary because it depicts what he wishes us to do in our classrooms. His office depicts hard work and I think he leads by example." From my experience working as a teacher, school heads are notorious for being away from the work station and not for sacrificing to work beyond time and deeply involving themselves in extra-role duties like what Mr Sheik was doing. I understood the above observed behaviours and interview data to be the school head's way of influencing teachers' behaviours through modelling good behaviours and also attitudes of putting the organisation's interests first before self-interests. When I saw teachers volunteering enthusiastically to assist repair teachers' chairs and volunteering to take up responsibilities in curricular and extracurricular activities, I understood it to be partly due to the effect and influence of Mr Sheik's influence behaviours.

I did not observe Mr Chinos, the Myrna School head actively involving himself in extracurricular activities like Mr Sheik did. However, his self-sacrificing and modelling behaviours meant to influence teacher behaviours can be discerned from a clip of an artefact (photo of the school team celebrating a win) interview I had with him. He said, “What I normally do and what I did with this team is, each time they were playing I would buy them some food items from my own pocket.” I asked him how teachers responded to these gestures and he replied, “They have been forthcoming and even my presence at these sporting events means a lot to them.”

Teachers responded to the school head’s influence behaviours by volunteering to take up responsibilities like leading in various sporting disciplines. They trained hard and won at many competitions as evidenced by trophies and merit certificates I saw in the school office. Mr Chinos however said despite the volunteering culture deeply rooted in the school, “You know, there are some members who would not want to volunteer even if it is known that they can do it very well.”

I also learnt about Mr Chinos’ influence behaviours in curricular issues from a conversation with his teachers. I joined five teachers who were seated under a classroom veranda where the school choir was practising. They were discussing the school’s pass rate in previous years and predicting how the current grade seven class may perform in the final exam they had written recently. I asked how the high pass rates were achieved and one of the teachers had this to say,

I partly owe it to the way the head supervises teachers...He surprises me. He knows all the pupils in the school, he knows what’s happening in each class and also what’s happening at the grounds. It becomes embarrassing to be ignorant if you work with such a leader.

Teachers’ comments above suggest that they owe effective curriculum implementation to the school head modelling exemplary behaviours which oblige them to be knowledgeable about curricular issues.

The Zubi School head participated in other extracurricular activities but his participation was more in sports. I always saw him at the grounds when teams were training. In an artefact

(Girls soccer kit) interview I asked him how the girls' team managed to beat all teams in their zone. His response was, "They had a lot of training sessions with my boys' soccer team and this improved their performance." He said he was the boys' soccer head coach. It was my first time to hear of a school head coaching a team full time in the district. This influenced his teachers' participation in extracurricular activities. For example, on this issue Mr Jack a teacher at Zubi School had this to say, "His enthusiasm in sports made me self-evaluate my own participation in sports and I concluded that I must do more next time." I also observed Mr Jacob's role with regards to curriculum implementation. I observed that he spent a lot of time teaching his class and also assisting the grade seven teacher with materials and any other things she may need for her class. I asked Mr Jacob about his passion for teaching and his response was, "Yah. I like teaching. Like someone who has once tasted success you will always want to repeat tasting it over and over again." As to how Mr Jacob's behaviours influenced teachers by his own dedication and commitment to duty I asked Mrs Tom of Zubi in an artefact interview (Merit certificate) and said, "I can see that merit certificate at the top of other certificates put up against the wall. For you to reach that level of success depicted by that certificate, how did you manage as a school?" She replied saying, "What happened is that all teachers who could assist offered to teach the grade seven class on a part time basis for free. I would see the school head teaching this class most of the time. We work as a team here." I asked her what message it sent to her as a teacher at this school that the school head is seen at the forefront of teaching. This is what she said, "One would say if the school head commits himself to teaching, what about me? Should I sit? This school is my 5th school after college and I have never seen a school head committed to teaching and learning like this head."

From my observations and interview data, I concluded that Mr Jacob influenced curricular issues by acting as a role model; setting an example for teachers to emulate and inspiring them to act in the common interests of all. As a result I saw teachers trying to work as hard as he did, and volunteering to take up tasks like teaching extra lessons to the grade seven class over the holidays as a way of showing their eagerness to work selflessly like stewards. However, at one time I said to myself it looks like Mr Jacob was failing to let go his teacher behaviours to assume his new role as a school head. Though it was part of leading by

example I felt he spent more time directly involving himself with extra and curricular issues than other leadership issues.

Looking at how stewardship behaviours were used across the three schools, I would say the Glow School head used stewardship behaviours more than the other school heads. Other factors that could have been contributing to this could have been the set-up of his school or the activities that were happening at his school at the time of my data gathering (context). I however learnt that stewardship behaviours at the three schools enhanced leadership practice in that they stimulated teachers to model the leaders' behaviours. A collective culture based on hard work, volunteering to take responsibilities and displaying of extra-role behaviours noted across the three schools may have been as a result of the modelling and selflessness displayed by the school heads.

Drawing from Foucault's ideas of normalising judgement (Refer to chapter 3, section 3.4.2.2, p. 54), whereby rules and norms are established, then learned and adopted by individuals, I saw what was happening at the three schools as a refinement of the application of these ideas. Instead of using rules and punishments (managerialism) to control teacher behaviours, the school heads modelled desired behaviours and exhibited selflessness, ideals and values (in place of rules and norms) that influenced teachers' work behaviours in a more robust way than what normalising rules could possibly achieve. Foucault saw disciplinary power as a more efficient exercise of power when he compared it with what used to happen in the 17th century as described in his genealogical accounts of disciplinary practices. Here influence was achieved through public torture and executions of offenders in what Foucault called 'the spectacle of the scaffold' (Foucault, 1975). But in the context of the three schools under study, it looked like stewardship behaviours contribute to a large extent towards the most efficient use of power. Compliance and change of behaviour by teachers at the three schools was not necessarily achieved as a result of normalising processes of norms, rules and punishments but was to a large extent as a result of an intricate infusion and blending of these norms with desired work behaviours. This resulted in the influencing behaviours of stewardship here under discussion having a robust and more enduring effect on teacher

behaviours than what disciplinary power alone could possibly achieve. Stewardship behaviours can be derived from descriptions of servant leadership theory. Instead of rules, threats and punishment Servant leadership emphasize on service to others and recognition that the most important part in building an organization with a legacy of success is the people in it (Paris & Peachy, 2012). Hence the school heads (behaving as servant leaders) directed their stewardship behaviours towards building desirable behaviours in their teachers as a way of achieving school success and good leadership practice.

The culture of volunteering to do both curricular and extracurricular related activities where volunteering was needed was common amongst teachers at the three schools. I used Foucault's analytical tools to analyse this. He purported that, for it to qualify as a power relationship all actors involved should at least have some degree of freedom so that they can decide on their own which choices to make (Foucault, 2002). This is supported by Corigan (2013) who purports that Distributed leadership, the second pillar of my theoretical framework, is also presented as more democratic than previous leadership arrangements. Following the reasoning above, it can be argued then that, the power relationships that resulted from school heads' stewardship behaviours facilitated a democratic school climate where choices, say to volunteer or not to volunteer could be made freely. However, it cannot be totally ruled out that members could have been volunteering out of pressures to conform to norms of social desirability than vicariously learning from the behaviours of the school heads. Reasons why teachers volunteered and why some were reluctant to respond to stewardship behaviours by volunteering will be presented and discussed later in paragraphs below.

A cross analysis of teachers' responses to stewardship leader influence behaviours shows that the majority of teachers in the three school responded to school heads' influence behaviours by copying their school heads' behaviours. This is in line with social learning theory which propounds that people learn not only from their own experiences, but also vicariously/socially through others' experiences (Bandura, 1977, Roger et al., 2011). Following on this reasoning, the majority of teachers at Zubi School for example responded saying they learnt to like and enjoy teaching particularly the grade seven class from their school head. For example, on this issue Mr Jack a teacher at Zubi School had this to say,

“What the head was doing (sacrificing to teach the grade seven class during the term and over the holidays for free) was a challenge to me and I said to myself I must also go and teach the grade seven class.”

5.3.2 Why teachers volunteered to take up responsibilities

I became interested in knowing why the majority of teachers responded to their school heads' stewardship leader influence behaviours by volunteering to take up tasks instead of having them allocated or delegated to them by the school head and why a few were reluctant to volunteer. I asked Zubi School teachers in a semi-structured interview why they responded by volunteering to offer free lessons to the grade seven class. The majority of the teachers shared the same sentiment echoed by Mrs Dick that the school head, “inspires us as teachers to work hard and also commit ourselves to work.” Mrs Dick said Mr Jacob is committed to teaching and learning and this influenced her work attitude to a great extent. As a result that's why she always volunteered and committed herself when there is a task that needs to be done.

Also responding to why teachers volunteered to take up responsibilities, Mr Celo of Glow said, “It is a good way of doing things because teachers go to areas they are best. I however don't volunteer to take more duties because I am already overloaded.” Mr Celo elaborated that they always volunteer because they saw it as a good way of behaving, emulating the behaviour of their school head who had done it with success over and over again. As a result they had come to believe that volunteering and committing oneself to a task breeds success. Mr Celo also hinted at why some teachers would not volunteer. He claimed heavy workloads were a limiting factor. It's most probable however that this could not have affected the whole group of non-volunteers in the same way. There could have been other teachers who did not volunteer because it's within their characters. Similar sentiments about why teachers volunteered were also expressed by most teachers at Myrna school. For example, Mr Fuma of Myrna said, “If 'Mukuru' (senior/school head) moves out of his house so that teachers get accommodation and this makes everyone happy in the school, it becomes desirable for us all to act in the same way.”

An analysis of reasons given by teachers for their responses to stewardship behaviours suggests that teachers at Glow, Myrna and Zubi Schools felt that giving people a chance to volunteer to take up tasks is socially desirable. It gives volunteers an opportunity to demonstrate their talents in their areas of specialisation. There was also a belief that if one does a task for which one has specialised training for, they will perform at their best (Mr Celo, Mrs Moyo and Mrs Tom of Glow, Myrna and Zubi Schools respectively). I interrogated literature and found this line of thinking to be linked to members' efficacious beliefs or people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance. These beliefs can be as a result of the modelling aspect of social cognition or vicarious experience (Hasanvand, 2013) which is learning from the experiences of others. As teachers observed the school heads' stewardship behaviours they noted and learnt about desired work behaviours. Not only that, they also judged their own performance in tasks based on what they see the school heads doing. An example of this comes from what Mrs Tom of Zubi School said in an artefact interview that, "One would say if the school head commits himself to teaching, what about me? Should I sit?" Like the school heads, teachers felt they can also volunteer and demonstrate their expert capabilities in those areas they specialised in.

What Mrs Tom said suggests that the schools under study had an achievement-oriented culture. In an achievement-oriented culture organisational members focus on realising the set purpose and goals of the school organisation through selfless sacrifice and commitment (Engels et al., 2008). In addition to that, ideas of the distributed framework that appropriate knowledge and competencies, and expertise should be foregrounded when considering teachers chosen as leaders as a way of enhancing leadership effectiveness and school outcomes (Refer to chapter 3 section 3.2.2, p. 43) form the core of achievement cultures. Teachers' responses to stewardship behaviours noted above were as a result of their efficacious beliefs based on their expertise and the modelling behaviours of their school heads. They also pointed to the mediating effects of their schools' achievement-oriented cultures and distributed leadership. Apart from using stewardship behaviours school heads also influenced teacher behaviours by sharing leadership responsibilities with them. I present

and discuss data on this in the next paragraphs. Debates about stewardship in the literature revolve around pastoral care and service to the organisation. (Refer to chapter 2, section, 2.3.2 p. 21). Seen this way service provision and care become an end in themselves. Whilst this is what the literature says, I found something interesting in how school heads used stewardship behaviours in this study. The school heads did not see provision of service and care as ends in themselves. The target as such, was to transform teachers' thinking about the leader's influence actions and proposals as can be learnt from Mrs Tom of Zubi School (Refer to Chapter 5, section 5.3.1, p. 104).

5.4 SHARING RESPONSIBILITY

Sharing responsibility is about handing over responsibility for decision-making to a group (Sampson, 2012). When a school head shares responsibility to influence teachers he mostly leaves the teachers to make self-directed decisions in an area they would have been asked to lead. In the first subsection below I present and discuss data on schools heads' use of sharing responsibility as leader influence behaviour and how teachers responded to them. In the Second subsection, I present and discuss data on why teachers responded to the school heads' influence behaviours in the way that they did.

5.4.1 Schools heads' use of sharing responsibility leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

In my data gathering I learnt a lot about how influence played out in the area of policy implementation at the three schools of my study. I observed that there were a lot of committees and also individuals implementing various policies at the three schools. I sought to learn how school heads influenced teacher behaviours with regard to policy implementation via these structures. During data gathering my first stay was at Glow primary school. The responsibility for implementing various school policies there was shared by the numerous committees that I observed in the school like the procurement committee, the School Improvement Grant (SIG) committee, the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) committee, Prize giving committee and the finance committee. I saw this approach as a way of distributing leadership among all teachers in the school in a collegial

environment. When success came, Mr Sheik did not hit his chest about it. He would share it with his whole staff too. I observed this when the prize giving committee gave a report back about a very successful prize giving day they organised in the school. After the report back the school head said, “Have you heard the good work the prize giving committee is doing for our school? Who can best thank them for us?” The sports organiser and another teacher volunteered to thank the committee. It was such a cheerful and rewarding incident that I wished I could have been part of the prize giving committee that was being thanked. Then I saw how powerful sharing power with others like what Mr Sheik was doing here can be at influencing teacher behaviours.

Still on policy implementation issues I asked the school head, Mr Sheik how the policy on running school examinations was being implemented in the school and he explained,

In fact we used to have the deputy head organising and managing exams and tests in the whole school. We realised that it did not work and we sat and discussed and we came up with this issue of departments running their own things.

From the interview I learnt that what made these departments and committees work in an extra ordinary way was the degree of autonomy that they had. Unlike in other schools where I have seen a similar arrangement, Mr Sheik relinquished his power and trust to these departments and committees making them feel that they are valuable to the attainment of the school’s leadership outcomes. I also learnt about this when he told me in a conversational interview that committees and departments in the school, “Need not hesitate to make decisions about issues that their committees must deal with.” Also confirming the existence of a culture of sharing leadership responsibility, the majority of teachers interviewed about policy implementation concurred with what Mr Nkomo purported when he said, “All teachers will want to see that the agreed policy is implemented by actively participating in its implementation.” The responsibility to lead policy implementation according to Mr Nkomo was shared among and led by all teachers in the school despite position in the school hierarchy.

Still on the same issue I asked the school head Mr Sheik, what the responses of teachers to his approach of using committees and departments headed by specialist teachers to implement policies in the school was. His response was,

Maybe there might be some who do not like what we do and are quiet about it but from what I have observed it's well received by teachers. I see them actively participating and to me this means that the way we do things is accepted and liked by the teachers.

I asked teachers in a semi-structured interview how they responded to the school head's idea of sharing leadership responsibility with them. Because they are involved, Mrs Dewa said, "All teachers will want to see that agreed policy is implemented." As such they personally commit themselves to the implementation of school policies and support each other. As teachers worked in areas they lead Mr Celo said the school head, "sometimes singles out teachers and praise them for their achievements ... and we do not want to let him (school head) down. Instead we want to do even better." By sharing leadership responsibilities with teachers Mr. Sheik influenced teachers' trust and commitment to organizational outcomes resulting in teachers working even harder in order to succeed in areas they lead. Burton & Peachy (2013) claim that trust created by a leader can facilitate an open climate, build a helping culture, and is associated with organizational citizenship behaviours.

I also observed what was happening at Myrna school with regards to how policies were implemented and what the role of the school head was with regard to the role of committees and individuals in the leadership process. First I was interested in how the teacher supervision policy was implemented in the school. I had observed that at Glow and Zubi schools, school heads shared the responsibility of supervising teachers with their management teams (Deputy Head, Teacher in Charge and a senior teacher). However at Myrna I observed that ordinary teachers in the form of supervision teams also participated in this supervision and they had their own timetables and programmes. I even had an opportunity to observe two senior teachers observing a lesson of another teacher and discussing the lesson afterwards. I saw this as fitting well with Bush's (2011) collegial management claims that in schools practising collegiality, teachers talk about teaching and learning and the presence of peer supervisors is

common in the classrooms. I saw this as enhancing professionalism and good practice in the school.

Whilst at the school I had an opportunity to attend a bereavement committee meeting. It was organised and held in the afternoon when Mr Chinos had left the school for town. In a conversational interview I asked a teacher what the school head will say if he heard that they had organised and held a meeting during his absence and she replied, “The head will be happy. He likes committees that do their work without a push from the administration.” This suggested to me that committees in the school had a lot of autonomy in the way they worked and it was because Mr Chinos encouraged this. I also learnt that there was a disciplinary committee in the school. It was responsible for maintaining pupil discipline and it worked closely with the school head. Because the school was relatively big, I realised that even individual teachers were invited to share the responsibility of leading in maintaining pupil discipline in the school. For example, at an after assembly caucus briefing, I observed Mr Chinos addressing teachers on pupil discipline and he said, “The head and disciplinary committee alone cannot instil discipline in pupils ... Pupil discipline is our responsibility. It begins with me, it begins with you. Where ever you are, see to it that you play your part fully.” Mr Chinos was inviting all teachers to work as one team leading in implementing the school’s disciplinary policy something I saw as his readiness to share leadership responsibility.

I said to myself, so how do Myrna teachers respond to this scenario where everyone was perceived to be a leader? With this in mind I observed how teachers responded to the school head’s call for teachers to show leadership in maintaining pupils’ discipline. On that day teachers promised to get more involved. Three days later I observed four senior teachers seated under a classroom veranda attending to a case of a pupil accused of stealing his class teacher’s pens. Normally I had seen teachers sending misbehaving pupils to the school head’s office. From this day I realised that there were very few cases of indiscipline referred to the school head. Teachers assisted the disciplinary committee and cases of pupil indiscipline dropped significantly. However, looking at the number of committees that were in the school and the number of teachers in each committee, I asked myself and said so who is not a leader

in this school? My question was answered by Mr Soko in a semi-structured interview when we were discussing the school's policy on selecting leaders to lead extracurricular activities in the school. He said, "There is no one who is not a leader because you are expected to have an area where you lead."

I asked Mr Chinos how teachers responded to his approach of sharing leadership responsibilities with them. He said in the event that there is a leadership challenge, "They will take the problem as their own problem which needs a collective solution." Sharing leadership responsibility influenced teachers' perceptions of leadership and leadership challenges in ways that promoted oneness among teachers and the school leadership team. In a semi-structured interview, Mrs Moyo of Myrna school said she will not perform at her best if she works at a school where leadership responsibilities are not shared and the school head and his core leadership team (deputy head and Teacher in charge) lead alone. She said this, "makes you feel like you are nobody at a place." Her response suggests that teachers who share leadership responsibility with the school head feel less alienated and identify with the school head and his leadership team more. Widening the network of leaders in the school like what happened at Myrna strengthens leadership and improves practice by eliminating contradiction and friction by making almost all the teachers leaders in one area or the other. The various incidents I observed and presented above together with the interview data convinced me that Mr Chinos used the leader influence behaviour of sharing responsibility in a sustained way to influence teacher behaviours to implement various policies in the school.

It was also interesting to learn how policy implementation happened at Zubi School. Mr Jacob explained to me that policy implementation was through committees and teams. I told him I was interested in knowing his role regarding the work of these committees and teams. He then explained to me saying, "We have a vision. We discuss with them this vision and craft a mission for this vision together," at each opening meeting and this helps in uniting the whole school behind attaining common objectives. There were committees and teams in the school but they worked better at implementing policies because all teachers are one big team united behind them in the first place, he explained. As a result teachers respond to his influence behaviours of sharing responsibility with him in a robust way. "Each and every

teacher becomes a ‘foot soldier’ fighting for our common cause,” he said. Mr. Jacob said teachers showed open and committed support for his leadership initiatives in the school. This was corroborated by Mrs Lee when she said because they are deeply involved in determining the school’s future state and share in leading it to that desired state, “We become our own managers.” In other words, because each teacher shares with the school head the responsibility to lead in one committee or the other, teachers responded to this arrangement by demonstrating an obligation to cause success in areas they led and those led by their colleagues. However, if I was Foucault (1975) I was probably going to comment that influence by sharing responsibility at this school helped strengthen hierarchical observation and surveillance mechanism in ways that made teachers self-supervise themselves. I felt like there was more concern for the achievement of organisational objectives here than a concern for the people who united behind these objectives.

Still at Zubi I also sought to learn more about their teacher supervision policy. Mr Jacob explained that he and his management team shared the responsibility of supervising teachers. After a round of supervision they sit as the management team and discuss the supervision reports. He said the supervision team knew teachers as much as he did or even more. I saw this as promoting good practice. My argument is partly based on Mr Jacob’s explanation of why he has found this approach rewarding too. He explained,

Our corroborated reports will send a message of impartiality to everyone; that our supervision is aimed at professional growth not witch-hunting. If supervision reports come from more than one supervisor and are all pointing at one thing, this sends a strong message to the supervisee. This minimises chances of interpersonal conflict too because all people cannot hate you.

Mr Jacob’s supervision approach was confirmed by most participants. For example Mrs Dick of Zubi said, “There is team supervision and deputy head and some senior teachers participate in teacher supervision.” I probed teachers and asked them how they responded to this arrangement of shared leadership in supervising them. This is how Mrs Tom responded, “So this makes them (teachers) duty conscious all the time knowing that there is always someone looking at what they are doing,” because leaders are everywhere. I likened this to a description of how technologies of power worked to produce the intended influence

behaviours in subordinates in Bentham's Panopticon (Anita, 2010; Bowdridge & Blenkinsop, 2011) in Foucault (1975)'s book *Discipline and Punish*. The perceived constant gaze of the invisible prison wardens made prison inmates always check on their behaviours on the assumption that they were being observed all the time. Distributing leadership and power to supervise teachers could have been seen as a more efficient way of implementing the supervision policy by Mr Jacob. On the part on teachers one can interpret it as a way of strengthening the legitimate power and influence of the school head and robbing teachers of any agency as professionals by increasing the number of people keeping an eye on them.

One area that I also sought to learn more about was the area of teacher discipline. Maintaining teacher discipline was not the responsibility of school heads alone. I observed that all the three schools had a disciplinary committee in place that shares with the school head the burden of teacher discipline. In an interview, the Glow School head acknowledged that maintaining teacher discipline is a shared responsibility when he said, "So teacher discipline should be a collective issue, not the head's issue alone." On the same issue the Myrna School head had this to say, "We put these issues in our meetings and we put them as reminders and we talk about them." Mr Chinos was alluding to a collective approach that foregrounds discussion and sharing of information in relevant statutes and circulars to the maintenance of teacher discipline. The Zubi School head worked closely with the disciplinary committee and his approach was similar to that of Mr Chinos. To maintain teacher discipline he said, "Firstly we always remind the teachers about ministry regulations. We do not want to create a threatening environment but we try to bring to their attention the regulations that guide them here at work."

All teachers interviewed at the three schools also mentioned the work of the school disciplinary committee. Mr Nkomo said Mr Sheik shares with it the authority to maintain teacher discipline and, "it helps to maintain teachers' self-image, the good image of the school and that of the ministry." Still on the issue of teacher discipline, Mrs Tari of Myrna School had this to say, "There is a disciplinary committee and counselling committees and if there is a problem it is referred to these people." So Mr Chinos, the Myrna School head

involved one more committee to share with him the maintenance of teacher discipline. To learn about how the committees do their work Mrs Lee of Zubi commented saying, “It is very effective. They handle cases well and resolve problems in ways that keep us together as a family.”

A cross analysis of what was happening at the three schools shows that there were a lot of similarities in how school heads influenced teacher behaviours by sharing leadership responsibilities across the three schools. For example, they all made use of departments and committees to lead policy implementation. What however differed was the degree of involvement. The Glow school head relinquished some of his power to the committees and departments which were autonomous in the way they made decisions. On the other hand, the Zubi school head worked very closely with his committees and departments and shared decisions making with them. This is in line with Gunter’s (2005) characterisation of distributed leadership called authorised distributed leadership. Authorised distributed leadership is where work is distributed from the principal to others within a hierarchical system of relations. This type of leadership can also be termed ‘delegated leadership’ (Gunter, 2005) and is evident where there are teams, informal work groups and committees as was observed at both Glow and Zubi primary schools. While leadership responsibility was shared among the various committees at Glow and Zubi schools, the Myrna school head extended this to include all teachers in his school; trying to release the leader in everyone. What obtained at Myrna can be characterised as dispersed distributed leadership where much of the workings of an organisation take place without the formal working of a hierarchy (Gunter, 2005). Dispersed distributed leadership is a more autonomous and is accepted because of the knowledge, skills and personal attributes of organisational members who work as individuals or in autonomous work groups. (Crawford, 2012; Gunter, 2005; Manetje & Martins, 2009). The Myrna school head recognised the expertise of his teachers and let go some leadership responsibilities to these teachers who then worked with a lot of autonomy. From a collegial and distributed leadership perspective schools thrive if leadership is shared (Spillane et al., 2011; Von Dohlen, 2012) like what was happening at these three schools. From a distributed leadership perspective, because leadership outcomes are shared, if something fails, the whole team shares the responsibility rather than just one person. This

adds a feeling of protection in the group and gives people more incentive to contribute to the group for its common good. When the group succeeds everyone shares in the glory rather than the leader getting the sole credit for everyone else's work (Good, 2011). As to why those with power (the three school heads) will want to share the responsibility of exercising it with their subordinates, collegial models purport that members measure their contribution in terms of the climate of participation, the level of influence they can have on decisions and the processes of involvement (Bush (2011). At this point it is interesting to analyse how teachers responded to school heads' use of sharing responsibility as influence behaviour. I present and discuss data on this below.

An analysis of how teachers responded to school heads' influence behaviours shows that teachers responded to their school heads' influence behaviours of sharing responsibilities by committing themselves to work objectives and self-supervising. Teachers at Glow and Myrna welcomed this approach without any reservations. Sharing responsibility was viewed positively and teachers saw it as a way of empowering them. At Zubi School however some teachers' comments suggested that extending the boundaries of leadership is another way not of empowering them but of keeping a constant gaze on them. This was alluded to in Mrs Tom's statement when she said, "So this makes them (teachers) duty conscious all the time knowing that there is always someone looking at what they are doing," As to how this actually happens is explained this way,

He who is subjected to a field of visibility, and knows it, assumes responsibility for the constraints of power; he makes them play spontaneously upon himself, he inscribes in himself the power relation in which he simultaneously plays both roles; he becomes the principle of his own subjection. (Foucault, 1975, p. 202).

Following this reasoning it can be assumed that most teachers at Zubi School viewed extending and sharing leadership responsibility as 'the old emperor's new clothes.' Teachers' perspectives are significant because it has been pointed out that power can either be positive or negative (Lunenburg, 2012; Foucault, 1975). In this case it was viewed positively by teachers at Glow and Myrna but negatively by most teachers at Zubi School. In the paragraphs that follow I present and discuss data on why some teachers responded to sharing

leadership responsibility by committing themselves to leadership tasks and others viewed this in a negative way. In the paragraphs that follow, I present and discuss data on why some teachers responded to sharing leadership responsibility by committing themselves to leadership tasks and others viewed this in a negative way.

5.4.2 Reasons for particular teacher responses to sharing responsibility influence behaviours

I realised that strong commitment to task objectives by committees could be because committee members saw that school heads believed in their capabilities as professionals. I asked the Glow school head in an unstructured interview why committees are so active and lead confidently in many areas in the school and the school head said, “The committees in the school know that they are trusted.” I also interviewed teachers to find out why they responded to the school head’s influence behaviours by committing themselves to given leadership tasks. Most teachers’ responses revolved around what Mr Celo said. He said that, “sometimes he singles out teachers and praises them for their achievements and you can tell that the head believes in our abilities.” This suggests that there existed a relationship of mutual trust between the school head and teachers based on teachers’ expertise and this caused teachers to commit themselves to leadership tasks they shared with the school head.

Explaining why teachers responded to the school head’s use of sharing of responsibility as leader influence behaviour by showing personal commitment, the Myrna school head explained that, “You know there is some ownership...So the members feel they are part and parcel of the decision making process, it not that all has been decided by the school head.”

Most teachers at Myrna shared the school head’s view as to why they responded to the school head’s influence behaviours by showing commitment to executing shared responsibilities. For example Mrs Moyo said, “If you are accommodated you participate freely and perform extra-role duties because you feel you are important. “Mrs Moyo’s response suggests that teachers commit themselves to task accomplishment through sharing leadership if they realise that the leader recognises them as indispensable partners in the attainment of the school’s goals where responsibilities are shared.

The Zubi school head, Mr Jacob echoed the same sentiments as those of Mr Chinos, the Myrna school head when I asked him why teachers showed commitment to shared responsibilities. He said, “They feel a sense of belonging to the institution. This ownership of ideas makes them feel obliged to actively participate in executing tasks where leadership responsibility is shared.” In the context of sharing responsibilities, I also asked Zubi school teachers why they showed strong commitment to shared leadership responsibilities. Their responses were not very different from those given by Myrna teachers. For example Mrs Tom said, “We feel that we are part and parcel of the school and we are valued and trusted contributors to the running of the school.”

Teachers at Glow reported that their commitment to task objectives was as a result of a culture of mutual trust prevalent at their school. In a study about trust I reviewed, Roger et al. (2011) found that the use of influence behaviours like sharing leadership responsibility, which allow teachers to develop and maintain trust and self-worth were found to increase work supportive behaviours. Apart from my findings, Roger et al.’s (2011) study emboldened me to think that the commitment to task objectives I observed at Glow could be linked to the culture of mutual trust prevalent at the school. On the other hand, most teachers at Myrna and Zubi schools attributed their commitment to a culture of collaborative leadership displayed by their school heads. They saw themselves as empowered leaders in their areas of responsibility, working as a collaboration of leaders in the school. Sharing responsibilities made the teachers personally identify with the school organisation, increasing their self-esteem and motivation to personally contribute to its success. Spillane (2006) refers to this as the ‘leader-plus perspective’. This perspective sees the leadership responsibilities of all individuals who have a hand in the practice of leadership being acknowledged and valued. This is also in line with Good’s (2011) observation that when people truly believe that they are more valuable than just getting the job done they will always make sure the job gets done. Believing that by sharing leadership with them, the school heads valued them, teachers responded by taking value and committing themselves in whatever they did. This increased teachers’ participation in decision-making. This could have significantly

improved leadership practice at the two schools because it is claimed that increased participation in decision making from more members as they share leadership responsibilities will generally lead to greater commitment to organizational goals and strategies (Leithwood et al., 2007; Von Dohlen, 2012).

However as mentioned previously (refer to section 5.4.1, p. 114), there was a small number of teachers at Zubi School who were reluctant to share leadership with the school head. Also, in a study about how two South African primary schools distributed leadership, and the effects of this on the development of teacher leadership, Grant and Singh (2009) also found that some teachers resented sharing leadership responsibility with school heads. The teachers felt that sharing leadership responsibility with the school head was unfair on them. Some teachers at Zubi saw sharing responsibility with the school head as curtailing their agency and also overloading them with duties outside their job descriptions. According to Grant and Singh (2009) and the cited semi-structured interview comments I captured from some teachers at Zubi school (refer to section 5.4.1, p. 114), teachers in this group resisted the school heads' influence attempts and worked in a self-protection mode eroding the culture of mutual trust prevalent in the school to some degree. This is acknowledged by my theoretical analytical tools of Foucault (1975) who envisages inherent resistance to power in organisations. Bush (2011) and Hasanvand (2013) also see collegial and distributed leadership not as harmony models but as models where diverging conceptions and perceptions of teachers about leadership can result in tensions, contradictions, resistance and even conflict.

5.5 CONCLUSION

In this Chapter I presented and discussed data on three leader influence behaviours used by school heads identified from the data I collected at the three schools. For each identified leader influence behaviour I presented and discussed data on how it was used by the three school heads and what teachers said about the school heads' use of the influence behaviour. I also presented and discussed data on how teachers responded to school heads' leader

influence behaviours and why they also responded in the way they did. One important thing to note from this chapter is that the discussed leader influence behaviours were neither used in a mutually exclusive way nor were teachers' responses unrelated. Overlaps can be identified. For example teachers responded to both consultation and sharing responsibility leader influence behaviours by actively participating and committing themselves to task objectives. In most cases, teachers attributed their commitment to task objectives as a result of both consultation and sharing responsibility influence behaviours to the value given to their contributions to leadership by school heads. In the next chapter I continue with the presentation and discussion of data on leader influence behaviours used by school heads and teachers' responses to these behaviours and why.

CHAPTER 6

ENACTING LEADERSHIP: SCHOOL HEADS EMPOWERMENT, RATIONAL PERSUASION, INSPIRATIONAL APPEAL AND LEGITIMATION INFLUENCE BEHAVIOURS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous Chapter focused on the presentation and discussion of data related to leader influence behaviours of consultation, stewardship and shared responsibility used by school heads to influence teachers. This chapter, like the previous chapter focuses on data answering research questions one to three of my study. It is concerned about how school heads influence teachers in their day-to-day leadership practice, how teachers respond to school heads' influence behaviours and why teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do?

In this Chapter I present and discuss data on the leader influence behaviours of empowerment, rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and legitimation used by school heads identified from the literature and data I collected at the three schools. However in the data presentation and analysis no one leader influence behaviour appeared across all core areas of the principal's work (refer to section 5.1, p. 91). Some influence behaviours would appear in many core areas of the principal's work but the appearances were very minimal and insignificant for analysis. I decided to leave out these appearances in the data presentation and discussion and concentrated on those that appeared in a more significant way in an area; suggesting a sustained use of the influence behaviour in that area.

In the first part of the presentation of each leadership influence behaviour, I present and discuss data on how the influence behaviour was used by the three school heads and how teachers responded to the influence behaviour. Trends and patterns about how the influence behaviours were used and responses from teachers across the three schools will be important

in this regard and will be included in a cross analysis of the findings. In the second part of each data presentation and analysis, I look at reasons given by teachers for their responses to school heads' influence behaviours. I then engage in a cross school analysis of my findings in relation to the gathered data. I infuse into the data presentation and discussion an analytical interpretation of the data by drawing on my adopted theoretical frameworks and relevant literature. To strengthen my data presentation and analysis and to add to the descriptions in this ethnographic study, I capture the participants' lived experiences through descriptions from sustained participant observation, field notes and numerous *verbatim* responses from semi-structured interviews I had with school heads and teachers at each school. This is also supplemented by conversational and artefact interviews with school heads and teachers at the respective schools.

6.2 EMPOWERMENT

When school heads use empowering influence behaviours they engage teachers in self-directed decision-making, generate teachers' self-confidence and provide them with a sense of personal power. To unpack data on empowerment I first present and discuss data on schools heads' use of empowerment leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them. In the second subsection I present and discuss data on why teachers responded to the school heads' empowerment behaviours in the way they did.

6.2.1 Schools heads' use of empowerment leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

Zimbabwe's economy is currently reeling under economic challenges. How school heads share the scanty resources schools sometimes get is a big issue in schools (Guchu, 2014). As a result one of the areas in which I sought to understand the school heads' leadership behaviours was the area of resource allocation. In this area I focused on how school heads used physical resources at their disposal to influence teacher behaviours. School resources comprise of physical, financial and human resources. The ultimate responsibility for equitable and effective utilisation and allocation of these resources lies with the school head (*Minute circular No. 6 of 1994*) although he has the discretion to consult the school

development committee and relevant teacher committees he may set up in the school. I started by observing how school heads utilised these resources before interviewing them so that my interview probes can be better informed as a result of the data from observations.

My observations targeted the school head's office. I took the school office building as one critical physical resource that can act as a finger on the pulse of what happens in the entire school. My observations and interviews started at Glow primary school. I observed that teachers did not knock when they visited the head's office most of the time. In schools I have taught before you knock and wait until you are told to come in. At times teachers queue outside. What I observed during my time as a teacher is that teachers are visitors in the school head's office. I asked Mr Sheik, the school head why it was like this at his school and he said, "It is their office. It belongs to all of us. That is why it is not written 'Headmaster's Office' and is written School Office." Commenting on the same issue in an artefact (school office) interview Mr Ndlovu of Glow School said, "His office also talks of transparency because if you get into the office you will see everything about this school." He said Mr Sheik hid nothing and they were all free to get into his office and talk business in a transparent way. Most critical information they may need was also displayed in the office. Teachers at Glow School, I noted felt they were a collaboration of leaders doing leadership business when they visited Mr Sheik's office, not visitors. The office is a symbol of power and authority in the school. Teachers' perceptions of the school office and how they participate in its activities like leadership can significantly influence teachers' sense of confidence and personal power.

As such I observed that Mr Sheik created an atmosphere in which teachers felt encouraged to share with him a critical physical resource, his office and I saw this enthusing teachers to identify with the school leadership and its successes. It looked like the power relationship displayed here was hinged on mutual trust and openness. Still in the school head's office, I made this observation. Because of financial challenges most primary schools are facing due to a declining economy, sharing scarce resources like stationery can be problematic. I wondered how it went on smoothly at Glow School. I observed teachers collecting stationery from one of the lockers in the head's office and signing for it with no supervision. As they do this, teachers cracked jokes, something I saw as being a satisfaction with their free work

environment. I listened to the teachers as they shared with each other challenges and successes they experienced with their classes, something I saw as promoting good practice. I observed this behaviour whenever teachers met either informally or formally in meetings.

I later on asked Mr Sheik about how stationery was issued and he said, “Our teachers are responsible; they know what they are doing.” However, the deputy and Mr Sheik would occasionally monitor the stationery record and assist teachers correct their recording errors where these were found. I also looked at the self-directed decision-making I observed about the stationery issue here from a Foucauldian point of view. I thought this could have been an outcome of the school head’s gaze of surveillance because it is claimed that,

He who is subjected to a field of visibility, and knows it, assumes responsibility for the constraints of power; he makes them play spontaneously upon himself, he inscribes in himself the power relation in which he simultaneously plays both roles; he becomes the principle of his own subjection. (Foucault, 1975, p. 202).

On face value, teachers’ self-directed decision making in the allocation of stationery and even the use of the school office could look like empowerment but deep down it can be because of the effects of internalised hierarchical observation and normalisation by the school head.

Still on the same issue of the school office and what happened in it, I observed that at Myrna School teachers knocked, waited for a moment and got into the office without necessarily waiting for the school head to say come in. The office was relatively big and had many comfortable chairs for visitors arranged in a semi-circle with the school head, Mr Chinos’ desk at the centre. I observed that the way the school head shared the school office with teachers was similar to what was happening at Glow school. In a semi-structured interview about sharing office space with teachers, I asked Mr Chinos about the set-up of chairs in his office. He responded:

What happens is, the trend has to be set right from the admin. My set up for this office is a round table sort of for sharing ideas. We don’t share ideas only as you can see. We also share this small office as well. But I must be seen to be leading

and encouraging so that others feel encouraged and follow. That's why I say the trend starts here.

I asked teachers how physical resources particularly buildings were allocated in the school as a follow up of my discussion with the school head. Mrs Tari said, "We have a trend here... no one personalises anything," alluding to the idea of transparent sharing of resources as a collaboration of teachers. I found that her assertion was common among the majority of teachers interviewed at the school. They liked how school buildings were allocated or shared and said it was easy for them to share physical resources in creative ways since their school head openly encouraged it.

On the same issue of using the school head's office, I observed that the Zubi School office was a makeshift office. It was small and cramped. The original office had been damaged by wind. I however observed that this small building was shared by the school head and teachers and was a hub for sharing information and ideas teachers used in their day to day work activities. For example, apart from a partition displaying important circulars, I also observed that there was a chalk board notice board measuring about one metre by half a metre on one side of the walls of the Zubi school head's office. In other schools I have worked, if a noticeboard is in the school head's office like this, it is used only by the school head in a one way communication with teachers, just like how the communication book is used. What I observed here was that Mr Jacob, the school head and also teachers would put notices on this board. As Mr Jacob and teachers clocked in or out they checked for something new on the noticeboard. The school office worked as a symbol for information empowerment in the school. However, I noted that Mr Jacob retained his authority to manage information in the school by keeping the noticeboard in his office and also authorising any communication posted on the noticeboard by teachers. Still, to a great extent, the Zubi School notice board empowered teachers with information and facilitated open two way communication. This was confirmed by Mr Petro of Zubi School in a semi-structured interview when he said, "Access to information is timely, I always get the information I want and I am up to date and I always meet deadlines." Apart from meeting deadlines, teachers responded to information empowerment which they closely associated with the school head's office by actively communicating and debating professional issues in meetings and outside these meetings.

They sounded quite informed about many professional issues when they discussed during meetings or when they engaged in general discussions about professional issues. Transparency and trust were quite evident in interactions that occurred in the school.

The data I generated about the use of physical resources particularly the school head's office up to this point suggests that the three school heads influenced teacher behaviours by empowering them. I discerned information empowerment and a sense of heightened self-confidence by teachers who shared some leadership information and closely shared the highest and most powerful office in the institution, the school head's office as teacher empowerment. The data also speaks to communication, showing the interconnectivity that exist in practice between the two areas of the school head's work namely physical resource management and communication.

My attention about empowerment leader influence behaviours was also drawn to the area of curriculum implementation in the three schools. There is the extracurricular that deals mostly with sports and other outdoor activities and the curricular which deals mostly with teaching and learning in the classroom. My attention was on the curricular issues. I observed that there were committees and in some schools department structures through which curriculum policy was implemented. The extent to which these structures were functional and the way they functioned differed from one school to the other. I observed and interviewed both the school heads and teachers about curriculum policy implementation through these structures starting at Glow School. I observed many committee meetings at Glow school and Mr Sheik attended most of them. When Mr Sheik saw that I had questions when he did not attend a procurement committee meeting that was going on in the school. He said:

I don't attend the meeting to enhance transparency and empowerment of members who should make decisions in this committee. I however sit and deliberate on issues raised by the procurement committee in the school finance meetings.

Through sustained observation I noted that Mr Sheik gave committees powers to do most of their work autonomously. He encouraged this by occasionally praising them for their achievements. I saw this attitude as promoting improved school performance and healthy

work attitudes. Commenting on this Mr Celo of Glow School said, “He will be sort of grooming or empowering us to be leaders of tomorrow.” He said as a result, committee members were very eager to work and post good results in their areas. I also had a second thought about what Mr Sheik’s influence behaviour of leaving committees to deliberate on critical issues alone when the expectation was that he should be with them could mean. Using Foucauldian analytical tools,

He who is subjected to a field of visibility, and knows it, assumes responsibility for the constraints of power; he makes them play spontaneously upon himself, he inscribes in himself the power relation in which he simultaneously plays both roles; he becomes the principle of his own subjection. (Foucault, 1975, p. 202).

On face value, teachers’ self-directed decision making in committee meetings and even in the earlier on mentioned use of the school office (Section 6.2.1, p. 121) could look like empowerment but deep down it can be because teachers are now used to the rules set by the school head and have internalised them (normalisation). From the perspective given by Foucault's archaeology, prevalent management and organizational discourses can be seen to be acting as power/knowledge regimes shaping working conditions and practices (Anita, 2010). With the passing of time, these ways of organizing and perceiving the working subject will become established and viewed as normal (Foucault, 2000, p. 281-301). As such this could be the source of the self-regulation by the committees which on face value we can see as empowerment.

I was also interested in learning how curriculum policy was implemented at Myrna school. I learnt that this was mostly implemented through departments. For example, I was invited by the enthusiastic Music and Special Education Departments heads. I later visited other departments, my curiosity having been raised by these initial invitations. I observed that all departments had fully functional offices. In other schools I have worked in, heads of departments in primary schools do not have offices and their work is less defined than what I saw here. Looking at their organisation and the autonomy with which they did their work, I concluded that the departments here were empowered to implement teaching/learning policies in a more distributed way than what happened in other schools I had worked at before. I observed, throughout the duration of my stay at Myrna, the school head announcing

and praising innovative and creative initiatives by departments and teachers he would have noted during his supervision activities at after assembly caucus meetings. In semi-structured interviews I asked Mr Huni, a head of department about the school head's approach of empowering and entrusting them with the autonomous running of the departments and he said, "We only approach the head if we face a serious challenge. In most cases we only give him report backs." Mr Soko of Myrna said as departments, "He encourages you to do what you think is best for the school," as a way of encouraging teachers to think outside the box. Mr Soko said as a result they felt they were empowered and were creative and innovative when it comes to professional issues.

I also set out to find out how curriculum policy was implemented at Zubi School. I learnt that there were committees that implemented various policy decisions. Each committee was led by a teacher who in most cases was chosen to lead because he or she has special knowledge or qualifications in that area. I observed that when a teacher leader became hesitant to implement a policy decision and approaches Mr Jacob he would always say, "That's your area," suggesting that the teacher, as a leader in that area should make a decision. He would of course discuss the issue with the teacher to empower him or her with ideas relating to the issue. I saw this as Mr Jacob's way of generating follower self-confidence and a sense of personal power by engaging teachers in self-directed decision-making. However, from another perspective, going back to the school head with issues that needed management decisions like what most committee leaders did here could have been another way by the teachers of saying, 'you are burdening us with your management duties.' Unlike the general thinking in distributed leadership circles (Corrigan 2013; Crawford, 2012; Hasanvand, 2013; Sullivan, 2013) there could be other teachers who, for the aforementioned reason, were not interested in participating in school leadership and management (Grant and Singh, 2009; Gunter, 2005). However, in the main, data gathered about resource allocation, utilisation and policy issues above strongly speaks to empowerment leader influence behaviours by school heads who engaged teachers in self-directed decision-making, generated teachers' self-confidence and provided them with a sense of personal power.

An analysis of what was happening at the three schools shows that the Glow school head concentrated on trust building behaviours in his empowering initiatives. On the other hand, the Myrna school head concentrated on promoting transparency while the Zubi school head wanted inclusive participation and transparent information sharing in most school leadership processes as a way of empowering and influencing teacher behaviours. Trust, transparency and inclusiveness are pillars that build up the collegial and distributed leadership framework purporting that teachers should be empowered to enhance their self-worth and organisational effectiveness (Roger et al., 2011). In a study about trust in organisations I reviewed, a show of trust, transparency and inclusiveness by the leader increased members' self-worth and work supportive behaviours leading to better work outcomes (Roger et al., 2011). Why empowerment behaviours that build self-worth are seen as critical here is that it is reasoned that teachers with a strong belief in their capabilities will redouble their efforts to master any challenge put before them (Hasanvand, 2013). Learning from the preceding reasoning it can be argued that influencing teachers by empowering them like what the Glow, Myrna and Zubi primary school heads did, influenced their teachers' work behaviours in a positive way. Using the Foucauldian lens, the school heads' empowering behaviours can also be seen as a confirmation that teachers are active individuals who exercise agency. Given alternatives such teachers can make rational choices about themselves, their work and that of others (Foucault, 2002).

A cross analysis of how teachers responded to empowerment leader influence behaviours shows that teachers at Glow showed strong identification with their school leadership and were eager to work for the good of the school. There was also mutual trust and sharing of ideas amongst teachers. At Myrna and Zubi schools, teachers responded to their school heads' empowering behaviours by being creative and open to each other, actively participating in two-way communication. A show of mutual trust among interactions between teachers and school heads was common across all the schools. Hulpia and Devos (2009) and Jonathan and Namrata (2013) purport that trust is an important precursor of collaboration. Following the thread of collaboration, a synthesis of teachers' responses to school heads' empowerment behaviours point to the existence of collaborative cultures in the schools. In collaborative cultures, working relationships among teachers and school heads

tend to be spontaneous, voluntary, development-oriented, and pervasive across time and space, and unpredictable. (Datnow, 2011; Hargreaves, 1994). The collaborative cultures at the schools revealed in teachers a belief that working together is productive and enjoyable hence the observed eagerness to work for the good of the school. Next I present and discuss data on reasons why teachers responded to leader influence behaviours in the way they did.

6.2.2 Reasons for particular teacher responses to empowerment influence behaviours in resource allocation and curriculum policy implementation

I set to find out why teachers responded to school heads' empowering behaviours in the way they did from both the school heads and teachers. I started by asking school heads then proceeded to teachers. I started with the Glow school head, I asked him why he did not participate in some committee meetings held at his school and he explained,

I do it as a way of encouraging them to speak out. People must be allowed to speak. This is very important particularly when you want to make an informed decision. Because of this, most teachers are always happy with decisions I make... I encourage them to be more creative than myself at various meetings we have.

Mr Sheik's explanation revealed how his empowerment behaviours caused teachers to behave collaboratively. His explanation of why teachers at his school behaved the way they did has a lot of similarities with observations made by Tu and Lu (2012). They claim that if leaders display the above empowerment behaviours of practising open two way communication, trust and discretionary behaviours, teachers will most likely feel psychologically safe enough to speak out with new ideas and work as a collaboration of professionals. I also listened to the teachers' stories as to why they responded to Mr Sheik's empowerment behaviours by collaborating and showing initiative. In an artefact (picture of a soccer team celebrating a win) interview about how their school achieved exceptional success in sports, Mrs Dube said the school head, "supports ideas he sees as creative and positive and he encourages us to try them out." As a result of this support, the teachers had a lot of professional cooperation, autonomy and confidence.

Most of what I presented and discussed about why teachers at Glow school behaved the way they did when exposed empowerment behaviours also happened at Myrna. However, Mr Chinos, the Myrna school head had a slightly different explanation as to why teachers at his school behaved the way they did when he exposed them to his empowerment behaviours. He said, “Members feel they are part and parcel of the decision making process.” He explained that he engaged teachers in self-directed decision making often and teachers were free to explore and express their opinions in a free atmosphere. This motivated teachers to freely communicate and show creative initiative in whatever they did individually or in groups. This enhanced practice because teachers’ intrinsic motivation is also heightened when they have a high level of autonomy in their work situation. This provides them with enhanced independence, freedom, and discretion to schedule work (Cheng et al., 2013). Teachers said they did so because they felt the school head and other teachers supported them. For example, Mr Soko said, “We support those with these responsibilities and teachers like doing what they can do best.” When it comes to the supporters Mrs Tom of Zubi was critical and said, “Others follow known competent teachers because this can result in less work and more fame I think.” I observed this trend at both Myrna and Zubi that large groups of teachers rallied behind winning teams and there were few supporters or volunteers joining struggling teams or departments.

I also asked the Zubi school head why teachers responded by displaying discretionary behaviours, open communication and collaborative behaviours when he exposed them to empowerment leader influence behaviours. Mr Jacob replied and said, “They feel a sense of belonging to the institution.” The majority of teachers who responded in an artefact (certificate of merit) interview were of the view that they responded to the school head’s empowering behaviours in the way they did because this gave them a feeling of protection in the group. Mrs Dick of Zubi elaborated on this when she cited her own observation saying that, “Teachers are also self-motivated because of encouragement they get from the admin about their work and work colleagues.” Mrs Dick explained that Mr Jacob encouraged them to make decisions and provided them with relevant information and resources they needed in their areas of responsibility. He would praise them each time they came up with innovative

ways of doing things and these empowering behaviours motivated them to respond to the school head's influence behaviours by collaborating with work colleagues and working hard.

A cross analysis of the three schools shows that teachers at Glow school felt there was an atmosphere of mutual trust at their school which gave them the confidence to try out new ways of doing things. There was more emphasis on creativity and openness at Myrna and Zubi Schools. Teachers felt they were autonomous and had support from their school heads and other teachers. Empowerment by increasing access to information and subsequent two-way communication prevalent in the schools agrees well with collegial management. In schools practising collegiality it is common to see teachers and school heads talking about teaching (Bush, 2011). This can raise teachers' self-efficacy and boost teachers' confidence to try out innovative work procedures. School heads' empowering behaviours can also be viewed using lenses of distributed leadership. By empowering teachers with decision making powers school heads were de-constructing leadership as a solo activity. They were constructing it as a process which is shared and which involves working with all teachers in a creative way. This could help seek out the untapped leadership potential of teachers in a supportive work environment (Grant, 2008). Empowering by providing support like what school heads in the study did created the supportive environment that encouraged teacher creativity and discretionary behaviours. Teachers at Myrna and Zubi felt they were part and parcel of the school's functioning and felt a lot of protection in the group. Good (2011) says this gives teachers more incentive to contribute positively to leadership. Apart from empowerment behaviours school heads also used rational persuasion to influence teacher behaviours. I present and discuss data on this in the paragraphs below.

6.3 RATIONAL PERSUASION

Rational persuasion is when school heads influenced teacher behaviours by explaining issues and providing supporting evidence to support claims (Lepsinger, 2013; Yukl, 2010; Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008). I noted extensive use of rational persuasion in the area of school financial resource management and in my data gathering I decided to concentrate on this area to learn more about how school head influenced teacher behaviours in this area. In the first

subsection that follow, I present and discuss data on how rational persuasion was used to influence teacher behaviours and how teachers responded to it. In the second subsection I look at why they responded the way they did. I observed and interviewed school heads to learn more about rational persuasion influence behaviour.

6.3.1 Schools heads' use of rational persuasion leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

From my experience as a school head and observations I made when I was piloting my research instruments, how school finances are managed is a hot issue among school heads and teachers. During my first days of data generation I realised that this area deserved my attention and I decided to focus on it. During my stay at the three schools I observed and learnt that financial management was a joint effort between the school development committee's finance committee and a finance sub-committee comprising teachers representing departments in the school (*Minute circular No. 6 of 1994, Ministry of primary and secondary education, 2013*). The school head sits in both committees. He is responsible for allocating financial resources made available by the joint finance committees for teachers to use. In my effort to learn how influence plays out between the school head and teachers in the area of financial management I started by observing what was happening at Glow School. I learnt that primary schools receive what is called School Improvement Grant (SIG) funds from government to subsidise school fees and levies. Before SIG there was a similar fund to assist schools from government called Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM). When BEAM was phased out and replaced by SIG, schools continued using the BEAM format to manage SIG funds disregarding new procedures which were seen as more complicated. This is what was also happening at Glow. I observed Mr Sheik take a very long time explaining to the deputy head procedures for spending the School Improvement Grant (SIG) funds and how related transactions were to be made. He explained advantages of using the new format and apart from that he said "This is the document head office uses to check if we are using the funds correctly." He said this pulling a booklet from a drawer. I observed that the deputy who was comfortable with the old format had reservations but he eventually agreed to switch to the new format. Mr Sheik's explanation was quite persuasive and reasonable that I was also convinced about what he said. However I could also feel the weight of the legitimate power

he had from his tone at times and this may have limited the deputy head's choices to think differently. His use of the SIG document to legitimise (Refer to section 6.5, p. 147 for legitimisation behaviours) his position also complemented his persuasion behaviours and I realised that using more than one influence behaviour at a time could also enhance chances of success in an influence attempt.

At Glow School I also observed that school finance meetings attended by some School development members and teachers in the finance committee were held once each month. I attended two such meetings and I observed that Mr Sheik used most of his time in these meetings providing persuasive explanations and evidence using finance books, receipts and calculations to support any proposal he made in the meetings. I also realised that this was also meant to highlight the perceived culture of transparency in how finances were handled in the school. In a semi-structured interview I asked Mr Sheik how financial resources were allocated in the school and his response confirmed my observations when he said, "We normally sit down in a finance committee and discuss given requests." Because membership of the finance committee was diverse in terms of representation and big in terms of membership numbers, one needed good persuasive skills to have proposals you bring before the committee passing. This is where I realised that Mr Sheik had an edge over others. His requests for financial resources were always given the green light. In all meetings I attended, I realised that apart from the power of explanation, Mr Sheik capitalised on consultation (Refer to section 5.2, p. 92) and his access to certain information critical for decision making which he will then use to support his arguments. I realised that this excluded other members from the realm of expertise and left them in a position of less influence to challenge Mr Sheik's arguments. Probably that was why he always influenced decisions about financial resource allocations in his favour.

I also looked at how the Myrna school head, Mr Chinos, influenced financial resource allocation in his school. I observed that he also used logical arguments and factual evidence to show that a request he was making to the housing committee was feasible and relevant. For example after reporting a problem with teachers' houses to the housing committee, he took

senior teachers and the School Development Committee to the houses that needed repair so that they can have a look at what he meant before a financial decision about the issue could be taken. Both the teachers and the school committee members agreed that money be set aside to repair the houses. Before I left the school the houses had been repaired.

I observed that this was not the only time Mr Chinos used persuasive explanations to influence financial decisions in the school. For example I also observed Mr Chinos give a report back in a meeting. There was going to be a traditional dance workshop in Zvishavane town and some teachers were invited to attend. The school was supposed to pay \$17 per member attending. Mr Chinos took time explaining how that money was going to be used and how attending will benefit the school and attendants personally. The sports committee on behalf of teachers had earlier on submitted a budget proposal for pending zonal dance competitions. What it meant was, if teachers attend the dance workshop their budget for dance competitions was going to be proportionally reduced to cover workshop costs. Although Mr Chinos did not produce hard evidence to support his persuasive argument teachers trusted what he said and he managed to persuade teachers in attendance and the sports committee who all showed their full support for the idea of having dance coaches attend the workshop.

In semi-structured interviews the majority of teachers including Mrs Tari concurred that Mr Chinos influenced by explaining issues in finance meetings. For example she said, “He calls a meeting and explains to the finance committee and sub-committee (made of teachers and SDC members) what he thinks is important to the school at that particular time.” How some teachers responded to the outcome of such meetings (where Mr Chinos explained ‘what he thinks’ is important to the school at that particular time.) was alluded to by Mrs Tari in the same interview when she said, “I realise that other departments get their things bought ahead of others, I don’t know.” My understanding of her story was that she did not see fairness and transparency (which are believed to be the culture of the school) in how financial resources were being allocated. The, “I don’t know,” suggested to me that she had little information about how financial decisions were arrived at. Mr Huni a teacher at the school was even

more critical. He complained saying that, “Its necessary for teachers to know how much money is available ... However such announcement at times are done to block us from making certain financial requests like what happened today about sports.” Mr Chinos had announced to pupils and indirectly to teachers at assembly time that the school needed \$500 for sports but the school account had only \$100. Mr Chinos made the announcement knowing that the sports committee was drafting a budget for the same event it was going to submit to him that morning. This could suggest that though Mr Chinos could be trusted (dance workshop issue above), it’s possible he used his position power as the school head to make financial decisions, at times using manipulative persuasion or not genuinely consulting teachers. I asked Mr Huni what they did under such circumstances and he said they withdrew and adopted a wait and see attitude.

At Zubi I also wanted to know how financial resources were managed. I observed that there were routine feedback and consultation meetings in which the school head would explain finance decisions he would have made or how certain monies would have been spent. The finance subcommittee took this opportunity to also make their deliberations too. For example, towards the end of the term I observed the deputy head organise a school trip. When they came back there was a feedback meeting attended by all teachers. In the meeting Mr Jacob, the school head said, “Our school trip was successful. As usual we need transparency in the way we do our things.” He then read and explained how they used the money collected for the trip and supported this by circulating receipts of expenditure in the room for us to see. The evidence he showed us was convincing and teachers showed satisfaction that the trip went on well and finances were handled in a transparent way. This agrees with what most teachers said in a semi-structured interview when I asked them about how financial resources were managed in the school. For example Mrs Lee said, “The head may call a caucus meeting with members in a department to clarify the current financial position before an allocation can be made.” However what I noted was that there was no enthusiasm when teachers accepted Mr Jacob’s explanation for the field trip. What I later realised was that the deputy head was handling finances for the trip but he was not given the opportunity to present anything. Apart from that words like, “As usual we need transparency in the way we do our

things,” to me suggested that Mr Jacob might have been suppressing alternative views by saying these words. Teachers should not be persuaded or conditioned to see transparency; they should see it on their own. However what is coming out of the data up to this point is that the three school heads in their different ways influenced teacher behaviours by explaining issues and providing supporting evidence to support financial decisions they made. This leader influence behaviour was described by Yukl (2010) and Lepsinger (2013) as rational persuasion.

What stood out at the three schools is that rational persuasion was used to influence teacher behaviours in the area of financial management mostly. During the influence process it was noted that school heads also used a blend of rational persuasion and consultation (discussed in Chapter 5 page 2) behaviours in meetings to a large extent. They used rational logic and consulted teachers to influence them. Using rational persuasion concurrently with consultation not only enhances chances of successfully influencing teachers but can also increase the quality of that outcome as well (Lepsinger, 2013). Lathero and Risku (2013) remind leaders of the mediating effect of cultural artefacts (language) to influence others. They said when the principal uses the verbal cultural artefacts (power of language during consultation and persuasion) in leadership, the language he or she uses does not operate only as a tool to communicate but it also affects teachers’ ways to understand the reality of their school organisation and culture. Also this thread of thinking about culture mirrors what Mr Petro a teacher at Zubi said when I asked him the question, “On more than one occasion I have heard the school head say, ‘You know people know us for our hard work and best results’. What makes teachers to be competent?” This is what Mr Petro had to say, “The teachers have a sense of belonging and there is an above average school reputation. New teachers come and try to maintain this and avoid being the odd one out. So teachers strive to fit into the local culture.” Culture of competitiveness and hard work here complemented influence behaviours used by the school heads to make teachers realise the reality (vision and mission) of the school and the values and beliefs that should be upheld to achieve this. The unique blend of leader influence behaviours like in this case rational persuasion, consultation and exploitation of local cultures may be one of the most effective way of influencing teachers.

An analysis of teachers' responses to rational persuasion shows that at Glow teachers responded to some rational persuasion attempts by accepting influence attempts unenthusiastically. I think it was because they did not participate much in the actual decision making except being persuaded to support the school head's position. At Myrna School teachers responded to influence attempts in the same way but at times enthusiastically showing commitment. However at Myrna and Zubi, in isolated cases a suspicion of possible manipulation by the school heads lingered particularly if transparency was doubted. In all cases no force was used to change teachers' behaviours by the school heads except influence. Rational persuasion left teachers with a choice whether to comply, commit themselves or resist the school heads' influence attempts. This is in line with (Foucault, 2002)'s assertion that power operates only in free subjects who are free to exercise agency and can choose where there are alternatives for example;

A man who is chained up and beaten is subject to force being exerted over him, not power. But if he can be induced to speak, when his ultimate recourse could have been to hold his tongue, preferring death, then he has been subjected to power (Foucault, 2002, p. 324).

The use of rational persuasion put the school heads and teachers in a power relationship. For it to qualify as a power relationship, all actors involved should at least have some degree of freedom so that they can decide on their own whether to reject or give in to power. I see allowing rational choice to prevail among teachers as something that promotes democratic values and good practice in schools. However, a closer look at practice revealed to me that rational persuasion looked democratic and in most cases met with success at influencing teachers but not because of its appeal alone. School heads at times manipulated it and left teachers with very slim opportunities to make other choices. In the section that follow I present and discuss data on reasons for teachers' responses to rational persuasion.

6.3.2 Reasons for particular teacher responses to rational persuasion influence behaviours

Data generated at Glow School revealed that some teachers complied with the school head's request unenthusiastically. In a semi-structured interview I wanted to find out why it was like this. The majority of teachers interviewed pointed out that their responses were a reaction to the authority of the school head. For example Mrs Dube claimed that the school head can be, "very authoritative during discussions and this makes most teachers to fold back and just keep quiet." I got similar responses from teachers at Myrna and Zubi. Explaining why they responded with apathy to the school head's attempts at persuading them Mrs Moyo of Myrna said, "At times you just keep quiet if you are not happy because you fear the authority of the head." Asked the same question, Mrs Tari of Zubi School said, "Some say since it is the admin saying so let's comply." At times I observed that teachers would express their dissatisfaction or disagreement with what the school head will be saying by not responding or by saying yes to everything quickly to end the discussion. However the Zubi school head said that if the discussions were balanced and facts convincing teachers responded by committing themselves to given tasks. He elaborated saying, "In most cases if we agree on something you find that they will be eager to implement and at times you will see them supervising each other."

A cross analysis of reasons why teachers resisted, complied or committed themselves to persuasion behaviours by school heads shows that reasons given were not very different. At Glow school teachers withdrew from active engagement if the school head did not take them as partners in a rational debate. At Myrna and Zubi, teachers resisted the school heads' influence attempts if the school heads tried to fall back on the power tool of authority or if they did not see transparency. Where there was mutual trust and balanced discussions like in certain cases, outcomes of persuasion were personal commitment. Von Dohlen (2012) says studies over time have shown that rational persuasion was most likely to elicit task commitment than other influence behaviours identified by Yukl et al. (1990; 2002). However, from a collegial perspective, this only happens if the school head is willing to give and receive criticism in order for teachers to commit themselves and enhance practice (Bush,

2011). Whilst this was supported by the data it might have been lacking in most of the cases judging by responses given by teachers at Myrna and Zubi mostly. Because of the heavy control by school heads in trying to control outcomes of persuasion, it can be said these schools practised contrived collegiality. However, contrived forms of collegiality are criticised for not promoting spontaneous collaborative cultures in schools with most school heads manipulating them for their own good like what looked to be the case at these schools (Datnow, 2011; Kruse & Louis, 2009; Youngs, 2013). Apart from rational persuasion, the school heads also used inspirational appeals. I present and discuss data on this below.

6.4 INSPIRATIONAL APPEAL

With inspirational appeal the leader makes an emotional request or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to followers' values, ideals and beliefs. The leader also influences behaviour by increasing followers' confidence that they can successfully accomplish a task. (Lepsinger, 2013; Yukl, 2010). In the first subsection that follows I present and discuss data on school heads' use of inspirational appeal and how teachers' responded to this leader influence behaviour. In the second subsection I move on to reasons that teachers gave for responding to leader influence behaviours of inspirational appeal in the ways they did.

6.4.1 Schools heads' use of inspirational appeal leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

In the first part of this section I sought to understand school heads' use of leader influence behaviours in the area of the curriculum. In this area I focused on curriculum implementation. I observed that prayer was foregrounded in all important activities like when lessons started, when opening meetings and before pupils sit for an important examination. The person praying told God what the group wanted to achieve and asked for divine guidance. Teachers also prayed for school leadership asking God to guide them. Prayer is a common culture in most Christian schools. However, in an ethnographic context I was interested in finding out how it was used by school heads not only as a religious ritual but as a tool for influencing teacher behaviours in the context of curriculum implementation. I also realised that praying for school heads as teachers did was a way of influencing school heads too. I asked each

school head what the role of prayer was regarding their use of leader influence behaviours to implement the curriculum. In response, Mr Sheik the Glow school head had the following to say, “apart from appealing to teachers and pupils’ personal values of hard work and religion prayers were powerful at appealing to teachers and pupils’ positive emotions.” On the same matter, Mr Chinos the head of Myrna school said the following, “What teachers believe in has a very strong influence on how they perceive their work and abilities. We have seen that prayer sustains teachers’ spirit of hard work and improves their performance and endurance.”

Still on this issue, Mr Jacob the Zubi school head responded as follows, “Seeking divine intervention is a culture in the school. We believe that this will give our teachers the conviction and energy to work hard and commit themselves to tasks we will be facing.” From the responses I got from the school heads I learnt that they used prayer in their school not because there were Christians following a Christian ritual only, but also because they wanted to appeal to teachers’ values, ideals and beliefs as a way of influencing their work behaviours. However, the majority of teachers I talked to in conversational interviews said prayer was a culture of the school and they were Christians. They seemed not to realise how it was being used on them by school heads as a tool for influencing their work behaviours.

Concerning the culture of hard work purported by the three school heads I asked Mrs Dick of Zubi School this question, “I can see that merit certificate at the top of other certificates put up against the wall. For you to reach that level of success depicted by that certificate, how did you manage? This is how she responded,

This is a certificate of merit for 2013 grade seven results. I think we achieved this because ... Teachers are also self-motivated because of encouragement they get from the admin about their work and work colleagues. The school has a culture of hard work and you find that if you do not work hard, pressure will come from both the admin and other teachers to work hard like other members. All teachers who are capable teach and mark work for grade seven.

I asked her where the school head came in and she said, “He also taught the grade seven class even during the holiday. However, Mrs Dick’s response made me realise that inspirational appeal behaviours could have a strong normalising effect. In further discussions with Mrs Dick, I learnt that those who refused to offer free holiday lessons faced different kinds of pressures, exclusions and unfavourable remarks from the head and other teachers for going against what everyone was doing. If used this way, inspirational appeal may stop to fit in the distributed leadership and collegial framework which I see as ideal for effective leadership based on fairness, democracy and transparency.

I also turned my attention to teacher development and sought to understand leader influence behaviours school heads used in this area. Teacher development issues have to do with teacher enrichment and further training initiatives like staff development programmes, coaching clinics, mentoring courses and even organised degree programmes teachers can undergo to improve their work performance. I looked at what was happening at the three schools starting with Glow School to learn more about how school heads influenced teachers to participate in these programmes. From semi-structured interviews I had with the school head and teachers I learnt that teachers at Glow received no monetary or other incentive for running staff development sessions in their school. I learnt that Mr Sheik associated staff development with issues teachers liked and valued to influence teachers and keep staff development sessions alive. On this issue he commented that, “If topics are relevant and there is a real need and also if they own the sessions they will like staff development sessions.” He also aroused teacher enthusiasm by appealing to their values and beliefs. We can learn this from a comment Mrs Dewa of Glow School gave about how Mr Sheik influenced them to participate in staff development below,

The head makes us feel good about doing staff development by passing very positive comments after each session and encouraging us to keep on researching. He says, ‘what you are doing is the right thing and I can see we are benefiting a lot from the sessions.

Mr Sheik's comments appealed to teachers' professional values and positive emotions and were successful in keeping them going despite the absence of any extrinsic incentive. During my stay at the school I observed teachers organising and doing these staff development sessions with no push from the school head.

On the same issue of influencing teachers to participate in staff development this is what the Myrna school head, Mr Chinos had to say,

We haven't been able to give them monetary incentives due to the current economic hardships we are facing as a country; however I also encourage them to further their studies like this current scenario where we have this Teacher Capacity Development Programme. Teachers here like to learn. Quite a number of our members have shown interest.

Mr Chinos knew that his teachers valued further studies and he appealed to this value to keep teacher development alive in his school. What Mr Chinos did and said corroborates what Mrs Moyo of Myrna said on the same issue that, "There are no incentives for our participation however. Staff development does not die here because people know and see its importance."

Still on this issue of how school heads influenced teacher development in their schools, Mr Jacob the Zubi School head explained as follows: "Teachers suggest the topics so that topics that will be discussed become relevant to the teachers and address pertinent problems they will be facing." Still I noted that successful influence here was hinged on knowing what was important to teachers (values) and appealing to this to spur their interest in teacher development. The majority of teachers interviewed at Zubi School concurred with Mr Jack of Zubi School about how they were influenced to participate in teacher development. He had this to say, "There are no monetary incentives except verbal encouragement. You will hear him say learning does not end, let's welcome new knowledge we are getting." Apart from appealing to values Mr Jacob appealed to teachers' positive emotions and teachers' enthusiasm to learn new things and this influenced how teachers thought about participating in staff development. Teachers welcomed this and they continued with teacher development

activities despite the absence of incentives they used to get before the country's economy collapsed. The data from three schools above confirms my assertion that the three school heads used inspirational appeal to influence teacher behaviours where the leader makes an emotional request or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to followers' values and beliefs in order to influence behaviours (Lepsinger, 2013; Yukl, 2010).

Analysing what was happening at the three schools, I observed that prayer was used to open all important events and the person praying purposely targeted listeners' emotions, ideals and values. This made me to realise the significance of the churches built at all the three schools. In schools I have taught prayer was used as a way of identifying with a certain religion. What I found striking at the schools of my study was that it was used as a medium for appealing to and influencing teachers' behaviours in a way that would enhance school practice. Appealing to values, ideals, emotions and divine intervention as ways of influencing teachers resonates well with collegial and distributed leadership assumptions of leading. The leaders try to nurture in followers' common professional values and shared beliefs and objectives as a way of creating high performance cultures in the schools (Bush, 2011; Crawford, 2012; Manetje & Martins, 2009). By emphasising certain values and beliefs the school heads of Glow, Myrna and Zubi were able to create a common culture hinged on hard work.

Woods and Gronn (2009) see the potential for collegial management and distributed leadership to contribute to the democratic character of schools. However I am wary of the transformational character of inspirational appeal behaviours which I see as largely inspiring teachers to hero worship the exceptional abilities of the school head. Using Foucauldian lenses, inspirational appeals did not give me a clear picture of the resolution of power as it resides within the individual (agency) and the organisation or structure (Foucault, 2002). I saw inspirational appeals as having very high chances to implant in teachers' minds values, beliefs and interests that could be contrary to the teachers' own good but being best for the leader and the organisation. I base my argument on my observations of the use of religion and pressure (as mentioned by Mrs Dick in section 6.4.1, p. 39 above) to conform to inspirational values and ideals espoused by the school heads.

Looking at responses to leaders' inspirational appeal behaviours at the three schools, one can tell that teachers responded in a similar way. It seems inspirational appeal behaviours transformed and aroused commitment in teachers. Teachers at the three schools responded by committing themselves to work agendas and worked hard to achieve desired work outcomes. This may be a good example of using power in a positive way as espoused by Foucault (1975). He said power can either be used positively or negatively. Power, which is influence in action is seen by (Foucault, 2002) as a way in which certain actions modify others. This agrees with Spillane's (2005) view. Rather than viewing leadership practice as a product of a leader's knowledge and skill, (Foucault, 2002) and the distributed perspective of Spillane (2005) sees it as the interactions between people and their situation. In their interactions with teachers, the school heads were able to successfully influence teacher behaviours through inspirational appeals towards strong commitment to work objectives. Like collegial models which discourage reliance on authority and force (Bush, 2011; Hasanvand, 2013) distributed leadership espouses influence as appropriate for altering behaviours (Bush, 2008; Corigan, 2012; Hasanvand, 2013). It will be interesting to know why teachers at these three schools responded by supporting their school heads' proposals and committing themselves to hard work. Below I present and discuss data on this.

6.4.2 Reasons for particular teacher responses to inspirational appeal influence behaviours

I was interested in reasons teachers gave for responding to school heads by supporting and committing themselves to school heads' proposals as discussed above. I started interviewing teachers at Glow School. This is what some of them said which is representative of views expressed by the majority of the other teachers.

"He is a transparent man in all that he does," (Mrs Dube).

"Because of his exceptional leadership qualities the SDC gave him a prize for good leadership," (Mr Celo).

"He is also directly linked to all the good things that happen to us and this school," (Mr Dewa).

Teachers' comments suggest that teachers had a lot of respect for their school head and they believed in him. This made the teachers good targets for inspirational appeals because inspirational appeals work best if the leader and followers share common values and vision (Lepsinger, 2013). In this case they shared values of transparency and professionalism. Another possible explanation for teachers' response to the school head's appeals we can discern from their quotes above comes from what Wadud (2014) observed. He purports that Commitment grows when people hold each other to high principles. For example, Mr. Sheik was seen as an exceptional leader who was more or less the messiah of the school. The only danger here is a strong possibility of hero worshipping the school head and defeating efforts to distribute leadership and promote democracy in schools.

I was also interested in finding out more about why teachers at Myrna responded to Mr Chinos' inspirational appeals favorably, something that resulted in a culture of hard work in the school. In a semi-structured interview I learnt why teachers would believe Mr Chinos' appeals. Mr Chinos said, "Time allowing you should be seen doing the right thing so that when you say to your colleagues this is how we are supposed to do ABC, they will see that it's the right thing to do." Inspirational appeal here blended well with modelling behaviours. From my experience working with teachers I observed that If teachers can count on you like what Mr Chinos is alluding to here, it is more likely that you will be able to appeal to their values and beliefs and win their support.

The majority of teachers I interviewed at Zubi School identified transparency and fairness in their dealings with the school head as one of the reasons why they would believe in his influence attempts. They also said the school head' power of expertise also influenced choices they made when he appealed to them to consider certain proposals. For example, Mrs. Lee said, "He sometimes uses his expertise in administration to guide us on certain issues." This was complemented by having a vision and mission which everyone could own. This was expressed by the school head Mr Jacob when he said, "We have a vision. We discuss with them this vision and craft a mission for this vision together. So each and every teacher becomes a foot soldier fighting for our common cause." The common understanding

nurtured mutual trust which helped in making teachers see more of the good than the bad in the school head's appeal behaviours. This provided an incentive for teachers to be influenced by Mr Jacob's inspirational appeals.

A cross analysis of the three schools reveals that teachers at Glow School responded to the school head's inspirational appeals because the school head commanded a lot of respect. He also shared common values of professionalism and transparency with his teachers. Sharing common professional values was also a factor at Myrna and Zubi schools. This is in line with the collegial management model which purports that influence is enhanced where organisational members share common professional values and objectives (Bush, 2011). Similarly, looking at leadership through the lenses of distributed leadership, the school heads were seen to be concentrating their leadership activity towards influencing and transforming value orientations of their teachers. This might be because, "Distribution of leadership is framed within a culture of ideas and values (Crawford, 2012). Instead of using position authority to obtain compliance and commitment, I observed that the school heads fell back on inspirational appeal influence behaviours and the values that mattered to their teachers.

Apart from this teachers at Zubi school respected the school head's professional expertise and this influenced their take of the school head's influence attempts. For inspirational appeals to work, Lepsinger (2013) said you need to be seen as a credible resource. People need to see you as having expertise and experience in the area that you're talking about. This worked well for Mr Jacob who was seen as a very knowledgeable school head by his teachers. Despite its effectiveness people associate inspirational appeal with charisma and high energy (Lepsinger, 2013). I think energy and charisma help with inspirational appeal but there is the potential for manipulation of followers due to the personality of the leader (Burton & Peachy, 2013). Another leader influence behaviour used by school heads was that of legitimating. Its use was limited but significant. In the following paragraphs I present and discuss data on it.

6.5 LEGITIMATION

Legitimation is when a leader would refer to rules, policies, contracts, or say that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice as a way of creating the impression that the request or proposal he or she is making is legitimate (Von Dohlen, 2012; Yukl, 2006). In the first subsection below I present and discuss data on schools heads' use of legitimation leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them. In the Second subsection I present and discuss data on why teachers responded to school heads' legitimation behaviours in the way they did.

6.5.1 Schools heads' use of legitimation leader influence behaviours and how teachers responded to them

In my quest to learn about leader influence behaviours my, attention was drawn to the area of teacher discipline. In this area I delved into issues of how school heads used leader influence behaviours to influence teachers' disciplinary behaviour. In my data gathering I started at Glow School. I observed that there was a chart showing the disciplinary committee members and disciplinary procedures in the head's office and I talked about it during semi-structured interviews. The majority of teachers shared Mr Ndlovu's sentiments who reiterated that, "Like I have said before statutory instruments are read to us now and again and the repercussions are made clear to all of us, like you referred to that chart." In two general meetings I attended and at many after assembly caucus meetings, I observed that Mr Sheik reminded teachers of disciplinary issues from statutory instruments and local school policy. Whenever this happened I observed that teachers responded by listening and they did not pass any comments. This mood was quite different from what I had observed when the school head used other leader influence behaviours like empowerment and inspirational appeal where teachers actively participated in the discussions. I observed that teachers would carry out what the school head would have requested but not enthusiastically like when inspirational appeal was used. At time they did not respond to such requests. For example when Mr Sheik read the official dress code and asked male teachers to dress accordingly some did not change their dressing.

On the same issue of teacher discipline, Mr Chinos the school head of Myrna said he exerted positive influence on informal and formal communication in the school to maintain teacher discipline in his school. He did this by referring to policy and precedence. He explained to me that;

You know any member of staff is inducted about what is expected of him or her and part of that induction programme includes ministry policy, local school policy and the official secrecy act and if one is found spreading malicious gossip he will be questioned.

In a semi-structured interview for teachers most teachers reiterated what Mrs Tari said, “He (Mr Chinos) encourages us to be disciplined and at times quotes from statutes.” I observed this happens at many after assembly caucus meetings and each time it happened, teachers would not respond even if the school head paused for a response from the teachers. However, I did not observe any violations of the official secrecy act during my stay at the school.

Still on the same issue of teacher discipline this is what Mr Jacob the Zubi School head had to say,

Firstly, we always remind the teachers about ministry regulations. We do not want to create a threatening environment but we try to bring to their attention the regulations that guide them here at work and what the consequences of breaching them are and our teachers are well informed about these issues.

Mr Jacob’s explanation was corroborated by what most teachers said about the issue. For example Mrs Tom said, “He (Mr Jacob) also goes through ministry policies during general meetings explaining to us consequences of breaching regulations.” I observed this happen many times at caucus meetings at Zubi School. The non-threatening and warm climate referred to by Mr Jacob and an appreciation of disciplinary procedures in the school was echoed by Mr Jack a teacher at Zubi School when I asked him how teacher discipline was maintained in the school. He said,

Teachers here are disciplined. I haven’t heard of squabbles like in other schools. We are open to each other and the school head is also open to us. We take each other like brothers and sisters...

I asked him what happens in the event that there was a case of indiscipline and he explained that,

There is a disciplinary committee lead by the deputy head. It calls the concerned teacher to hear his or her side of the story...Statutory 1 of 2000 is also an important disciplinary tool read to us two or three times in a term as a way of reminding us about ministry regulations.

I however observed active resistance to Mr Jacob's legitimating influence behaviours in curricular issues at an after assembly caucus (Chapter 5 section 5.2.1) when he tried to write a report on the state of textbooks for each class. I pursued to find out if this resistance incident was an isolated case. I noted legitimation and resistance in resource allocation too. In a conversational interview, Mrs Lee, a housing committee member narrated how they blocked the school head from deviating from the house allocation policy. The school head wanted to deviate from this policy to accommodate a new deputy head. "We told him that this was the policy at this school," and this did not happen.

A common trend across the three schools was the use of legitimating leader influence behaviours to influence teacher discipline. However, the Zubi school head also used it to influence curricular and human resource allocations. The use of legitimating behaviours across other core areas of the school head's work like policy, curricular issues, communication and teacher development was not observed suggesting that its uptake may have been very minimal. Its minimal uptake could be attributed to its norming character (Foucault, 1975) which is the use of norms, structures, policies and rules to enforce teacher compliance. I did not see this as promoting professional relationships based upon collegiality, collaboration and mutual agency which the schools were largely trying to promote. Apart from this, in a study about leadership tactics and organisational citizenship behaviour by Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011), it was found that legitimation and sanctions were negative behaviours which may be detrimental to members' organisational citizenship behaviour and as such may result in teachers experiencing low self-esteem. Whilst the overall picture runs with what Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) found and what I also found, some comments like Mr Jack's above run contrary to this suggesting that there is a positive side to legitimation.

A cross analysis of what was happening at the three schools shows that teachers at Zubi School would sometimes openly challenge the school head who at times would give in. Teachers at Glow and Myrna schools silently complied with the school heads' legitimating behaviours. In some cases teachers did not respond to the influence attempts and the suggested request would not be carried out like what happened at Glow School. Gaventa and Pettit (2011) say if followers see the threat of force or violence for resisting the leader's influence attempt they would engage in every-day forms of resistance such as foot-dragging, evasion, false compliance, pilfering, feigned ignorance, slander and sabotage. Teachers at Glow and Myrna might have employed these tactics because of perceived threats from the school heads if they were to engage in open resistance like what Zubi school teachers sometimes did. Unlike at Glow and Myrna Schools where structural influence seemed to have been stronger, the Zubi school head allowed for more teacher agency and did not stifle resistance. This is in line with the collegial model and distributed leadership. From a distributed leadership perspective, individuals play off one another, creating a reciprocal interdependence of their actions (Spillane et al., 2011). What is very important for leaders practising distributed leadership is their interactions with their followers who are seen as being capable of modifying influence actions of the leader (Foucault, 2000). This therefore would create an environment in the school where open challenge to the school head's influence attempt is possible. This environment is what seems to have been there at Zubi School. After having presented and discussed data on teachers' responses to school heads' legitimating behaviours, it may be interesting to find out why they responded the way they did. I present and discuss data to answer this question below.

6.5.2 Why teachers responded to legitimation influence behaviours in the way they did

As a practising school head I did not think much as to why teachers would respond to my influence behaviours in the way they did. My later realisation of challenges of leadership raised my curiosity over this issue. I set out to find out reasons given by teachers for their responses to legitimation leader influence behaviours. I started at Glow School. Talking about passive compliance, a teacher I shared a house with at Glow school had this to say, "There are certain policy issues where the only option will be to comply, so you can't waste your time arguing over them." On the same issue Mrs Moyo of Myrna school responded saying,

“At times you just keep quiet if you are not happy because you fear the authority of the head.” Her response was similar to responses I got from the majority of teachers I interviewed at her school and those at Zubi School too. Responding to why they were at times very vocal, some teachers at Zubi School expressed the following opinions, “My belief is that it must be people who are on the ground, affected by the implementation and everything who should determine their own fate (Mrs Lee). I also believe that teachers are better informed about many things since they are at the forefront of running school affairs (Mrs Tom). From these quotes I deduced that Zubi teachers’ response to the school head’s influence behaviours were partly influenced by a belief in expert power they possessed. They believed that they had the capacity to influence the school head because they possessed knowledge, skills, abilities or relevant previous experiences (Ezigbo, 2013). Because the collegial environment in the school allowed this, teachers’ voices at Zubi School could be heard. Teachers at Glow and Myrna would comply or not respond to the school head’s legitimating behaviours. I understood this to be an issue linked to issues of the school heads’ use of position power. Position power or legitimate power can be seen as the capacity to influence on the basis of (organizational) rules which are accepted by the teachers and legitimize the power holder (school head) to determine their behaviour (Klocke, 2009). It is for the aforementioned reasons that I assert that norms of compliance to authorities make it more likely that teachers accept requests made by school heads seen as wielding high amounts of position power (Lines, 2007). This could be the source of the less favourable power which Foucault (1975) said worked to constitute the individual leaving him or her more vulnerable to exploitation and manipulation.

I also looked at teachers’ responses to legitimation from a cultural perspective. I observed that in all the three schools the school heads were often referred to as ‘Mukuru’ (The senior). It may be as a result of this that teachers would not contest certain issues if the school head declared a position in advance. To support my assertion I refer to Pisapia and Pang (2013). Their findings were that there was a clear link between leader influence actions and societal culture. They claim that this was determined by power distance issues. Power distance refers to the social stratification within a society such that higher-status individuals and groups are

accorded more power and authority than those of lower status (Pisapia & Pang, 2013). This was confirmed by the Zubi school head in a conversation when he said, “Culturally seniors are accorded some respect if it comes to sharing with youngsters.” It can be sharing resources, ideas or anything. So in this context I suggest that teachers at Glow and Myrna Schools complied with some of the school head’s leader influence behaviours as a way of observing cultural norms of seniority regulating interaction in certain contexts in African communities.

6.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I presented and discussed data about how school heads used empowerment, rational persuasion, and inspirational appeal and legitimation behaviours to influence teachers’ work behaviours. I also presented and discussed data on how teachers responded to school heads’ influence behaviours and why they responded the way they did. Something I learnt from this chapter is that teachers would respond by committing themselves if soft influence behaviours like empowerment, rational persuasion and inspirational appeal were used on them. They would comply or resist if harsh influence behaviours like legitimation were used to influence their behaviours. In the following chapter I will present my summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations.

CHAPTER 7

BRINGING DOWN THE CURTAIN: LEARNINGS FROM THE STUDY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters focused on the presentation and discussion of data related to leader influence behaviours of consultation, stewardship, shared responsibility, empowerment, rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and legitimation used by school heads to influence teachers. This chapter marks the culmination of my research journey. I therefore cast a recursive gaze on my research journey by commencing the chapter with a summary of the study. I then synthesise the findings of the study to address the “so what” question of my study. I do this by drawing on a model I developed after deep reflection into the findings from the two data chapters. The model has also assisted me to conclude the study around my critical questions. I bring the Chapter to closure by suggesting recommendations for further research.

7.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In the first chapter I reported that in Zimbabwe there has been an outcry about poor leadership and management amongst school heads by the Public media (Gore, 2012; Mhlanga, 2013; Share, 2013), Teachers’ Union representatives, parents and District Education Officers at various meetings I attended. As I left most of these meetings, I often asked myself, “How best can school heads influence teachers and improve work outcomes?” I felt that there was something lacking about how school heads practised leadership in their schools. However, from my experience as a school head and the literature available for the preparation of school heads in Zimbabwe, I reported that very little if any was known about school heads’ use of leader influence behaviours in educational leadership and management. I argued that there was need to explore and push the peripheral attention given to this key aspect of educational leadership and management as an effort to better equip school heads for

leadership and better work outcomes. My study aimed to answer the following critical questions:

1. How do school heads influence teachers in their day to day work context?
2. How do teachers respond to school heads' influence behaviours?
3. Why do teachers respond to leader influence behaviours in the way they do?

The aim of chapter two was to review literature on leader influence behaviours. I did this by first tracking what is known about leadership theory by looking at trait and behavioural theories of leadership, limiting the discussion to brief descriptions of theories relevant to this study only. I also explained the possible origins of the phrase leader 'influence tactics' as a way of explaining why I dropped it in favour of leader 'influence behaviours' in this study. I then moved on to discuss the work of dominant writers in the field of influence behaviours namely Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl et al. (1992) and of late Sampson (2012). Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al.'s (1992) set of eleven leader influence behaviours are still the mainstay in the corporate sector leadership and management environments. What came out of these studies was that leadership success is hinged on the leader's ability to influence others and that the study of leader influence behaviours is not yet fully explored. In response to this, there has been a number of studies exploring leader influence behaviours trying to apply Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl et al.'s (1992) findings to various organisational situations. Some of these further studies in this area were carried by Roger et al. (2011), Lian (2012), Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011), Pisapia and Pang (2013) and Von Dohlen (2012). The studies mainly explored how Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl et al.'s (1992) identified leader influence behaviours are mediated by other issues like culture distance, trust and direction of influence.

Sampson (2012) is a rare exception to the group of researchers trying to apply Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl et al.'s (1992) findings to various organisational situations. He tried to identify more leader influence behaviours. I pointed that this is critical in understanding leadership and influence processes in organisations particularly in the context of new theories of leadership that have emerged since the ground breaking studies of Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl et al. (1992). I discussed how all the studies mentioned above related to my study and

also how they shaped some aspects of my study. I also pointed out the gaps this study is contributing to fill. For example, though well researched in the corporate sector in developed countries like America, research on leader influence behaviours is still at its infancy in developing countries like Zimbabwe, particularly in the education sector where little research has been done if any. Apart from contributing new knowledge, this study contributes to the hard to find literature on leader influence behaviours in the country and is one of the few done using a qualitative approach. What also emerged was that contextual and cultural issues were critical in mediating leader influence behaviours something the quantitative approaches, other studies used (Refer to chapter 2, section 2.7, p. 36) did not consider but was enabled by my use of the qualitative approach in this study.

In chapter three, I discussed the theoretical framework underpinning this study. The three-legged theoretical framework draws from the practice of distributed leadership, Bush's (2011) collegial model of educational management and Foucault's notions of power. The practice of distributed leadership is the first leg of my theoretical tool kit and I move on to discuss it first. I defined distributed leadership as the expansion of leadership roles in schools beyond those in formal leadership or administrative posts (Harris, 2010). As a result, there can be multiple leaders in the school, each chosen to lead in his or her area of specialisation. For this to happen I argued that school heads ought to think of distributed leadership as an attitude or generalised way of thinking about leadership that is hinged on practice (the daily performance of leadership routines, functions, and structures). This is because, "A distributed perspective frames practice in a particular way, not simply as individual actions but rather as a product of the interactions among school leaders, followers and aspects of their situation" (Spillane et al., 2011, p. 161).

The second leg of my three-legged theoretical framework is the collegial model of organisational management. The model purports that organisational members (both the school head and teachers) determine policy and make decisions through a process of discussion leading to consensus. During the debates and discussions, there can be disagreements but there is always a willingness to give and receive criticism in order to enhance practice (Bush, 2011). What I understood from Bush's assertion was a situation

where teachers collaborated on many professional issues like staff development sessions, team supervision and meetings where ideas about teaching and learning are freely debated and exchanged. The role of the school head was to facilitate and nurture this collaborative culture in the school. Apart from towing the line of promoting democratic principles the country of Zimbabwe embraced at independence I argued that there was a general belief that participation increased school effectiveness. When teachers participate in decision making, there is ownership of decisions and ideas which gives teachers an incentive to exert more effort to achieve work objectives (Bush, 2008; Leithwood et al., 2007).

Foucault's notions of power is the third and last leg of my theoretical framework tool kit. The wide applicability of Foucault's ideas makes them most suitable for studying the elusive concept of leadership in this study. Foucault explains how man can be subjected to power by authority to create what he called a disciplinary society by means of what he called disciplinary power (Anita, 2010; Bowdridge & Blenkinsop, 2011). The notion of disciplinary power is from Foucault's book; *Discipline and Punish (1975)* in which he used Bentham's Panopticon prison structure to describe how technologies of power work to produce the intended influence behaviours in subordinates. In the Panopticon prisoners were locked in individual cells from which they were visible to prison wardens whom they themselves could not see. Following from this, Foucault (1975) argued that the principal mechanisms that disciplinary power develops and by means of which it operates were surveillance or hierarchical observation, normalising judgement and examination. I argued that these disciplinary mechanisms were also used by school heads to influence teacher behaviours. District education officers who supervise school heads also use the same mechanisms to influence school heads' behaviour. This is the basis for Foucault's (1988, p. 93) assumption that "power is produced ... in every relation from one point to another, it is everywhere, not because it embraces everything, but because it comes from everywhere." In this study, the implication of this characteristic of power for leadership is that power, as the capacity to influence, is not the preserve of the leader alone. It is a two way process in relations between the leader and the led. Because power is all-embracing; that is, everybody in a relationship (teachers and school heads) is a source of power, I reasoned that subservience, silence, or

being dominated do not necessarily signify a lack of power but can in fact signify a different manifestation of power.

Foucault broke with traditional power discussions where leaders were seen as having power and their followers were powerless (Bernal, 2011). Foucault's conception of power and leadership links well with the practice of distributed leadership where leadership can be practised at all levels of the school's hierarchy (Refer to chapter section). This is best facilitated by a collegial environment where there is collaboration and open two way communication. The converging of ideas and assertions from Foucault, the collegial model and distributed leadership theory shows how, apart from being seen as building blocks of my overall theoretical framework, the three-legged framework also complement each other. What emerged from this chapter was that Solo leadership was giving way to collaborative forms of leadership in most schools in Zimbabwe and influence in school organisations may come from more than one source. For example, teachers have influence school heads should recognise.

In chapter four, I stated what the major research paradigms namely positivism, interpretivism, criticalism and postmodernism are in passing. This enhanced my understanding of the paradigm I chose for my study. In addition to that, the overview worked as my campus as I navigated through the uneasy task of distinguishing my methodology and methods. For example, throughout the study I used my knowledge of how different my chosen paradigm is with other paradigms as a reference point. This helped me to avoid mixing and blurring ideas shaping my methodology and methods informed by my paradigm with those of otherwise conflicting paradigms. In this context, I justified why I chose the interpretivist paradigm for this study. I also discussed the research approach I chose for the study. Next, I discussed ethnography as my chosen research design, showing how it links with my paradigm and the nature of research I am doing. Thereafter, I discussed the methods. I discussed observation, interviews and artefacts as the methods used to generate data to answer my research questions. I discussed how I sampled sites and participants for the study and how I analysed data using ethnographic data analysis approaches of coding and seeking patterns in data. I

discussed Guba and Lincoln's (1994) criteria for evaluating validity and reliability issues in qualitative research. Lastly, I discussed ethical issues impacting on this study.

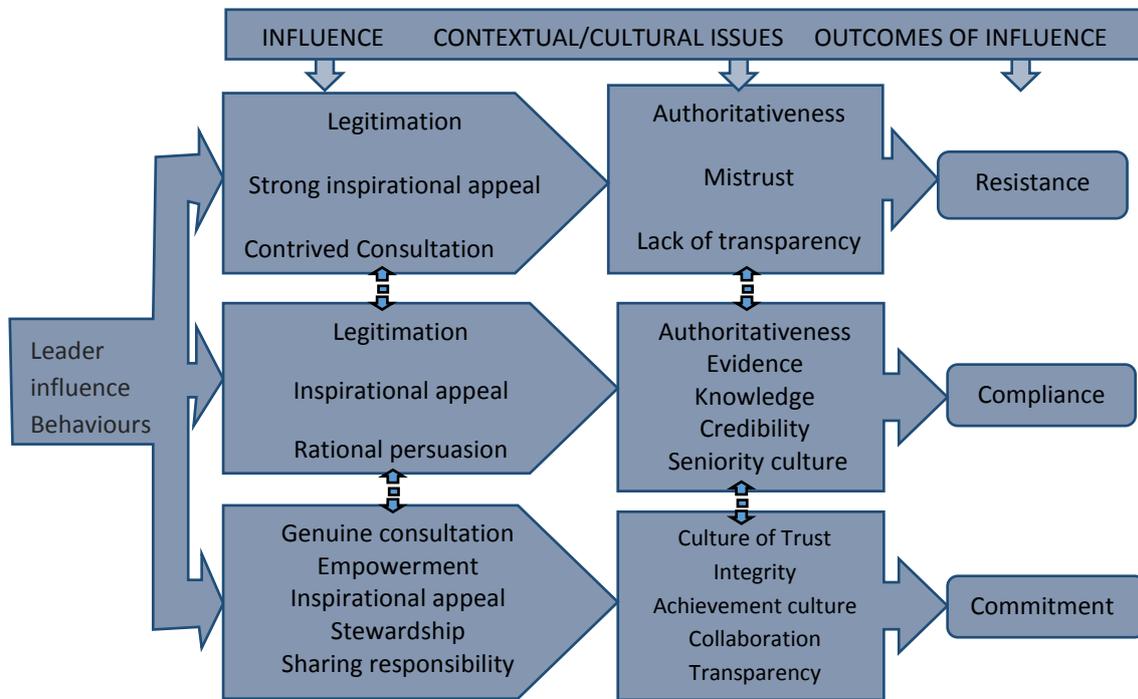
In Chapters 5 and six, I presented and discussed data on leader influence behaviours used by school heads from the three schools. For each identified leader influence behaviour, I presented and discussed data on how it was used by the three school heads and what teachers said about the school heads' use of the influence behaviour. I also presented and discussed data on how teachers responded to school heads' leader influence behaviours and why they responded in the way they did. One important thing to note from chapters 5 and 6 is that the discussed leader influence behaviours were neither used in a mutually exclusive way nor were teachers' responses unrelated. It came out that school heads sometimes used a blend of leader influence behaviours to enhance chances of success at influencing teachers. I also learnt that certain leader influence behaviours were generally preferred for use in certain core areas of the school head's work. Cultures of hard work, transparency and high achievement mediated the success of influence attempts that were both from the school heads and teachers. Teachers responded positively to influence attempts if they felt that their contributions were valued and negatively if they felt otherwise. Next, I discuss findings of the entire study in detail. I do so by responding to the critical questions raised by this study (Refer chapter 1, section 1.4.7, p. 7). The first question sought to establish how school heads influenced teachers in their day-to-day work context.

7.3 The “so what” of leader influence behaviours

The aim of the study was to explore how school heads influence teachers and how the teachers in turn respond and the reasons they responded in particular ways. I found synergies and interlocking linkages between my three critical questions that necessitated the decision to present conclusions about them together with the assistance of a model. I used what came out of the study to come up with a model shown in figure 7. 1. I grouped leader influence behaviours I found were being used by school heads according to the most likely outcome of the leader influence behaviours. I also discuss contextual and cultural conditions that I found to be mediating the effectiveness of the leader influence behaviours. Contextual and cultural

issues refer to prevailing cultures, values and situational issues prevailing at the school under study. This crystallisation of research findings resulted in three sets or groups of leader influence behaviours arranged in three rows. Each row has a box showing relevant contextual and cultural issues that I found to mediate the set of leader influence behaviours and another box showing the outcome of the leader influence behaviours. Some influence behaviours and contextual and cultural issues appear in more than one row or across all the rows of the model. This shows permeability and complementarity of these behaviours and issues in the study, suggesting that nothing stands in silos in the practice of leadership as depicted by the model here. The double broken arrows pointing up and down in the model illustrate this. A deductive analysis using Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl et al. (1992) and Sampson's (2012) list of leader influence behaviours revealed most of the leader influence behaviours in the model except empowerment and stewardship which I added after their wide use by school heads under study was revealed by the data. The leader influence behaviours clustered at the bottom of my model came out to be the leader influence behaviours that were used by school heads across all core areas of their work suggesting their popularity with school heads. A quick comment I can make at this point about the model and the distribution of influence behaviours across the three sets with most of them in the set linked to commitment at the bottom of the model suggests a thrust by school heads towards using less task oriented (traditional, in first row of the model) leadership approaches. It may mean leaders are using relationship (relational, in last row of the model) oriented leadership approaches associated with interaction and commitment to work agendas. I now move on to synthesis and discuss findings of my study using a model in figure 7. 1 below.

Figure 7. 1: My model showing leader influence behaviours, cultural and contextual issues



7.3.1 Leader influence behaviours: cultural/contextual issues and Resistance

When we were allocated classes this year we did not get an inventory and the state of books was not checked as a result. So the report you are suggesting will not be fair to some of us (Zubi School infant teacher, see Chapter 5, section 5.2.1, p. 94).

Starting with the first set of influence behaviours in the model, findings of the study confirmed that legitimation, strong inspirational appeal and contrived consultation behaviours were most likely to result in or be interpreted by teachers with mistrust, lack of transparency and authoritativeness. For example, what emerged about legitimation was that school heads had a tendency of using ministry policy circulars and statutes to influence teacher discipline (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.5.1, p. 149). This created an authoritative environment making school heads’ attempts at consulting teachers on other issues difficult. This is because teachers felt that the consultation discussions were not balanced since reference to statutes

and ministry policies excluded debate on certain issues. The same effect of excluding free debate and critical thinking on matters of concern to teachers was also created by the use of strong inspirational appeals which created strong identification with the leader and his views. What I found was that highly inspirational school heads also become very powerful heads because of their huge following. This made those who dared to question or go against the heroic school heads face pressure tactics that could include sanctions, coercion, blocking, and exclusions (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.4.1, p. 141), proving right those who say power corrupts.

In a study I reviewed about leadership tactics and organisational citizenship behaviour by Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) and also this study, legitimisation and contrived consultation were negative behaviours which were detrimental to members' organisational citizenship behaviour and as such resulted in teachers experiencing low self-esteem (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.2.1, p. 94). The authoritative environment and a lack of trust and transparency all housed in the second box of my model, were found to contribute to teacher apathy, suspicion and low self-esteem and a tense working environment. This greatly reduced school heads' success at influencing teachers. In this context, however I also reported an interesting finding. I reported instances where the use of legitimisation behaviours was welcomed by teachers and resulted in helping behaviours, identification with the group and positive work outcomes. For example some teachers talked of the positive and appreciated impact of constantly referring to rules and regulations to maintain teacher discipline (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.5.1, p. 149). Findings of the study here were in line with Foucault who purported that power is not only negative and repressive but can also be positive, productive and enabling. He said, "We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms....., the individual and the knowledge that may be gained of him belong to this production" (Foucault, 1991, p. 194).

However, I realised that this turn around can only be achieved when leaders are seen to be benevolent, warm and the school climate is propped on trust and transparency. Mr Sheik the school head of Glow said it right when he asserted, "We do not want to create a threatening

environment but we try to bring to their attention the regulations that guide them here at work.” Like Mr Sheik, I have learnt through this study and personal experiences that using rules, policies and other legitimating behaviours to threaten teachers creates an atmosphere that makes the teachers work in a self-protection mode and nothing gets done in this environment. This can only stifle growth and creativity and it kills the team spirit and collaboration that I see as a recipe for successful leadership. However, as purported by Foucault (1991) above and also reported in this study, using legitimating behaviours the other way round can be an additional arrow in a good leader’s quiver instead. Nevertheless, I realised that when their influence attempts failed in these situations, school heads tended to fall back to more legitimating behaviours and contrived consultations that were backed up by the force of their legitimate power. This created more resentment and various forms of resistance by teachers. Resistance as an outcome of legitimation, strong inspirational appeal and contrived consultation is shown in the third box of the first row of my model. How it played out at the three schools under study is discussed in more detail below.

I looked at resistance to school heads’ influence attempts using Foucault (1975)’s power analysis toolkit and also ideas from Scott (1985). In his influential book, *Weapons of the weak: everyday forms of resistance* (1985) Scott introduces the idea that oppression and resistance are in constant flux. Scott looks at less visible, every-day forms of resistance such as foot-dragging, evasion, false compliance, pilfering, feigned ignorance, slander and sabotage. His ideas conflate with those of Foucault who says, “Where there is power there is resistance.” With these ideas at the back of my mind, I realised that at times teachers resisted school heads’ influence attempts by evasion. An example is what happened at Glow school where I reported that some teachers evaded to take classes allocated to them by giving excuses (refer to chapter 5, section 5.2.1, p. 94) Teachers also showed resistance by arguing particularly at caucus consultation meetings (Refer the opening excerpt of this section above). In some cases teachers showed their resistance by not giving their views in these contrived consultation discussions. For example, I reported that on several occasions in my observations, teachers at Myrna would just keep quiet when the school head, Mr Chinos paused for them to respond to legitimating influence attempts (Refer to chapter 6, section

6.5.1, p. 148). These forms of resistance occurred across all core areas of the school heads' work although they were more intense in the areas of policy formulation and implementation, and discipline where school heads often referred to statutes and school rules to influence outcomes. I realised that teachers did not want direct confrontation (overt resistance) with the school heads but instead resorted to established ways of behaving and speaking that are understood by both the school heads and teachers in each particular school setting as resistance, what Scott (1985) called, *Everyday forms of resistance*. What I found out was that teachers opted for this kind of resistance because they were evading the perceived negative consequences of an all-out confrontation with school heads. The legitimate power wielded by school heads was cited in this case.

I also found that teachers' assertiveness in discussions and arguments was partly influenced by a belief in the expert power they possessed as professionals. In line with collegial and distributed leadership, teachers believed that they had the capacity to influence the school heads because they possessed knowledge, skills, abilities or relevant previous experiences (Refer to chapter 3, section 3.2.2, p. 43). At all the schools, school heads faced various forms of resistance and influence attempts by school heads were at times altered or not accepted at all (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.2.1, p. 96). I saw this to be in line with Spillane's (2011) assertion about distributed leadership. He said leadership practice should be viewed as a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their situation. What I learnt and found out however, is that most teachers view authority negatively and Foucault (1991, p. 194) advised that "We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms." On the other hand, most of those in leadership also view resistance to their influence attempts negatively. However, what came out of this study about resistance was that at times it shaped leadership, perfected it and resulted in positive outcomes the leaders appreciated. I reported an interview I had with Mr Sheik the Glow school head in this regard. Mr Sheik commented that the resistance he occasionally faced during consultation meetings was a valuable source of his leadership and professional wisdom (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.2.1, p. 96). If such an attitude, as depicted by Mr Sheik towards teachers' voices and also leadership can be nurtured, some leadership challenges bordering around mistrust, lack of

transparency and excessive use of position authority schools are currently facing can be ameliorated. Teachers also responded to school heads' influence behaviours by complying. Next, I present and discuss my findings on how school heads influenced teacher behaviours resulting in teacher compliance. (Refer to the second row of model 7.1).

7.3.2 Leader influence behaviours: cultural/contextual issues and compliance

At times you just keep quiet if you are not happy because you fear the authority of the head, (Mrs Moyo of Myrna School), (Refer to chapter 6 section 6.5.2, p. 139).

As shown in the second row of model 7.1, Legitimizing leader influence behaviours and rational persuasion influence behaviours were more likely to secure compliance. Foregrounding the importance of rational persuasion, Lathero and Risku (2013) said when the school heads use the verbal cultural artefacts (power of language to articulate issues during consultation, rational persuasion and legitimating arguments) in leadership, the language they use does not operate only as a tool to communicate. It also affects teachers' ways of understanding the reality of their school and situation. As such, in many instances, success at influencing teachers depended on the school heads' power of explanation, which was backed up by knowledge, evidence and conversation (see second box of second row of model 7.1); interestingly confirming the common assertion that 'knowledge is power.' I reported school heads' exhibition of professional knowledge, production of receipts and booklets and reference to authoritative sources like statutes in meetings. This worked as evidence and it enhanced their credibility and chances of success at influencing teachers in meetings (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.3.1, p. 133). It emerged that the more school heads exhibited attributes of being knowledgeable and credible the more teachers were likely to believe in their influence attempts.

What came out from the literature (chapter 2, section 2.5, p. 27) was that research on the effectiveness of leader influence behaviours concentrated on the effectiveness of individual leader influence behaviours. What came out of this study however was that school heads used a blend of rational persuasion, legitimization behaviours in meetings to varying degrees

(chapter 6, section 6.3.1, p. 133). The broken arrows between the blocks in the model represent the permeability and blending of both influence behaviours and contextual issues I am referring to here. I have already said legitimisation behaviours featured prominently in the area of discipline. What also came out was that rational persuasion was used in many core areas of the school heads' work but it was used more intensely to influence teacher behaviours in the area of financial management. It emerged that teacher participation in this area was minimal. Most of the time, financial decisions were explained to teachers. Despite the wide use of rational persuasion in this area, support for financial decisions was mostly based on the extent to which the school heads were able to blend rational persuasion with the legitimacy of their proposals by appropriately referencing statutes, policies, precedence and exhibiting knowledge and evidence that could convince teachers that claims they were making were credible.

The practice of reading rules and regulations to influence teacher behaviours was common at all schools (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.5.1, p. 149). I said this caused resistance above, but when legitimating behaviours, strong inspirational appeals and contrived consultation were accompanied by a perceived or real threat of force by the school heads, teachers stopped resisting and complied to the school heads' influence attempts. I realised that teachers at the end of the day made choices either to comply and be safe or to ignore the school heads' influence attempts and face unfavourable consequences from the school heads who had legitimate power to charge them of misconduct. In most cases, they complied. Compliance was the most likely outcome of legitimisation, inspirational appeal and rational persuasion and is shown in the last box in the second row of my model. To be clear, I should define what I mean by compliance in this context. Pierro et al. (2013) defines compliance as a social norm requiring obedience and change of behaviour by followers from people who are in a superior position in an organisation. The change is socially dependent in that the followers continue to relate the change to the influencing person. Follower compliance thus requires continued surveillance supported by rules and regulations of the organisation enforced by the influencing person to maintain the change. In this study, this manifested itself in the prevalence of disciplinary committees at all the schools that assisted the school head to monitor and maintain teacher discipline (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.5.1, p. 147).

Apart from knowledge, credibility and authority, I also reported the mediating effect of prevailing cultures as enhancing school heads' chances of success at influencing teachers. It came out that culture was one of the contextual issues linked to compliance. This thread of thinking about culture was captured in interviews with school heads and teachers as one of the issues contributing to what makes teachers yield to leader influence attempts and the creation of an achievement culture in the schools (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.3.2, p. 108). For example apart from complying to avoid bad blood between them and the school head or to avoid negative consequences of breaching rules as I have explained before, it came out that teachers also complied as observance of cultural norms (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.3.1, p. 137). For example, I had an interview with Mrs Tom of Zubi School. She explained that her school had a culture of hard work and new teachers joining the school had only one choice, to fit into this culture or face rejection. I also reported the seniority culture in the schools where the school heads were referred to as 'Mukuru' (the senior/elder) and it was unbecoming for juniors not to comply with the advice of elders or their seniors (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.5.2, p. 107).

However, when teachers complied there was no enthusiasm to carry out the requested action suggesting that if the threat of position power and cultural obligations were to be removed teachers could easily slide back with their old behaviours. I see the main reason for complying in most of the cases narrated above as teachers being unsure because they lack adequate knowledge or because they want to avoid the wrath of the law or social rejection. Whilst this is the case, I think school heads should aim to move teachers from this level of fear and indecisiveness to the next level of commitment. Foucault (1991) and also data from this study (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.4.1) suggest that power, manifesting itself in legitimisation behaviours, can be used either to instil fear (negative view) or drive out fear (Positive view) from followers. Borrowing from Foucault (1991), we must cease once and for all to use or regard ministry of education statutes and policies as intimidatory tools to force compliance. Ministry policies like the popular *statutory instrument 1 of 2000* should be written in simple English and also local languages instead of the law-like language used at the present moment which excludes most teachers from meaningful engagement. Then lack

of knowledge and understanding about conditions of service and other policy provisions played upon by other school heads and blamed for compliance can be substituted by empowerment, informed debates, transparency and commitment. Regular feedback and information sharing like the caucus meetings I reported on earlier on can go a long way in empowering teachers with information so that the fear and suspicion that is blamed for compliance and mediocre performance can be eliminated in schools. This is the positive aspect of power and leadership that should be maximised on to create positive work environments in schools that breed commitment. At this point let me move on to present and discuss findings about how school heads influenced teachers so as to secure their commitment to work agendas.

7.3.3 Leader influence behaviours; cultural/contextual issues and Commitment

One would say if the school head commits himself to teaching, what about me? Should I sit? This school is my 5th school after college and I have never seen a school head committed to teaching and learning like this head, (Mrs Tom of Zubi School), (Refer to chapter 5 section 5.3.1, p. 104).

I would say genuine consultation, empowerment, inspirational appeal, stewardship and sharing responsibility in the last block of my model is the ideal of how effective school heads influenced teachers. What emerged from the study was that if a cocktail of these leader influence behaviours were used chances of success at influencing teachers were highest. Highest chances of succeeding at influencing teachers were achieved when school heads shared responsibilities with the teachers, empowering them in the process, showing care, concern for their personal growth and positive reflection. In their leadership roles, I realised that school heads also consulted widely and inspired teachers by their stewardship behaviours. The second box in the last row of my model shows contextual and cultural issues that worked together with genuine consultation, empowerment, inspirational appeal, stewardship and sharing responsibility to enhance success at influencing teachers. The box on cultural and contextual issue shows that this success was built on transparency, integrity, collaboration, culture of trust, achievement culture, and recognition of effort by the school

heads. For example, I reported that the autonomy given to the various committees at the three schools was based on mutual trust (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.4.1, p. 111). Even in situations where it was not expected, school heads showed trust. For example, the issue of allowing teachers to allocate themselves scarce stationery I reported in this regard (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.2.1, p. 123) was a gesture of mutual trust that went a long way in enhancing leader influence. Providing evidence where it was needed as alluded to earlier on was a way of cultivating values of transparency, fairness, credibility and integrity building on to the genuineness of school heads' consultation, empowerment, inspirational appeal, stewardship and sharing responsibility behaviours. What came out of this study was that using these leader influence behaviours and practising the values of transparency, fairness, credibility, trust and others shown in the contextual and cultural issues box in the second row of my model inspired teachers. The practice of these values gave teachers more reasons to believe in and buy into the school heads' proposals than to doubt them, enhancing chances of school heads' influence attempts. What emerged from the study was that this often resulted in teacher commitment to work objectives shown by the last box in the third row of my model. I discuss commitment and cultures that worked to build it in detail below (refer to cultural and contextual box in third row of model 7.1).

In contrast to compliance, which was backed up by threats of authority, commitment occurred when teachers self-reflected and voluntarily agreed with the action or decision proposed by school heads as alluded to by Mrs Tom of Zubi School in the opening excerpt above. As a result when decisions were made teachers felt happy, committed themselves to positive work attitudes and felt emotionally attached to the school organisation. Change of behaviour was internalized and more permanent that surveillance was not necessary. Commitment also occurred when teachers showed enthusiasm to implement actions or decisions proposed by the school heads. The enthusiastic teachers exercised initiative, worked harder and demonstrated helping behaviours and persistence in order to carry out requests successfully. For example, in my field notes I captured an informal meeting at Myrna School organised by teachers when the school head had gone to town so that they can organise how to run a bereavement fund previously set up in a general meeting (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.4.1, p. 111). The teachers sacrificed their lunch hour and discussed

enthusiastically showing that they owned and were committed to the bereavement project and liked to see it succeed. The teachers' behaviour also alluded to collegiality and a collaborative culture (refer to cultural and contextual box in third row of model 7.1) prevalent in the school. I can say in the absence of collegiality and collaborative cultures, commitment will be difficult to achieve. To nurture commitment, teachers must be afforded opportunities to spontaneously form working teams and pursue identified organisational goals with an abundance of professional autonomy.

Apart from appealing to known teacher values and collaborative cultures, what also came out of the study was that leadership that inspired and created commitment was also strongly mediated by prevailing Christian cultures in the schools. In this regard I report the centrality of the Christian religion and values at the three schools of my study (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.4.1, p. 133). However, my observation is that leadership discourse in Zimbabwe has generally evaded investigating how the Christian religion and various other religious beliefs impact on the influence behaviours of the school heads and teachers. For example whilst prayer is a common culture Christian schools identified with, what was interesting in this study was that it was used to purposely target listeners' emotions and values with the aim of inspiring and influencing the work behaviours of both teachers and school heads. Learnings from what I reported in this study, though limited in scope, opens a new corridor to think about influence and educational leadership in the context of prevailing religions in different school contexts. Religious and moral education is a compulsory subject in all primary schools in Zimbabwe and religion is a strong pillar of Zimbabwean society. How cultural practices practised within Zimbabwe's various religions should therefore enter the discourse of educational leadership and management. Appealing to values, emotions and divine intervention as ways of influencing teachers blends well with assumptions of leading purported by two of the three legs of my theoretical framework namely collegial and distributed leadership. The theoretical frameworks assert that leaders practising collegial and distributed leadership try to influence and nurture in followers common professional values and shared beliefs as a way of creating high performance cultures in the schools (Bush, 2011; Crawford, 2012; Manetje & Martins, 2009). By emphasising certain values and beliefs, the school heads under study were able to create a common culture hinged on hard work and

achievement. In addition to that, practising the cocktail of values in the second column of my model and discussed here so far, combined with the set of influence behaviours in the last block of my model enhanced school heads' chances of success at influence and securing commitment. In addition to that it emerged that practising these values by school heads over time increased teachers' confidence in the school head, increased teachers' organisational citizenship behaviours and subsequent identification with the school and what it stood for (Refer to chapter 5, section 5.4.1 & 5.4.2 , and chapter 6 section 6.2.1 & 6.4.1). From this I can conclude that to be a good leader who can positively influence others, a school head ought to be identified as someone whose life is one of integrity, someone who can engender trust, presenting a genuine 'front', is open, welcoming with an ear for teachers' concerns and in whom teachers can place their confidence in. However, this does not mean that authority, knowledge, evidence and an understanding of prevailing cultures mentioned in the second block are not important or are of lesser importance at all. They also permeate these contextual and cultural issues. Having presented a summary of my main findings, an outline of recommendations follows.

7.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

From the findings of this study, the recommendations are as follows:

- i) In a study I reviewed about leadership tactics and organisational citizenship behaviour by Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) and also this study, legitimation leader influence behaviours were negative behaviours which were detrimental to members' organisational citizenship behaviour and as such resulted in teachers losing trust in the school head and experiencing low self-esteem (Refer to chapter 2, section 2.6.3, p. 31). This greatly reduced school heads' success at influencing teachers. In this context, however I also reported an interesting finding. I reported instances where the use of legitimation behaviours was welcomed by teachers and resulted in helping behaviours, identification with the group and positive work outcomes, (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.5.1, p.149). This provides a useful departure point from which to consider further research about how school heads can blend legitimation with positive influence to enhance positive feelings and work outcomes amongst teachers. This recommendation is also in line with

Foucault's (1991, p. 194) assertion that, "We must cease once and for all to describe the effects of power in negative terms..."

- ii) What came out from the literature (chapter 2, section 2.5.1, p. 24) was that research on the effectiveness of leader influence behaviours concentrated on the effectiveness of individual leader influence behaviours. What came out of this study however, was that the three school heads under study used a blend of rational persuasion, legitimation behaviours in meetings to varying degrees (chapter 6, section 6.3.1, p. 133). Investigating outcomes of the various combinations of leader influence behaviours and contextual and cultural issues identified by this study was not fully investigated in this study. Whilst I recommend that school heads should always try to blend leader influence behaviours for optimum results, further research into specific combinations is still required.

- iii) Apart from appealing to known teacher values and collaborative cultures, what also came out of the study was that leadership that inspired and created commitment was also strongly mediated by prevailing Christian cultures in the schools. (Refer to chapter 6, section 6.4.1, p. 140). However, my observation is that leadership discourse in Zimbabwe has generally evaded investigating how the Christian religion and various other religious beliefs impact on the influence behaviours of the school heads and teachers. It is recommended that school heads weave their influence behaviours together with dominant cultures to maximise chances of securing commitment. Further research on the mediating effect of local cultures on leader influence behaviours and leadership and management in general, particularly religious cultures which have been largely unexplored is also recommended.

7.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

We love each other, because we are human. We share ideas, we share food. We share all what we have... We...celebrate our success together. We belong to each other, we live for each other. We...develop together (Bhengu, 2012, p. 191).

Research on leader influence behaviours has mostly been done in western developed countries and predominantly confined to the corporate sector where quantitative research approaches were used and descriptive statistics were used to analyse human behaviour (Sampson, 2012). This study is one of the few that has explored this research area in the context of educational leadership and management using qualitative approaches. I used a multi-perspectival approach to bring different theories (three legged theoretical framework) to work together to get a better understanding of how educational leaders influence teachers. The study has shown that school heads use consultation, Empowerment, Inspirational appeal, Stewardship, Sharing responsibility, rational persuasion and legitimation leader behaviours to influence teachers. The contextual issues of transparency, integrity, collaboration, culture of trust and achievement culture that mediate leader influence behaviours, which have largely remained unexplored by the quantitative researchers who have researched on leader influence in the past were also identified by this study. Drawing from my theoretical framework and my findings, the contextual and cultural issues identified by the study here allude to the centrality of leadership that is collegial and distributed for effective leader influence. Instead of having the leader leading alone and being blamed for anything that goes wrong by almost everyone as I mentioned at the beginning of this journey in chapter one, teachers, parents and other stakeholders can uphold the values and cultures identified in this study. As a concerned collective, they can be responsible for their common destiny, share leadership challenges with school heads, and enhance leader influence and positive work outcomes.

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APPENDIX A

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS: LETTER FOR PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational management and Leadership through the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As you know, the Ministry of Education, through the new performance appraisal and rating system, has mandated that all school heads must demonstrate effective leadership in their schools, and in the profession. However, not much is known about how school heads use their power and leader influence behaviours to lead. This study whose topic is; Leader influence behaviours and school leadership: an ethnographic study of three primary school heads in the Zvishavane district of Zimbabwe, tries to cover this gap.

The permission by the ministry of education for me to conduct the research is part of the ethical requirements of the University of KwaZulu-Natal before giving me clearance for my research. I intend to do a field study whereby I will be observing the heads and staff and also conducting unstructured and semi-structured interviews over a period of two months per school starting 2nd term in 2014.

This study affords school heads an opportunity to critically reflect on their practice. There are no known risks to school heads and teachers' participation. The researcher will ensure privacy and confidentiality of all participants and participants can withdraw their participation at any stage without any consequences. Identifying data such as participants' school names addresses and phone numbers will not be collected. Also, there will be no personal payments or reimbursements to participants for participation in this study, I will be happy to provide a copy of a summary of the results upon request.

If you have any questions or concerns before granting me the permission please contact me at Zeruvi school, P. O Box 156, Zvishavane, Cell 0713502676 or e-mail shepherd.shoko@gmail.com You may also contact my research supervisor Dr Inbanathan Naicker on 0823775253 (Naickeri1@ukzn.ac.za) or Prof. Vitalis Chikoko on 031 2602639 (chikokov@ukzn.ac.za) or The higher degrees research office; Ms P Ximba, tel.0312603587, e-mail ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

If you are willing to participate, please indicate this decision by completing the declaration below.

I..... hereby confirm that I understand the contents of the document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I so desire.

.....
.....
SIGNATURE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
OFFICIAL STAMP

DATE

I thank you for your consideration of my request.

Yours faithfully

Shepherd Shoko (Mr.) [ICDL, Dip. ED. Hnrs. B.ED, M. ED]

Signature: 

APPENDIX B

PERMISSION LETTER FROM PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR

All communications should be addressed to "The Provincial Education Director" Telephone:054- 222460

Fax: 054- 226482



Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education P.O Box 737 GWERU

31 OCTOBER 2013

Mr/Mrs/Miss: SHEPHERD STOKO (210555 309) UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU - NATAL EDGEWOOD CAMPUS

Dear Sir/Madam

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN SELECTED SCHOOLS IN MIDLANDS PROVINCE

Permission to carry out a Research on:-

TRANSLATING POWER INTO LEADER INFLUENCE TACTICS! AN ETHNOGRAPHIC STUDY OF THREE PRIMARY SCHOOL HEADS IN THE ZVISHAVANE DISTRICT OF ZIMBABWE

In the Midlands Province has been granted on these conditions.

- 1. That in carrying out this you do not disturb the learning and teaching programmes in schools.
2. That you avail the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture with a copy of your research findings.
3. That this permission can be withdrawn at anytime by the Provincial Education Director or by any higher officer.

The Education Director wishes you success in your research work and in your University College studies.

MATSOBU V. Education Officer (Professional Administration And Legal Services) FOR PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR: MIDLANDS

31 OCT 2013 PO. BOX 737, GWERU ZIMBABWE

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SPORT, ARTS & CULTURE 01 NOV 2013 PO. BOX 80, ZVISHAVANE TEL: 051-3377/051-2079

APPENDIX C

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS LETTER FOR DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational management and Leadership through the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As you know, the Ministry of Education, through the new performance appraisal and rating system, has mandated that all school heads must demonstrate effective leadership in their schools, and in the profession. However, not much is known about how school heads use their power and leader influence behaviours to lead. This study whose topic is; Leader influence behaviours and school leadership: an ethnographic study of three primary school heads in the Zvishavane district of Zimbabwe, tries to cover this gap.

I am writing to you requesting for your permission for me to carry out this study in three schools that you will suggest for me that are at the top of your rankings in the district. The permission and informed consent by the ministry of education for me to conduct the research are part of the ethical requirements of the University of KwaZulu-Natal before giving me clearance for my research.

I intend to do a field study whereby I will be observing the head and staff and also conducting unstructured and semi-structured interviews over a period of two months per school starting 2nd term in 2014.

This study affords school heads an opportunity to critically reflect on their practice. There are no known risks to school heads and teachers' participation. The researcher will ensure privacy and confidentiality of all participants and participants can withdraw their participation at any stage without any consequences. Identifying data such as participants' school names addresses and phone numbers will not be collected. Also, there will be no personal payments or reimbursements to participants for participation in this study. I will be happy to provide a copy of a summary of the results upon request.

If you have any questions or concerns before granting me the permission please contact me at Zeruvi school, P. O Box 156, Zvishavane, Cell 0713502676 or e-mail shepherd.shoko@gmail.com You may also contact my research supervisor Dr Inbanathan Naicker on 0823775253 (Naicker1@ukzn.ac.za)

or Prof. Vitalis Chikoko on 031 2602639 (chikokov@ukzn.ac.za) or The higher degrees research office; Ms P Ximba, tel.0312603587, e-mail ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

If you are willing to participate, please indicate this decision by completing the declaration below.

I..... hereby confirm that I understand the contents of the document and the nature of the research project, and I consent participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I so desire.

.....
.....

SIGNATURE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER	DATE
OFFICIAL STAMP	

I thank you for your consideration of my request.

Yours faithfully

Shepherd Shoko (Mr.) [ICDL, Dip. ED. Hnrs. B.ED, M. ED]

Signature: 

APPENDIX D

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS LETTER FROM DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational management and Leadership through the University of KwaZulu Natal. As you know, the Ministry of Education, through the new performance appraisal and rating system, has mandated that all school heads must demonstrate effective leadership in their schools, and in the profession. However, not much is known about how school heads use their power and leader influence tactics to lead. This study whose topic is; Translating power into leader influence tactics: An ethnographic study of three primary school heads in the Zvishavane District of Zimbabwe, tries to cover this gap.

I am writing to you requesting for your permission for me to carry out this study in three schools that you will suggest for me that are at the top of your rankings in the district. The permission and informed consent by the ministry of education for me to conduct the research are part of the ethical requirements of the University of KwaZulu Natal before giving me clearance for my research.

I intend to do a field study whereby I will be observing the head and staff and also conducting unstructured and semi-structured interviews over a period of two months per school starting 2nd term in 2014.

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If you have any questions or concerns before granting me the permission please contact me at Zeruvi school, P.O Box 156, Zvishavane, Cell 0713502676 or e-mail shepherd.shoko@gmail.com You may also contact my research supervisor Dr. Inbanathan Naicker on 0823775253 (Naicker1@ukzn.ac.za) or Prof. Vitalis Chikoko on 031 2602639 (chikokov@ukzn.ac.za) or The Dean of Faculty of Education, University of KwaZulu Natal Private bag X03, Ashwood 3605 Kwazulu Natal, South Africa.

If you are willing to participate, please indicate this decision by completing the declaration below.

I, IMATIWA LUKE hereby confirm that I understand the contents of the document and the nature of the research project, and I consent participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I so desire.

[Signature] 01/11/13
SIGNATURE OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER DATE

DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SPORT,
ARTS & CULTURE
OFFICIAL STAMP
PO. BOX 156, ZVISHAVANE
TEL: 051-3377/051-2079

I thank you for your consideration of my request.

Yours faithfully

Shepherd Shoko (Mr.) [ICDL, Dip. ED. Hnrs. B.ED, M. ED]

Signature: [Signature]

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR SCHOOL HEADS

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational Management and Leadership through the University of KwaZulu-Natal. I am writing to you requesting for your informed consent to voluntarily participate in this research study. Your school is one of the three schools selected by the District Education Office for participation in this study based on the Ministry of Education schools rating system.

As you know, the Ministry of Education, through the new performance appraisal and rating system, has mandated that all school heads must demonstrate effective leadership in their schools, and in the profession. However, not much is known about how school heads use their power and leader influence behaviours to lead. This study whose topic is; Leader influence behaviours and school leadership: an ethnographic study of three primary school heads in the Zvishavane district of Zimbabwe, tries to cover this gap. To do this I intend to do a field study whereby I will be observing you and your staff and also carrying out unstructured and semi-structured interviews over a period of two months starting 2nd term in 2014. Apart from responding to interview questions, there will be no other procedures or tasks you will be required to do. Field notes and interview scripts, audio and video recordings can be made and all this data will be incinerated after five years of safe keeping at the University.

This study affords you an opportunity to critically reflect on your practice. There are no known risks to school heads and teachers' participation. The researcher will ensure privacy and confidentiality of all participants and participants can withdraw their participation at any stage without any consequences. Identifying data such as participants' school names addresses and phone numbers will not be collected. Also, there will be no personal payments or reimbursements to participants for participation in this study. I will be happy to provide a copy of a summary of the results upon request.

If you have any questions or concerns about your participation in this study, please contact me at Zeruvi school, P. O Box 156, Zvishavane, Cell 0713502676 or e-mail shepherd.shoko@gmail.com You may also contact my research supervisor Dr Inbanathan Naicker on 0823775253 (Naicker1@ukzn.ac.za) or Prof. Vitalis Chikoko on 031 2602639 (chikokov@ukzn.ac.za) or The higher degrees research office; Ms P Ximba, tel.0312603587, e-mail ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

If you are willing to participate, please indicate this decision by completing the declaration below

I..... hereby confirm that I understand the contents of the document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I so desire.

.....
.....
SIGNATURE OF SCHOOL HEAD
OFFICIAL STAMP

DATE

I thank you for your consideration of my request.

Yours faithfully

Shepherd Shoko (Mr.) [I.C.D.L, Dip. ED. Hnrs. B.ED, M. ED]

Signature 

APPENDIX F

LETTERS OF INFORMED CONSENT FROM SCHOOL HEADS

[REDACTED] PDY
INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR SCHOOL HEADS

Dear Sir/Madam

I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation in Educational management and Leadership through the University of KwaZulu Natal. I am writing to you requesting for your informed consent to voluntarily participate in this research study. Your school is one of the three schools selected by the District Education Office for participation in this study basing on the Ministry of Education schools rating system.

As you know, the Ministry of Education, through the new performance appraisal and rating system, has mandated that all school heads must demonstrate effective leadership in their schools, and in the profession. However, not much is known about how school heads use their power and leader influence tactics to lead. This study whose topic is; Translating power into leader influence tactics: An ethnographic study of three primary school heads in the Zvishavane District of Zimbabwe, tries to cover this gap. To do this I intend to do a field study whereby I will be observing you and your staff and also carrying out unstructured and semi-structured interviews over a period of two months starting 2nd term in 2014. Apart from responding to interview questions, there will be no other procedures or tasks you will be required to do. Field notes and interview scripts, audio and video recordings can be made and all this data will be incinerated after five years of safe keeping at the University.

This study affords you an opportunity to critically reflect on your practice. There are no known risks to school heads and teachers' participation. The researcher will ensure privacy and confidentiality of all participants and participants can withdraw their participation at any stage without any consequences. Identifying data such as participants' school names addresses and phone numbers will not be collected. Also, there will be no personal payments or reimbursements to participants for participation in this study. I will be happy to provide a copy of a summary of the results upon request.

If you have any questions or concerns about your participation in this study, please contact me at Zeruvi school, P.O Box 156, Zvishavane, Cell 0713502676 or e-mail shepherd.shoko@gmail.com You may also contact my research supervisor Dr. Inbanathan Naicker on 0823775253 (Naicker1@ukzn.ac.za) or Prof. Vitalis Chikoko on 031 2602639 (chikokov@ukzn.ac.za) or The Dean of Faculty of Education, University of KwaZulu Natal Private bag X03, Ashwood 3605 Kwazulu Natal, South Africa.

If you are willing to participate, please indicate this decision by completing the declaration below

I, [REDACTED] hereby confirm that I understand the contents of the document and the nature of the research project, and I consent participating in the research project.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time should I so desire.

[Handwritten Signature]

SIGNATURE OF SCHOOL HEAD

DATE 01-11-13

OFFICIAL STAMP

I thank you for your consideration of my request.

Yours faithfully

Shepherd Shoko (Mr.) [ICDL, Dip. ED. Hnrs. B.ED, M. ED]



APPENDIX G

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT 1

OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

The researcher will observe the following at each research site:

No	ITEM	FOCUS AREAS
1	Co-curricular activities and supervision	Activities, participants, supervisors, type of supervision, frequency, responses to the supervision
2	policy formulation and implementation	Leadership, participants, speakers, venues, participation
3	Meetings	Seating arrangements, time, speakers, participants
4	Myths, rituals and stories	Authors, context, listeners, construction of stories
5	Routines: eg school assemblies, open days, prize giving days	Leadership, participants, time, announcements, speakers, responses
6	Resource allocation	Type of resources, allocators, responses from recipients of resources

7	Teacher supervision and appraisal	Supervisors, type of supervision, frequency, responses to the supervision and appraisal
8	Communication	Formal communication, informal communication, management of information
9	Discipline	Participants, cases, number of cases, enforcement and monitoring mechanisms, responses to disciplinary measures
10	Finances	Participants, participation, decision making procedures

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT 2

ARTEFACTS SCHEDULE

POSSIBLE ARTEFACTS	AREAS I AM LOOKING FOR
Display boards	Events, Dates, participants, Any accompanying Information or comments, position of artefacts in the school or room in relation to other objects around it.
Newspaper articles	
Pupils' work	
Trophies	
Information boards	
Office furnishings and displays	

Artefacts collection plan

1. I will ask principals to bring their own artefacts that define the success of their activities in the school and discuss with them how this success came about,
OR;
2. Collect artefacts I would have identified through sustained observation and speak to relevant people to get a sense of how they perceive the use of these artefacts in influencing teacher behaviours.

NB: For the identified artefacts in 1 and 2 above, a discussion will be held with both school heads and teachers separately.

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT 3

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

NB: This semi- structured interview guide will be administered to both school heads and teachers. The difference is that when it is administered to school heads issues to be raised will focus on school head-teacher interactions and how school heads influence teacher behaviours and when administered to teachers issues raised will be adapted to elicit teachers' responses to school heads' influence behaviours and teacher- school head interactions.

1. Policy Formulation and Implementation

1.1 How is school policy formulated in your school?

1.2 How is policy implemented?

In your experience what is the role of the school head in (i) policy formulation and (ii) implementation?

Issues

- Participation
- Bargaining
- Accommodation
- Participants
- Commitment

2 Resource Allocation

2.1 How are the following resources allocated in the school?

(i) Financial resources (ii) human resources (iii) physical resources.

2.2 What role does the school head play in the allocation of these resources?

- **Issues:**
- Transparency - how resources are determined
- Flexibility - liberty to redirect resources as seen fit
- Fairness

3. Teacher Development

3.1 How is teacher development done?

3.2 What role does the school head play in teacher development?

- **Issues:**
- Views about teacher development
- Teachers development programmes in the school
- Incentives to support teacher development programmes.

4. Curricular and Co-Curricular Activities

4.1 Share with me your views about the Curricular and co-curricular activities offered by the school in terms of :

Issues:

- planning
- allocation
- supervision
- evaluation

5 Communication

5.1 How is information communicated in the school?

5.2 In your experience what role does the school head play in shaping communication patterns in the school?

Issues:

- Formal communication
- Informal communication
- Management of information and communication

6 Discipline

6.1 How is teacher discipline maintained in the school?

6.2 What role does the school head play in maintaining discipline in the school?

- **Issues:**
- Intrinsic discipline
- Extrinsic discipline

APPENDIX H

Ethical clearance certificate



7 March 2014

Mr Shepherd Shoko 210555309
School of Education
Edgewood Campus

Dear Mr Shoko

Protocol reference number: HSS/0060/014D

Project Title: Leader Influence tactics and school leadership: An ethnographic study of three primary school heads in the Zvishavane District of Zimbabwe

Full Approval – Expedited

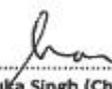
This letter serves to notify you that your application in connection with the above has now been granted **Full Approval**

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project; Location of the Study, Research Approach/Methods must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. Please quote the above reference number for all queries relating to this study. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol

Yours faithfully


.....
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)
Humanities & Social Science Research Ethics Committee

/pm

cc Supervisor: Dr Inba Naicker
cc Academic Leader:
cc School Admin: Mr Thoba Mthembu

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

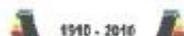
Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

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Website: www.ukzn.ac.za



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APPENDIX I

Turn it in Report

1/25/2016
Turnitin Originality Report

Turnitin Originality Report
Main_Document.docx by Shepherd Shoko
 From Thesis (PhD)

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 ID: 623749643
 Word Count: 74867

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APPENDIX J

Language clearance report

