

**TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF
TEACHER LEADERSHIP: A SURVEY IN THE
UMLAZI SCHOOLS, KWAZULU-NATAL.**

By

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ABSTRACT

Teacher leadership is a term that is relatively new to the majority of educators in South Africa and is gradually becoming an area of interest. Teacher leadership is fundamentally about teacher agency. Since 1994, in the post apartheid era, South Africa has acquired a new system of education. This new education system is based on the recognition that everyone in the school is, or may become, a leader. Some people in the schools now automatically take the lead in certain instances and emerge as leaders even though they have not been officially appointed as such. The principal is no longer expected to carry the burden of running the school alone. Everyone in the school can participate in leadership.

This study is survey research situated in the interpretivist research paradigm. The emphasis within the interpretivist research paradigm is on experience and interpretation. Thus the study reports specifically on teachers' perceptions and their experiences of teacher leadership. The study reports on quantitative data gathered from 396 teachers in a random sample of 19 schools in the Umlazi District, KwaZulu-Natal. Of the 396 teachers, 189 were primary school teachers and 207 were high school teachers. Teachers were asked to complete self-administered questionnaires by indicating their answers with a cross in the appropriate column.

The data received were first analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and then analysed according to Grants' (2007) model of zones and roles of teacher leadership. The study found that the majority of teachers generally perceive leadership as a shared collective form of leadership. It also found that teachers work *inside the classroom with other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities* and outside the classroom in whole school development. It points to teacher leadership being particularly prevalent outside the classroom, in curricular and extra-curricular activities where teachers are working with other teachers in their schools. Responses in the questionnaires also revealed that while the majority of teachers in this study recognise the existence of a collaborative culture of leadership in schools, the context of leadership was such that important decisions were undertaken by the School Management Team (SMT). Such a leadership context and culture suggests that

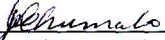
teachers believe that the buck stops with the SMT when it comes to important decision making.

This points to an authorised form of teacher leadership where teachers are ‘allowed to’ lead in certain curriculum areas but that other leadership functions are ‘out of bound’ for teachers and remain the domain of those in formal leadership positions.

Given the limitations of survey research, it has not been possible to identify exactly what the different teacher and SMT leadership roles are and how they happen in individual schools. This could be addressed in further research.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the work in this thesis has been researched and undertaken by myself and, unless specifically indicated to the contrary in the text, is my own work.



Jabulisiwe Clarah Khumalo
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SGB – School Governing Body

SMT – School Management Team

SASA – South African Schools Act

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SDT – School Development Team

UK – United Kingdom

USA – United States of America

SA – South Africa

PAM – Personnel Administration Measures

HOD – Head of Department

REQV – Required Equivalent Qualification Value

DSG – Development Support Team

DDT – District Development Team

PPN – Post Provisioning Norm

CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the research topic and the research problem underlying this study.

1.2 Background Of The Study

In education and the social sciences, the study of leadership has dominated since its inception by the notion of focused leadership (Gronn, 2003), leadership premised on a singular view of leadership and upon individual impetus (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Since their establishment, public school systems have experienced periodic pressures for reform in numerous countries. The function of education has thus become too complex for one individual to oversee (Rutherford, 2006). The latest wave of reform during the last two decades, particularly in the United States of America (USA), United Kingdom (UK), Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa has emphasised the need for school restructuring (Bowe, Ball, & Gold, 1992). For many current reformers, the key ingredient in effectively meeting the complex demands of education in the new millennium, is the existence of teacher leadership in schools (Gronn, 2000b; Harris, 2004; Harris & Muijs, 2005; Hopkins, 2001; Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinback, 1999).

A South African researcher, Grant (2006), argues that the term 'teacher leadership' can be closely linked to 'distributed leadership'. In a similar view, Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2000, p. 6) referred to school leadership as a distributed practice. This view about distributed practice is evident in the interaction of many leaders; hence leadership practice is *stretched over* the social and situational contexts of the school. The notion of gradual evolution of practice lies in the fact that decisions are largely taken by teachers (Harris & Muijs, 2005). South Africa promotes a shift from centralised control to the collaborative decision-making of the school-based system of education management. This is evident in policies like the South African Schools Act (1996) and the Integrated Quality Management System ("Employment of Educators Act," 1998). The South African Schools Act (1996) encourages teachers to

be part of decision-making in school governance. The School Governing Body is one of the legal bodies that give teachers the right to work collaboratively with all stakeholders in the school.

Leadership can be applied at all levels of an organisation. Harris (2004) sees the need for 'distributed leadership' in the UK schools and Grant (2006) further argues that the need for 'teacher leadership' is critical in the transformation of South African schools. She acknowledges the reality of the inequalities that are embedded in the schooling system coupled with the range of new policies that require radical change at every level in the system. I agree with Grant (2006) in that schools can no longer be led by 'a lone figure' at the apex of the hierarchy and that there is a need for a collaborative, collegial approach in the change process. Decentralising management and decision-making allows leadership to become distributed throughout an organisation (Rutherford, 2006). Consequently, leadership can be exercised by individuals in formal positions of authority as well as by individuals outside of these positions (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002). Shared decision-making and teacher professionalisation are key elements of many school-restructuring plans. Both elements require teachers to routinely exercise more leadership outside the classroom than has been traditionally expected of them. Hence teacher agency has become an important part of working in the classroom, working with other teachers, working in whole school development and working between neighbouring schools, which is essentially a means of taking up of their leadership roles (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001).

In South Africa, the concepts of teacher leadership and distributed leadership are embedded in the current education policy documents. One of these education policies is the Norms and Standards for Educators (2000). The Norms and Standards for Educators (2000) states that the educator is expected to perform several roles amongst them are that of a leader, manager and administrator. The second policy is the South African Schools' Act (1996). This Act encourages the flow of activities within the school where teachers are elected to the position of leadership to serve the school as part of the School Governing Body.

1.3 Rationale For The Study

My interest in teacher leadership is rooted in a combination of personal experience and academic discourse. I am part of the teaching staff in a primary school and have seen some teachers willingly participating in school activities beyond their formal workload without occupying formal leadership positions. My own interest in doing research in the area of teacher leadership is similar to that of Fink (2005) who argues that in his career he was a distributed leader before anyone had coined the term. As a post level one educator, I have continually taken initiative when new policies were rolled out. I was always the first in my school with the courage to take the initiative in seeking out more information and clarity, even if it was to merely gain a better understanding about issues that were unclear to many of the educators. My colleagues at school gained confidence in me and allowed me to work in a number of committees, allowing me to play various roles and to share responsibilities with all members of my school. I was a full member in some of the committees and a temporary co-opted member in others.

At a macro level in South Africa, the shift towards more collaborative forms of development within schools has set a climate that is understood to incorporate teacher leadership. I noticed that during the post-apartheid era in South Africa, the bureaucratic leadership model was prevalent in schools and it undermined the ample talent and the skills that most educators had to offer. It has been more than a decade since South Africa emerged from apartheid. Every effort has been made to assist South Africa in her endeavours to become a democratic country. Teacher leadership as a concept and a set of practices has been the subject of an enormous quantity of popular and academic literature internationally. However, Grant (2006) argues that there is a distinct gap in the literature in South Africa. She suggests that the term ‘distributed leadership’ is not new in international literature (Harris, 2004; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000b), but is new to the majority of educators and researchers in South Africa. My own interest is to make a contribution towards a developing and growing body of literature in South Africa about the notion of teacher leadership.

The initial work on teacher leadership offered by Grant (2005a) placed the notion of teacher leadership in the South African context of change and transformation in the lime light. There is now a growing body of literature on teacher leadership in South Africa (Grant, 2005a, 2005b, 2006; Rajagopaul, 2007; Singh, 2007). This growing body of literature ranges from journal articles to Masters theses. Grant (2005a) did a small-scale study highlighting the situatedness of leadership and the importance of context in the take-up of teacher leadership. The article urges female teachers to challenge the existing status quo and to take up their rightful roles, both in the classroom and beyond into areas of whole school development and community involvement. Several questions arose from her study. Amongst the questions raised was whether female participants are content to lead informally without acknowledgement and if there is a possibility that both the males and the females in the group can lead more courageously and challenge our schools into a distributive form of leadership so that a shared and collective form of leadership can emerge. This study examines both male and female teachers' experiences and perceptions of teacher leadership in schools.

Building on the growing literature in South Africa, Rajagopaul (2007) undertook a case study of three urban primary schools in Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal. The case study investigated the factors that help or hinder teacher leadership in schools. In the same year Singh (2007) conducted a small-scale study of two public primary schools in Pietermaritzburg, KwaZulu-Natal. The case study investigated the extent to which School Management Teams promote or hinder the development of teacher leadership in schools.

It is against this backdrop that my large-scale study sought to investigate what the leadership context and culture in Umlazi schools was. It appears that there has not been any large-scale study undertaken on this topic since the concept is fairly new in South Africa. A large-scale study needs to be undertaken in order to investigate teachers' perceptions and their experiences in teacher leadership in urban secondary and primary schools.

1.4 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study is derived from Grant's (2006) model of the understanding of teacher leadership in South Africa and Devaney's (1987 cited in Gehrke, 1991) six roles of teacher leadership in schools. Grant (2007) suggests that teachers lead in four semi-distinct areas or 'zones'. She argues that teacher leadership exists:

- within the classroom,
- working with other teachers,
- in whole school development and
- between neighbouring schools.

(Grant, 2007, p. 7)

Within these four zones, six roles of teacher leadership as highlighted by Devaney (1987) and adapted by Grant (2007) for the South African context are identified. Grant (2007) extended the model which included four zones of teacher leadership and as well as six roles of teacher leadership. My study utilised this model as a lens through which to analyse and interpret the data.

1.5 Key Issues To Be Addressed In The Study

1.5.1 Research aim

The aim of this study was to investigate teachers' perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership in Umlazi schools with the aim of adding to the growing body of literature on teacher leadership in South Africa. Grant (2005a) argues that any study into teacher leadership in South Africa, no matter how small, has significance and should be shared amongst academics and educators in the pursuit of knowledge creation and education transformation in our country.

1.5.2 Research questions

The research questions were intended to provide vital information in order to add to the picture of the current status of teacher leadership in South Africa. My main research question was: How do teachers understand teacher leadership in schools? My three sub-questions were as follows:

1. What are teachers' perceptions about leadership in schools?
2. To what extent is teacher leadership happening in schools and what roles do teachers take up?
3. What are teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools?

1.6 Structure Of The Dissertation

The outline of the dissertation is as follows:

Chapter 1 outlines the background of the study, rationale and context of the study.

Before one can obtain a clear picture of how teachers are to exercise authority and leadership in the schools, one must come to an understanding about what teacher leadership is. Thus Chapter Two outlines the literature review about the notion of teacher leadership in the UK, Canada, USA and other parts of the world. This chapter also outlines the extent to which teacher leadership is happening in South Africa. It also examines the factors that hinder or support teacher leadership in schools. *Chapter 3* outlines the discussion of the methods and methodology employed in this research study, it also explores the ethical issues and as well as the limitations of the study. *Chapter 4* presents findings. The final chapter, *Chapter 5*, presents the discussion of findings.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter has explored the background of my study in relation to the broad notion of teacher leadership and distributed leadership. I argued that, in South Africa, the concepts of teacher leadership and distributed leadership are in current education

policy documents. I highlighted the research questions that were employed with the intention of providing significant information on my investigation on teachers' perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership in schools. Under the key issues to be addressed, I argued that my intension was to add onto the growing body of literature about teacher leadership in South Africa.

In the background of my study I mentioned the need for teacher leadership in schools, as many current reformers believe that teacher leadership is the key ingredient in effectively meeting the complex demands of education in the new millennium. Emphasis was placed on the need for teacher leadership. I agree with Grant (2006) that South African schools can no longer be led by a lone figure at the apex of the hierarchy but that there needs to be a collaborative culture, team teaching, partnership and collective decision-making in order to embrace teacher leadership in South African schools. The importance of teacher agency was highlighted as essentially being a means of teachers taking up their leadership roles.

I signalled that my study was analysed through SPSS and through Grants' (2007) model of teacher leadership of zones and roles and the final chapter (Chapter Five) included recommendations and suggestions of what could be done to promote teacher leadership in South Africa. The next chapter deals with the literature reviewed in my study.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of a literature review with knowledge and ideas established on teacher leadership that was carried out on research done internationally and in South Africa. I have been selective in this literature review in order to keep focus in concepts and topics that have direct relevance to my study.

I have organised this literature review into the following five broad sections or themes, which emerged out of the literature on teacher leadership:

- 2.2 Leadership and management
- 2.3 Defining teacher leadership: some dilemmas
- 2.4 Teacher leadership: some empirical studies
- 2.5 Prerequisites for teacher leadership
- 2.6 Conclusion

I have chosen these themes, as they are pertinent to my study and research questions. As mentioned in Chapter One, my study sought to address the following research questions:

1. What are teachers' perceptions about leadership in schools?
2. To what extent is teacher leadership happening in schools and what roles do teachers take up?
3. What are teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools?

Van der Westhuizen and Theron (1994) argue that leadership can only exist in the context of a human group, and that leadership is a social transaction. Leithwood and Jantzi (2000a) claim that leadership may be offered by many different people in the school. Reviews of literature in South Africa, the UK and other parts of the world have identified shortcomings in the research in as far as the utilisation of the kinds of leadership that can be distributed across many roles and functions in the school

(Harris, 2004). This study therefore contributes towards narrowing the gap in the literature.

The following section deals with leadership and management.

2.2 Leadership And Management

This section focuses on leadership and management. Leadership and management overlap and their usage varies at different times, in different countries and in different professional cultures (Coleman, 2005b). In the UK management is seen as the broader concept and leadership as a subset of it. In South Africa leadership and management has been given equal prominence. The implementation of the South African Schools Act (SASA) (1996) has led to an enhanced emphasis on the practice of educational leadership and management, thus principals are inundated with advice from politicians, officials, academics and consultants, about how to lead and manage their schools (Evers & Katyal, 2007). The blurring together of leadership and management is not entirely surprising as in practice it is often the same people who are both leading and managing, for example a head of department or the principal or a teacher leader. Furthermore, Morrison (1998, p. 205) suggests that leadership and management are not an either/or – either one is a leader or one is a manager. He is of the opinion that the roles of the leader include the roles of a manager and, often, *vice versa* and that leadership and management constitutes of a Venn diagram rather than existing as polar opposites (ibid: 206).

However, Lang (1999) argues that the distinction between leadership and management is necessary because of their different philosophical groundings regarding means and ends. Both leadership and management are necessary for a school to be effective. Each must be present, but they are quite separate in their meaning. Lang (1999, p. 13) argues that leaders are ‘ends-oriented’, whereas managers are ‘means-oriented’. This interdependency is not only necessary, but it is unavoidable. Davidoff and Lazarus (1997, p. 32) argue that “ it is important to note that leadership and management are closely associated functions which cannot be

attended to separately". In a related sense, Fullan (1991) comments on the distinction between leadership and management , as follows:

The two functions are often compared invidiously (leaders do the right thing; managers do things right) or in a linear relationship (leaders set the course; managers follow it). There are two problems with this image. First, it casts the management function as dull and less important. Second, it implies that the functions are sequential and carried out by different people. Successful principals ... do both functions simultaneously and iteratively. It is also important to note that when we refer to management we are not talking just about management for stability, but also management for change.

(Fullan, 1991, p. 158)

Models of educational leadership and management

The models discussed in this section should be regarded as alternative ways of portraying schools' events. Each theory has something to offer in explaining behaviour and events in educational institutions. According to Coleman (2003, p. 161), a further development of leadership theory is that there is a relationship between the appropriate style of leadership and the context in which that leadership is being exercised. The various theories of educational leadership and management reflect different ways of understanding and interpreting events and behaviour in schools. Bush (1995) categorises the main educational management theories into six major models: bureaucratic, collegial, political, subjective, ambiguity and cultural model. Two models (bureaucratic and collegial) are given extensive treatment in the subsequent section.

No single strategy, style, list, or formula fits all situations the same way. That is why in practice, leadership should be tolerant of many different theories. Approaches to the study of leadership divide the school of thought on leadership into the following categories:

- **The great man theory.** This theory is based on the belief that leaders are born with innate qualities and are destined to lead.

- **Trait theory.** Traits were seen as something that leaders either have or do not have. Trait theory describes some positive or virtuous human attributes.
- **Transactional Leadership theory.** It is primarily concerned with individuals within an organisation. This approach emphasises the importance of the relationship between the leader and the followers, focusing on the mutual benefits.
- **Transformational Leadership theory.** This approach involves an exchange among people seeking common aims. It is said to be relevant for the use in the South African leadership context, where transformation requires action at all levels and there are limits to what principals can achieve in the absence of appropriate, human, and financial resources. Transformational leadership approach has the potential to engage all stakeholders in the achievement of educational objectives.
- **Contextual theory.** This theory allows for the fact that the leader does not operate in isolation but will be affected by his or her circumstances. Leaders might vary their behaviour with different people.
- **Distributed leadership theory.** This theory is premised on the growing belief that leadership should and can be shared throughout an organisation.

(Coleman, 2005b, pp. 8 - 11)

I now move to explore the leadership and management concepts.

2.2.1 Defining Management

Management in this study refers to the evocation of living that involves individuals beyond their work habits. West-Burnham (1992, p. 102) argues that management concerns the effective implementation of the vision. He also touches on ways of ensuring the vision happens in practice, organisational and operational matters, creating the systems and means of ensuring the organisation is run effectively to achieve its purpose. Similarly, Louis and Miles (1990) comment that management involves carrying out plans, getting things done and working effectively with people.

According to Van der Westhuizen and Theron (1994, p. 39), management is the accomplishment of desired objectives by the establishment of derived objectives and

by establishing an environment favourable to performance by people operating in desired groups. Kouzes and Posner (1997) argue that management is essential, but it really only achieves excellence if mixed with generous amounts of leadership. Kouzes and Posner (1997, p. 16) believe that leaders are the ‘holders of values, and play a key role in supporting people in that fearful process of reshaping values’.

2.2.2 Defining leadership

The leadership literature is so vast that superintendents, heads, principals, and teachers are often overwhelmed. In the field of education, there are vast literature-journal articles, handbooks, monographs, entire specialist journals, countless training and programmes that are filled with theories that direct leaders what to do and how to do it.

Generally, leadership is viewed as something special. According to West-Burnham (1992, p. 102), leadership concerns mission, vision, values, strategy, creating direction and transformation of the organisation. In a related sense, West-Burnham, Bush, O’Neill and Glover (1995, p. 102) suggest that leadership should involve the following:

- Creativity
- Problem solving
- Vision
- A value-driven strategic view of the nature
- Clear decision-making
- Sensitivity
- Interpersonal and communication skills
- Delegation and improvement

Yukl (1994, p. 7) offers the following viewpoint about leadership:

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives...the definition

includes efforts not only to influence and to facilitate the current work of the group or organisation but also to ensure that it is prepared to meet future challenges (p. 7).

Another way of expressing the meaning of leadership is to say, as Cuban (1988, p. xx) has, that leadership means influencing others' actions in achieving desirable ends. He stresses that leaders are people who shape the goals, motivations, and actions of others.

2.2.3 Traditional view of leadership

Traditional view of leadership regards leadership as the sole responsibility of the principal as a leader. This is because the principal is accountable to the external education authorities. The principal is at the apex of the school pyramid. According to Coleman (2005a, p. 252), the principal attempts the challenges and complexities of leadership alone and is seen as the hero who stands at the top of the complex pyramid of power. The implication of this is that the principal acts as the sole decision-maker without consulting with other members of the staff. Contrary, leadership in South Africa in the democratic era requires leaders who are able to work in a democratic and participative manner. The implication of this statement is that the principal, as a leader, can no longer exercise leadership alone at the apex of the school, but distribute authority to all the members of the organisation. Therefore today's leadership is seen as decentralised and distributed in every part of the organisation so that those on the periphery who are first to spot challenges can act on them instantly (Pedler, Burgoyne, & Boydell, 2003). The following section deals with the changes in the notion of leadership, from individual to group.

2.2.4 Changes in the notion of leadership: from individual to group

Ash and Persall (2000) emphasise the need for new strategies, new processes, and new mindsets - a new paradigm of leadership. McLennan and Thurlow (2003) suggest three ways of thinking about how person-centred education can be reconstructed in South Africa. Firstly, they argue that there needs to be a move away from the notion that order can be maintained in schools if the principal's position of power and authority is maintained. Secondly, they suggest that commitment is needed to

maximise decentralisation and devolution of power to school communities. Lastly, they call for and emphasise collaboration and participation. My argument is that such a move of thinking is critical for the development of teacher leadership if the transformation of schooling system in South Africa has to be sustained. However, Hallinger and Heck (1996) identify 'blank spots' which they explain as shortcomings in the research in as far as forms of leadership in practice are concerned. These 'blank spots' refer to what Harris (2004, p. 13) calls 'blind spots' that refers to the fact that much of the research literature has focused upon formal leadership of head teachers in particular, and has overlooked the different kinds of leadership in a school. However, Stogdill (1950) has a broader context in mind when he defines leadership as the process of influencing the activities of an organised group towards goal accomplishment. Encouraging teacher involvement increases the likelihood that more effective decision-making will occur. Fuglestad and Lillejord (2001) highlight that leadership is not a fixed and static 'ability', but an unpredictable and ever-changing process. They further agree that there is a need for taking new initiatives, a need for being creative and a need for having the ability to solve problems, hence promoting different kinds of leadership.

As Fuglestad and Lillejord (2001) point out, leadership in education is not a one-man task, performed by a principal of a school or a teacher in the classroom. Many principals have been active agents in bringing the reform to their schools. According to Riley and Khamis (2005) the dynamics of the education reform and change agenda has led to the present focus on the leadership of schools, and on the role of individual school leaders including teachers. Riley and Khamis (2005), in their argument, state that the second conceptual theme of a more dispersed value driven model of leadership, is emerging. Ash and Pearsall (2000) concur and acknowledge an emerging leadership theory that places considerable emphasis on the power of conversation in driving improvement. In addition, West and Hopkins (2000) state that collaboration provides opportunities for teachers to study, to learn, and to share leadership. Therefore collaboration, gives rise to workplace leadership, such as teacher leadership and a range of alternative distributed leadership practices (Gronn, 2000b; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001; Yukl, 1994)

2.2.5 Decentralisation and teacher leadership

In this new approach to leadership, the top-down management style of the principal gives a false notion that a principal is ‘a ship captain’ (Datnow et al., 2002). Instead, according to Maile (2002), absolute power is done away with and replaced by a broader conception of leadership that focuses on groups working together to lead. Sergiovanni and Starrat (1993) state that there are myths and preconceptions about leadership. For instance, there is a myth that unless you are a principal, deputy principal, head of department or an inspector, you are not really a leader. Decentralising management and decision-making allows leadership to become distributed throughout an organisation. Consequently, leadership can be exercised by individuals in formal positions of authority as well as by individuals outside these positions (Smylie et al., 2002). In contrast, Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinback (1999) argue that teachers exercise informal leadership in their schools by sharing their expertise, volunteering for new projects and bringing new ideas to the school. Furthermore, Calitz, Fuglestad and Lillejord (2002) argue that leaders cannot underestimate the massive challenge they face in building trusting relationships, establishing forums for dialogue and overcoming situations of disrespect. According to Sergiovanni (2001) dealing with the complexities of this world requires that teachers and administrators practice a leadership based less on their personalities, their positions, and on mandates, and more on ideas.

The processes of educational reform in South Africa are characterised significantly by educational decentralisation. Carrim (2001) argues that the processes of decentralisation are more consistent with the development of democracy. Decentralisation allows policies to engage more with the local and the particular. Calitz (2001) resonates the idea that a commitment to decentralisation, school based negotiation and stakeholder participation is part of the new direction and organisation of education in South Africa. This commitment to educational decentralisation will ensure the development and nurturing of teacher leadership in South Africa and other parts of the world. Anderson (2005) concurs that decentralisation implies power being shifted to the ‘lowest’ unit. Pedler, Burgoyne and Boydell (2003) suggest that today’s leadership vision is therefore, seen to be decentralised and distributed in every part of

the organisation so that those on the periphery who are the first to spot challenges can act on them instantly. Sergiovanni (2001) highlights that decentralised decision-making brings more minds into the decision-making process and thereby augments reasoning capacity in the organisation.

The key debate raised in this section is that leaders are a little more than “dust and ashes” (Morris, 1997). Sergiovanni (2001) warns that it is dangerous for leaders to think of themselves as providers of solutions that save the day.

The following section examines a number of definitions of the notion of teacher leadership in order to understand its various meanings, which may well have a bearing on my study for the South African context.

2.3 Defining Teacher Leadership: Some Dilemmas

This section examines similar as well as conflicting ideas about the meaning of teacher leadership. Bennett, Harvey, Wice and Woods (2003) concur that there seems to be little agreement as to the meaning of the term ‘teacher leadership’. Responding to worries and the lack of precision in defining the meaning of the concept teacher leadership, Muijs and Harris (2003) concur that there exists some conceptual confusion over the exact meaning of teacher leadership. This lack of clarity and consensual understanding about teacher leadership has negative implications for policy because teacher leadership means different things to different people (Grant, 2005b; Harris & Muijs, 2005; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Wasley, 1991). International literature reveals overlapping and competing definitions of the term ‘teacher leadership’ (Muijs & Harris, 2003).

In the view of Silva, Gimbert and Nohan (2000, p. 533) teacher leadership comprises what they define as the *‘three waves of teacher leadership’*. According to Silva et al. (2000), the first wave is about teacher leadership, which is within the formal organisational hierarchy and is close to the teaching function. The second wave of teacher leadership places emphasis on formally created organisational positions. The last wave of teacher leadership, Silva et al. (2000) argue, is that it should be viewed as

the integration of the notions of teaching and leadership. Similarly, Woods et al. (2004) devise their own *three distinctive elements of the* concept of distributed leadership, through which they construct interpretations about the concept itself. They argue that, firstly, distributed leadership highlights leadership as an emergent property of a network of interacting individuals as opposed to the great man theory, which tend to link leadership to the individual person. Secondly, they argue that distributed leadership suggest openness of boundaries of leadership since the literature studied examined the concept in relation to teachers. However, Earley (2003) suggests that the boundary is wide and it extends to the school governing body as well. Lastly, distributed leadership entails the view that varieties of expertise are distributed across the many, not the few.

On the same note, Grant (2006) designed a model towards the understanding of teacher leadership in South Africa. This model has *four zones or spaces of teacher leadership*. Gunter (2005) categorises distributed leadership further into dispersed and democratic.

In figure one, on the next page, I show how '*three waves of teacher leadership*', '*three distinctive elements of 'distributed leadership*' and '*four levels of teacher leadership*', interact and reflect the concept of teacher leadership and distributed leadership as though they are one.

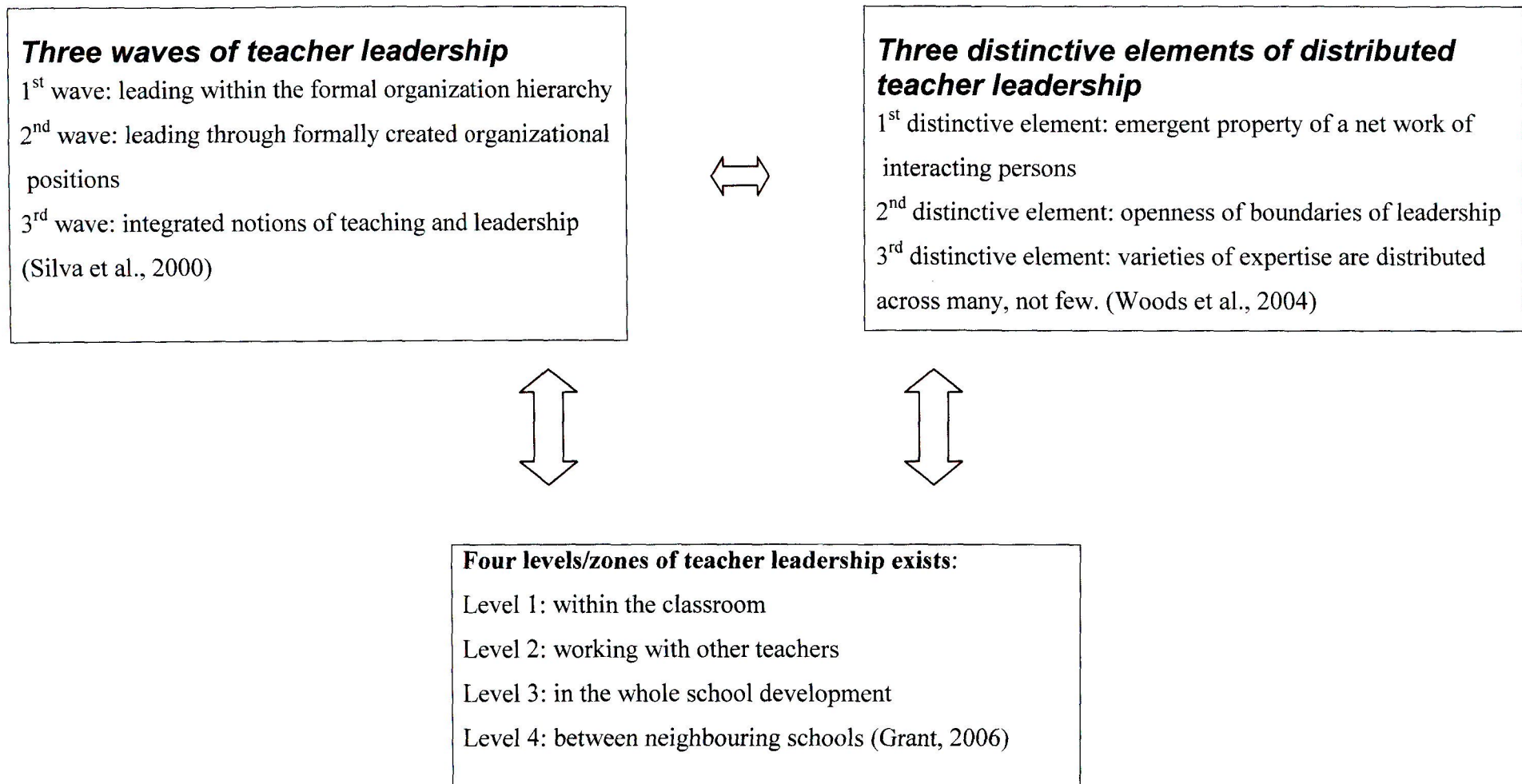


Figure 1: The background of teacher leadership and distributed teacher leadership theory

Linked to the idea of teacher leadership, distributed leadership advocates have suggested that distributed leadership theory is particularly helpful in providing greater conceptual clarity around the terrain of teacher leadership (Muijs & Harris, 2003).

The many empirical studies of teacher leadership, according to Muijs and Harris (2003) inherently point towards the idea of distributed forms of power and authority. However, Day et al. (2000) argue that what is also the case is that opportunities to lead have traditionally been of the headteacher as leader of leaders. This notion rejects the notion of teachers who are leaders (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001) and views distribution of work being conceptualised on the premise of avoiding potential headteacher overload (Gunter, 2001).

When defining teacher leadership Katzenmeyer and Mollers' definition of teacher leadership offers a good starting point the concept. These authors write "teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher, learners and leaders, and influence others towards improved educational practice" (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, p. 17). Building on this definition Grant (2005a) developed her own definition of teacher leadership for the South African school context as follows:

Teacher leadership implies a form of leadership beyond headship or formal position. It refers to teachers becoming aware of and taking up informal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond. It includes teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders towards a shared vision of their school within a culture of respect and trust (Grant, 2005a, p. 2).

Researchers like, Leithwood et al. (1999) suggest that teachers may be appointed to formal teacher leadership roles and may exercise informal leadership in their schools by sharing their expertise, and volunteering for new projects. However, according to Gunter (2001) sharing or distributing leadership has a different understanding. In Gunter's view distributed leadership has less to do with managerial efficiency and more to do with educational leadership working within and developing a democracy (Gunter, 2001).

Wasley (1991, p. 23) defines teacher leadership as the ability to encourage colleagues to change, to do things that they would not ordinarily consider without the influence of the leader. Boles and Troen (1994, p.11) characterise teacher leadership as a form of “collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively”. Similarly the works of Ash & Persall (2000) and Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) on teacher leadership place emphasis on teacher leaders as ‘experts’. In a similar vein, Harris (2004) suggests that distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organisation rather seeking this only through formal roles. In contrast, the work of Lortie (1969) reveals that teachers feel unease about terms like ‘expert’ and ‘influence’ especially where formal leadership dominates. Hannay and Denby (1994) argue that teacher leadership is a form of mentoring career leaders and ensuring greater participation in school decision-making. Lambert (1998) defines teacher leadership as a form of capacity building and as broad skilful involvement in the work of those involved in leadership. According to Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) teacher leadership may be either formal or informal in nature. They point out that lead teacher, master teacher, department head, union representative, member of the school’s governance council, mentor are among the many designations associated with formal teacher leadership roles. In my opinion they fail to point out designations associated with informal teacher leadership roles.

Vast empirical studies of teacher leadership, inherently point directly towards the idea of distributed forms of power and authority (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Bennett, Harvey, Wice and Woods too suggest that it is best to think of distributed leadership as way of thinking about leadership rather than as another technique (Bennett et al., 2003). According to, Harris (2004, p. 13) distributed leadership concentrates on engaging expertise wherever it exists within the organisation rather than seeking this only through formal position or role. Bennett et al. (2003, p. 6) argue that distributed leadership is based on trust and requires the senior staff “let go” leadership roles rather than just delegating tasks.

Ash and Persall (1999) develop the idea of formative leadership theory, which is based on the belief that there are numerous leadership possibilities and many leaders within the school. This theory is supported by many authors in their definition of teacher leadership and distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000a; Hallinger, 2003; Harris,

2004; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Lang, 1999; Lumby, 2003). This theory is based on the view that the teacher is a leader. Bennett et al. (2003) and Lumby (2003) suggest that theory of distributed leadership recognises that leadership results not only from emergent but also from situational factors.

An interesting idea is put forward by Palestini (2000) who argues that only those who are carefully chosen by school leaders are delegated tasks. Leithwood et al. (1999) find Palestini's (2000) argument controversial and present a different view. According to Leithwood et al. (1999), formal school leaders are by no means the only influence on who is selected for teacher-leader roles in the school. Similarly, Fuglestad and Lillejord (1997) view teacher leadership through the eyes of relational perspective. They view leadership as shared 'relational' skills, which evolve in the interaction between the leader and members of the organisation. Lumby (2003) raises her concerns about the questions of distribution and delegation versus leadership and management. Her questions explore the understanding of the relationship between delegation of management tasks and leading distribution. Gronn (2000b) suggests that the location of tasks can simultaneously reflect management delegation, a division of responsibilities and a sharing of mutual responsibility that creates a distribution of leadership.

Katzenmeyer and Moller, (2001); Lambert (1998); Day and Harris (2003); and Ash and Persall (2000) utilise a number of different roles for teacher leaders to provide a clearer definition and understanding of the term 'teacher leadership'. What is noticeable is that these authors' views consistently identify teacher leaders with their roles in terms of helping, supporting, forging close relationships, undertaking research, being experts in their field, spending most of their time in the classroom while taking on different leadership roles at different times. Woods et al. (2004) identify another three keywords which appear to be closely related to teacher leadership. These are:

- Delegated leadership
- Democratic leadership
- Dispersed leadership (Woods et al., 2004, p. 441)

However, Gunter (2005) has a different opinion. She suggests that authorised leadership; dispersed leadership and democratic leadership are presently understood as characteristics of distributed leadership. She suggests that authorised distributed leadership can also be termed ‘delegated leadership’ where tasks are distributed from the principal to others in a hierarchical system of relations where the principal has authority because of her position. For her, dispersed authority is more of volunteering to work without the formal working of a hierarchy, while democratic distributed leadership recognises the value of dissent as opposed to assuming political neutrality. In addition, Gunter (2005) argues that dispersed distributed leadership, through sharing the leadership tasks more widely and redefining roles, shifts the power relations in the school. As models of distributed leadership shift the focus away from individual leadership and toward organisational leadership, leadership is then exercised by a wide range of organisational participants (Rutherford, 2006).

In concluding this section I refer to the work of Yukl (1994), Leithwood and Jantzi (2000a), and Hart (1995) who point to the lack of consensus about the precise meaning of teacher leadership. Much research discerns a core agreement across definitions and reflects the assumption that it involves a social influence over other people to structure the activities and relationships in an organisation. I concur with this because, whatever specific definition of teacher leadership one chooses to adopt, it is clear that its emphasis is upon collective action, empowerment and shared agency reflected in distributed leadership theory.

In the following section, I have selected some empirical studies in order to take into account what has been published on a topic by scholars and researchers.

2.4 Teacher Leadership: Some Empirical Studies

The aim of this section is to acquire insight from a literature carried out on research done in South Africa and other parts of the world about teacher leadership. This section also aims to convey to the reader what knowledge and ideas have been established on a topic. It also aims to evaluate the studies by describing their strengths and weaknesses.

2.4.1 International studies

In the UK, a study sponsored by the School's Council and the Primary Schools Research and Developing Group at Birmingham University examined responsibility and the use of 'expertise' in primary schools using a range of methodologies, including questionnaires, interviews, discussion groups, free accounts and diaries, in order to obtain both range and depth in teacher perceptions and experiences of the use of teacher expertise in schools. The study captured a diverse and even contradictory range of teacher perceptions about the issues. Uneasiness about terms like 'expert' and 'influence' was captured from the School Management Team. Post-level one teachers seemed more ready to acknowledge a distinctive role for 'expert' in schools. Teachers on the whole thought the wider utilisation of teacher expertise would be of the most benefit to the school.

In a study conducted in the US, Blasé and Blasé (2001), sought to discover what successful shared governance principals do to develop an atmosphere of collegial, participative decision making. The study was a qualitative study that investigated the broad question: *how do teachers perceive the characteristics of school principals that influence their sense of empowerment?* The data were collected and analysed to generate descriptive categories, themes, and conceptual ideas. The open-ended questionnaire was used to collect data from 285 teachers in a selected group of 11 schools-5 elementary, 3 middle, and 3 high schools. Blasé and Blasé (2001) found that in the shared governance, principals included teachers in decisions that expanded their influence in the classroom, the school, and even within the district imposed limitations. Such limitations were related to personnel, time, space, students and as well as materials and curricula. In their findings they suggested that shared governance allow principals to enable others to become leaders. Findings from Blasé and Blasé (2001) study confirm similar findings on the role of the principal in initiating and facilitating change for instructional leadership (Schumuck & Runkel, 1994). Blasé and Blasé (2001)'s study 'What successful principals do?' is similar to one of the aspects of my study which sort to explore teachers perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools. According to Blasé and Blasé (2001) the two most fundamental strategies used by principals to promote teacher empowerment are building trust and creating enabling structures.

From the survey of the literature written on the perspective of teacher leadership, it has emerged that teacher leadership offers a platform to harness people's competences. Leadership in general should unleash people's creativity and innovation to enable individuals to make full contributions in schools. Different emphases are possible in research and theorisations of distributed leadership. This is evident in Harris and Chapman (2002) whose study conducted in UK highlights some of the structural properties in their analysis. Their study highlights some of the structural ways of creating motion towards a less authoritarian, more democratic approach to leadership. Spillane et al. (2001) in the study conducted in UK place an emphasis on the agency of multiple social actors. Agential evidence includes different aspects to do with people as social actors responding to, utilising and shaping structural properties. The strength of both studies lies in the fact that in practice it is not possible to consider structure and agency in isolation from each other.

Harris' (2004) article highlights the relationship between distributed leadership and school improvement. This article draws upon empirical evidence from two UK contemporary studies of school improvement. The first study involved in-depth case studies of 12 schools. The research set out to examine the extent to which existing theories of effective leadership, for example 'purposeful', 'transformational or 'moral' leadership', had resonance with the practices of successful heads in times of change (Harris, 2004). The main aim of the research resonates with my study since the aim of my study was to contribute to the knowledge and understanding of teacher leadership in schools through a synthesis of theoretical perspectives derived from the literature and evidence obtain by means of empirical research. The evidence from Harris' study pointed towards a form of leadership that was distributed through collaborative and joint working. It explores the extent to which distributed forms of leadership can contribute to school improvement. The second study was a case study of 10 schools. In-depth case-study data was conducted from 10 schools facing challenging circumstances. In all 10 schools the research found that distributed approaches to leadership prevailed and directly influenced approaches to problem solving and decision-making.

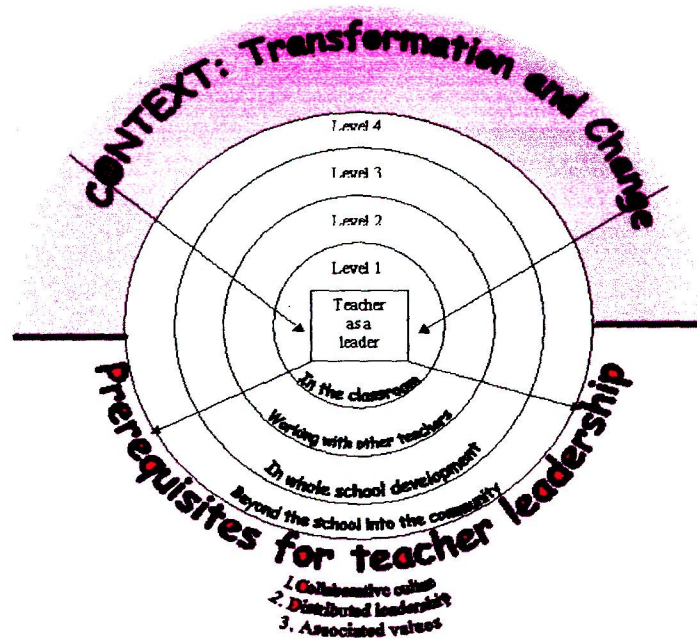
In the American context, a number of different roles have been suggested for teacher leaders. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) suggest that teachers assume their leadership roles in the classroom and beyond the classroom.

Teachers assume leadership roles in the classroom, such as coach, facilitator, mentor, and creating new approaches. Beyond the classroom, teacher leaders serve as trainers, head of department and teacher trainers. They also lead through decision-making through membership of committees and membership of school improvement teams (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, p. 12).

2.4.2 Empirical studies in South Africa

There is an emerging interest into research on teacher leadership in South Africa, as was mentioned briefly in Chapter One. Although referred to earlier, I refer again to Grant's (2006) study because of its pertinence to my study. Using evidence from tutors journal entries and over the six-month period and as well as a focus group interviews run towards the end of the semester, various aspects of teacher leadership which emerged in this tutor initiative is revealed in the model below (Grant, 2006).

Figure 2 : Towards a model of understanding of teacher leadership in South Africa



From the data, Grant (2006) constructed a model of teacher leadership which was understood within the four levels or zones of teacher leadership as follows:

- Within the classroom
- As working with other teachers
- As part of whole school development
- As an extension beyond the school

(Grant, 2006, p. 518)

In addition to the above empirical evidence, Grant (2005b) found that teacher leadership must be understood within the South African context and should always be understood against a backdrop of a fledging democracy and against the backdrop of change. My study sought to examine teachers' opinions about the kind of work that they are involved with in their schools as a signal of their leadership roles. This raises the following questions: To what extent are teachers exercising their leadership roles? Are they full members or peripheral members of the committees? Grant's (2005b) findings suggest a need for more research into teacher leadership and distributed leadership in South Africa. Her view is consistent with the ideas of Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) that 'within every school, there is a sleeping giant of teacher

leadership'. Grant (2005b) urges an urgent need to awaken this 'sleeping giant' of leadership potential in South African schools. In her view, without teacher leadership the transformation of South African schools into professional learning communities will remain 'a pipedream' (Grant, 2006, p. 530).

In another study exploring teacher leadership in South Africa, Grant (2005a) explored the following:

- The relationship between gender and teacher leadership
- Is teacher leadership distributed equally across the staff or are certain staff members given more leadership responsibility than others?
- Is leadership distributed more to men than to women teachers?
- How are the teacher leadership roles gendered?

The study used content analysis to analyse the data using a thematic qualitative approach. The strengths of the study lies in the fact that it acts as a catalyst for further exploration into the under-researched area of gender and teacher leadership. What emerged from the findings of this study is that, when exploring gender and teacher leadership in South Africa, many women teachers in rural schools fulfil informal leadership roles while men take up formal leadership positions. The study suggests that where teacher leadership exists in rural schools, stereotypical roles for men and women are ascribed. For example, membership on committees is often gendered: catering committee role for women teachers and formal leadership roles for male teachers.

In building on Grant's initial work into teacher leadership, Singh (2007) conducted case study research of two schools in the northern suburbs of Pietermaritzburg. She interviewed six SMT members - three from each school. The main aim of the study was to explore notions of teacher leadership within similar contexts in two urban schools in Pietermaritzburg. Singh (2007) wanted to understand the social dynamics of the management teams and the level one educators by seeing things through their eyes and sharing their perspective on the notion of teacher leadership. The study attempted to examine the links between collaboration, shared decision-making and distributed leadership within a collegial school culture as vital factors necessary for supporting and fostering teacher leadership. Teachers who did not hold formal

leadership positions were provided with questionnaires. This was to verify data on types and frequency of involvement in leadership activities by the level one teachers. The emergent theory of teacher leadership was compared with the existing theories in the broader field of leadership to enhance validity of the study. The study found that although leadership was largely delegated to teachers by the SMT and not distributed per se, level one teachers nevertheless complied with tasks delegated to them in the name of serving the needs of pupils, school effectiveness, improvement and development. This notion of delegation is similar to the notion of delegation that my study sought to highlight, through the question of how teachers got involved in the committee work?

The important message conveyed in the case study research on teacher leadership by Rajagopaul (2007, p. 65) illustrates that “teachers are generally working within the first three levels” in Grant’s model of teacher leadership (2006) in South Africa. Teachers in the Rajagopaul study were leaders within their classrooms, they networked with other teachers, did team teaching and peer observations (2007). Many of the teachers did not fit into level four, which states that teachers should extend themselves beyond the school and lead in community and across school networking. Emphasis here was on teacher leadership as a group activity rather than an individual activity.

Based on research into teacher leadership in the South African context, Grant (2007) argues for the critical importance of linking professional development initiatives to issues of leading. She explores specifically, teacher leadership in relation to the implementation of a professional development initiative in four schools in KwaZulu-Natal. As mentioned in chapter one, Grant utilises content analysis by developing her own tool for analysis which included four zones of teacher leadership (Grant, 2006) and six roles of teacher leadership (Devaney, 1987). Grant found that teacher leadership in terms of the implementation of the new pedagogic knowledge was restricted to individual classrooms with little take-up as a whole school initiative. Moreover, there was a varying degree in the take-up of teacher leadership in relation to the professional development initiative in terms of zones and roles. The evidence of teacher leadership in the study reveals that teacher leadership is convincingly in Zone One and Two and reduced considerably in Zone Four. The evidence also indicates

that the take-up of the new pedagogic learning did not move into a whole school framework (Zone Three) in any of the four schools, highlighting the restricted take-up of teacher leadership and different levels of teacher agency across the four schools.

In concluding this section, most researchers, Cohen and Manion (1994); Gall et al. (2005); Neuman (2006); Gay et al. (2006); Singh (2007) frequently noted limitations of case study findings as specific to the context of the research site, hence the results are not generalisable to other site settings. To expand the research into teacher leadership in South Africa, I have chosen to do survey research, which I hope, will provide another lens on teacher leadership in the South African context.

2.5 Prerequisites For Teacher Leadership

The following section aims to highlight that motivation, empowerment and a collaborative culture are essential vehicles towards the nurturing and the cultivation of teacher leadership in South Africa.

2.5.1 Motivation

The intrinsic motivation of teachers is crucial. Davidoff and Lazarus (1999) suggest that the principal who supports and encourages power from within recognise the intrinsic worth of all people in the school. Echoing the notion of motivation, Blasé and Blasé (2001) add the view that one of the keys to motivation appears to be empowerment. I argue that it is powerlessness which corrupts, not power. Therefore genuine empowerment is a motivator. Obviously, teachers are more likely to become involved in activities that they perceive as worthwhile. There is evidence that when there is a genuine vision people excel and learn, not because they are told to, but because they want to (Senge, 1999).

2.5.2 Empowerment

One of the pre-requisites for teacher leadership is logically capacity building and empowerment (Rajagopaul, 2007). I agree with Rajagopaul that empowerment should

be about sharing control and responsibilities. Empowerment is important simply because it is a basic need that brings a sense of control over one's life. Maeroff (1988) states that empowerment becomes inevitable when teachers have so much to offer and are so sure about what they know that they can no longer be shut out of the policy-making process. Davidoff and Lazarus (1999) indicate that without assurance of allowing a sense of control, people tend to feel disconnected, undervalued and eventually not engaged in their work.

Maxcy's (1991) conception of empowerment indicates rational authority, teacher expertise, teacher collaboration, teacher collegiality, and the democratic culture or positive climate of the school. Barth (1988) notes that a principal's most important challenge is one of tapping teachers' expertise and experience to facilitate enlightened decisions. Blasé and Blasé (2001) suggest that empowering teachers has a significant effect on teachers' work both in the classroom and in the wider school setting.

I argue that moving away from a hierarchical approach towards one of empowerment is the task facing education leaders in South Africa. According to Datnow et al. (2002), empowerment derives from the use of a new structural model which opens doors for teachers, both in their schools and more broadly. More broadly, an empowered leader is both willing and able to work with others as a team. The plea is for the empowerment of the person as a teacher, and the empowerment of a teacher as a professional (Grundy, 1987). According to Grundy's conception of true professionalism, true professionalism re-establishes respect for persons as a legitimate basis for action. Nicholls (1996) argues that a further way of empowering teachers is to extend their personal and professional expertise via interventions in the school itself.

According to Coleman (2003), sharing of decision-making is generally preferable to 'telling'. Decisions about school matters are arrived at through consultation. Democratic leaders obtain authority from followers and make members own the outcome of the decision, and it makes them feel that they are vital in the group. A concern for the welfare and dignity and rights of individuals and minorities are catered for. This creates opportunities for teacher leadership within the South African

context by addressing the key question, “ What factors support teacher leadership in schools?”

2.5.3 Collaborative culture as opposed to a bureaucratic structure

Leaders have the main responsibility for generating and sustaining culture within the organisation. Maintenance of the culture is regarded as a central feature of effective leadership. The concept of culture emphasises the development of shared norms and meanings. A brief definition of different cultural contexts in assessing educational management practice will now follow.

Organisational culture

Torrington and Weightman (1989) cited in Coleman (2005a, p. 63) define organisational culture as follows:

Organisational culture is the characteristic spirit and belief of an organisation, demonstrated, for example in the norms and values that are generally held about how people should treat each other, the nature of the working relationships that should be developed and attitudes to change. These norms are deep, taken-for-granted assumptions that are not always expressed, and are often known without being understood

(Torrington & Weightman, 1989, p. 45)

Morrison (1998) argues that the business literature treats the promotion of the organisational culture as one of the many tasks of leaders. He defines organisational culture as follows:

- Bringing out best in employees
- Developing employee participation
- Delegating responsibility and autonomy
- Promoting organisational health and a positive organisational climate

(Morrison, 1998, p. 208)

Organisational culture is often viewed as ‘the way we do things around here’ (Bush & Anderson, 2003; Stoll & Fink, 1996).

School culture

School culture is symbolic. According to Hoyle (1986, p. 150) cited in Bush (2003a, p. 92), symbols are a key component of the culture of all schools...[they] have expressive tasks and symbols which are the only means whereby abstract values can be conveyed...Symbols are central to the process of constructing meaning.

Stoll and Fink (1996) argue that it is impossible to examine school culture in isolation because it is inextricably linked to structure. In other words, culture is so subtle that if one tries to infer a school’s culture from existing structures, it is often impossible to make sense of the underlying assumptions that led initially to those structures.

Stoll and Fink (1996, p. 85) develop a model of five types of school cultures: moving schools which are both effective and improving, cruising schools with high ability intake, strolling schools which may be trying to improve, struggling schools are ineffective in terms of examination results but trying to improve and sinking schools are both ineffective and deteriorating.

Collaborative culture

Shared leadership is one of the features of the collaborative culture. Collaborative culture is a key characteristic of an effective team. In recent years teachers work in teams or committees to plan, implement, assess the curriculum and organise extra-curricular activities (Oldroyd, 2005). The nature of collaborative cultures is that they function to access the tacit knowledge of all organisational members for better ideas to improve performance in their classroom and school’s practices (Fullan, 1999).

Grant (2006) argues that teacher leadership is directly related to school culture. She suggests that if a school wants to embrace teacher leadership, it should develop a culture that supports collaboration, partnership, team teaching and collective decision-making. Hopkins et al. (1999) emphasise that a collaborative culture facilitates teacher development through mutual support, joint work and a broad agreement on educational values. In addition, Bush (1995) categorises a collaborative culture as a

'collegial model' that includes all those theories that emphasise that power and decision-making should be shared amongst some or all members of the organisation (p. 52). Telford (1996, p. 36) provides four frames of collaborative leadership: the structural elements of collaborative leadership, the human resource elements of collaborative leadership, the political elements of collaborative leadership and the symbolic elements of a collaborative leadership. Firstly, the structural elements of collaborative leadership are noted by flat hierarchy, frank and open communication, listening, respecting and valuing people and empowerment. Secondly, human resource elements refer to professional development of staff through cooperative sharing of their collective experience and through mutual support. Thirdly, in the political elements of collaborative leadership, leader behaviour centres agreement through discussion, negotiation and compromise in a climate of openness. Lastly, symbolic elements are characterised by shared beliefs, values and attitude that bring about friendly and informal staff relations (ibid, p. 36). It is my view that these elements of collaborative leadership could be interchangeably included in a teacher leadership or distributed leadership framework because they are integral part of distributed teacher leadership.

While 'collegiality' is the preferred term in much of the international literature, Johnson (1995) acknowledges that the ideals and practices to which it refers may also be expressed through similar concepts such as democracy, participation, empowerment and collaboration. Collegiality requires the active endorsement of principals if it is to be effective. Sallis (1993) takes it further by suggesting that an organisation cannot afford to have people pulling in different directions, co-operation is directly promoted by working in teams. This strengthens collegiality and helps to drive out fear. De Bruyn (2002) argues that fear in the working environment inhibits several crucial factors like peoples' productivity, accuracy, innovation and risk taking, collaboration, and as well as experiencing joy in labour. It is therefore imperative to eliminate fear since a sense of security is the basis on which teacher leadership is built.

The notion of capacity building is another prerequisite for teacher leadership, since it is not just about the creation of formal participation in new structure, but it is above all the creation and development of new cultures. Fuglestad and Lillejord (2002)

suggest that the school leader is important in developing participative and supporting cultural value in the organisation. In the discussions of collegiality above, there is a tacit comparison with a model of power sharing which vests power and authority in the leader and senior management team who are at the top of a pyramid of authority (Coleman, 2005a). This bureaucratic model is identified with red tape, delays and unnecessary complexities (Coleman, 2005a), which emphasises “hierarchy, rules and management protocols that rely on bureaucratic linkages to connect people to work by forcing them to respond as subordinates” (Sergiovanni, 2001, p. 132). Some of the important elements of culture can be identified through the values that are commonly held in the organisations, therefore, forcing people to respond as subordinates might compromise the culture of the school. Coleman (2005a) argues that culture being affected by the style (bureaucratic style) and nature of leadership, leadership may be impeded by prevailing culture. Calitz et al. (2002) state that the concept of leadership is closely related to the ongoing process of working with and strengthening organisational culture. I agree with their view that successful execution of leadership takes into account the particularities of situations and the culture of that specific organisation. ‘The way we do things’ might not always be the best way. The argument that is raised in this section and which I argue strongly for, is that collegiality is likely to reduce the predominance of the headteacher and hence promote teacher leadership (Southworth, 1988).

2.5.4 Distributed leadership as opposed to autocratic leadership

Introducing a new set of opportunities and demands for principals and teachers changes the context of leadership. Researchers such as Bennet et al. (2003), Hallinger and Heck (1999), Bush and Jackson (2002) argue that if schools are to be leadership rich, it is likely to be because of school principals with the will to make them so. Hallinger (2003) sees headteachers who share leadership responsibility with others as less subject to burnout than principal ‘heroes’ who attempt the challenges and complexities of leadership alone. Blasé and Blasé (2001) argue that sharing authority as well as responsibility more fully with teachers across roles and hierarchical levels will create schools and systems that look very different from those of this century. More importantly, Morrison (1998) contends that leaders exist throughout the

organisation and that senior managers need to foster and nurture the development of leadership potential of everybody in the organisation.

The concept of leadership does not take in different meanings when qualified by the term teacher or principal. Hart (1995) believes that leadership entails the exercise of influence over the beliefs, actions and values of others. Ash and Pearsall (2000) take it further by alluding to the fact that leadership is not role-specific and reserved only for administrators, rather, the job of the school leader is to fashion learning opportunities for the faculty and staff so that they can develop staff into productive leaders. According to Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) leadership may be offered by many different people in a school, and may also arise from non-personal sources.

Linked to the idea of teacher leadership is the concept of the teacher as a professional who does not passively carry out the programmes devised by others but is constantly evaluating his or her practice, innovating and making decisions. The issue being raised here is the one of maximising teacher's creativity and allowing collaborative decision-making. In the words of Barth (1988), without a shared leadership it is not possible for a professional culture to exist. Professionalism and shared leadership are one and the same. Thus, distributed leadership entails the view that varieties of expertise are distributed across the many, not the few. Harris and Muijs (2005) take this a step further by defining the term 'distributed leadership' as a term that implies redistribution of power and a realignment of authority within the organisation.

Lumby (2003) raises a number of interesting questions with the view of differences in the way responsibilities are located within the institution. First, is the location of responsibilities, for example, for finance and for teaching quality, really an issue of leadership distribution or delegation of management tasks? Second, in addition how far do theories translate into practice what managers do? Lastly, Gronn (2000a) in addition raises the question of whether the abandonment of fixed leader-follower is in favour of the possibility of multiple, emergent, task-focused roles. The first question concerns the relationship between delegation of management tasks and leadership distribution and the translation of theories into practice. Gronn (2000b) suggests that, the location of tasks can simultaneously reflect management delegation, a division of

responsibilities between individuals or teams, and also a sharing of mutual responsibility that creates a distribution of leadership.

For Grant (2006) distributed leadership includes leadership initiatives involving those in formal and informal positions. She argues that a form of distributed leadership is needed where principals are willing to relinquish their power to others and where fixed leader-follower dualisms are abandoned. In contrast to distributed leadership, McLagan and Nell (1999) view authoritarian leadership as people in the senior positions manage, managers think and employees do, people at the top matter most and many systems serves them and that formal leaders are superiors. Similarly, Van der Westhuizen et al. (2000), argue that the autocratic leader simply tells 'subordinates' what to do. An autocratic leadership style means taking control over others. Autocratic leaders work alone to make decisions and do not consult with followers. Once the decision has been arrived at, others have no choice but to accept. Generally, an authoritarian approach is not a good way to get best performance from a team. Nevertheless, there are cases where an autocratic style of leadership may be appropriate. Some situations may call for urgent action and an autocratic leadership style may be deemed to be the best in such circumstances. Furthermore, Singh (2007) argues that principals in South African schools are reluctant to delegate because they are not clear on the legalities associated with delegation, which could pose as a barrier to teacher leadership.

2.5.5 Teacher leadership and the bureaucracy

A tension with teachers as leaders and professionals is that they are also civil servants who function within the state bureaucracy and as Coutts (1995) argues teacher leaders and bureaucrats function in very different - often in hostile ways. This section serves to highlight the problems teachers encounter as leaders.

Some people criticize bureaucracy because it neglects the individual qualities of people and regards them as part of the organisational structure, slotting them into defined positions in the hierarchy (Bush, 2003b). In addition, Southworth (1988) criticises bureaucracy, because it does not prepare teachers for many events that

actually occur in public schools. I disapprove of steep pyramidal structures, because they create major problems for schools. In countries such as South Africa, where many important decisions are taken outside the school and a complex external framework, the bureaucracy may serve to frustrate internal decision-making (Bush, 2003a).

Lipham (1964) further critiques the bureaucratic model by stating that authority exists in the form of mandates, rules, regulations, policies, job descriptions and expectations. In addition, Nicholls (1996) states that bureaucratic rules and authority are seen as infringing upon the professional's freedom to apply his knowledge and skills according to his professional judgement and convictions. Lipham (1964) argues that strong hierarchically ordered external accountability makes it risky for leaders to share leadership and management through team approaches, and certainly more risky than it is for others to become members of teams. Nicholls (1996) concurs that teachers are required to be accountable, but it may not be obvious what they are accountable for, and to whom. In addition, Nicholls (1996) contends that there is an obvious tension between professional accountability and bureaucratic accountability. Inevitably, some professional autonomy must be sacrificed in favour of conforming to organisational rules (Nicholls, 1996). Bureaucratic rules and authority are seen as infringing upon the professional's freedom to apply his knowledge and skills according to his professional judgement and convictions. According to Coutts (1995) professional bureaucratic interface could impact negatively upon teacher leadership in the new dispensation in South Africa. Hoyle and Wallace (2005) argue that principals may be condemned for failing to utilise teams or delegating leadership in their schools, while in the South African context, policy documents emphasise principal accountability and this may well be one reason why school principals are afraid to delegate authority (Grant, 2006). I concur with this because accountability can be regarded as the counterpart of greater freedom at institutional level as demands are made to demonstrate how greater freedom is being used (Anderson, 2005).

Head teachers or top leaders in UK, according to Hoyle and Wallace (2005), are known to be generally higher in the management hierarchy than the rest of their colleagues. They tend to be assumed to possess enough authority to control the actions of the team membership. At the other end of the spectrum, Gronn (2000)

highlights interdependence that exists between all involved in organisational leadership and management, which means that all members are reliant on each other. The vital role of teacher professionals in the management of education is at the heart of collegial model or democratic model. According to Bush (2003), the collegial approach rejects the concept of hierarchy and argues that decisions should be based on professional discretion rather than bureaucratic rules and regulations. Hopkins and Jackson (2003) suggest that formal leaders in schools need to orchestrate and nurture the space for distributed leadership to occur and to create the 'conditions' for leadership of collaborative learning. Blasé and Blasé (2001) recognise the unfortunate reality in schools that teachers' work is often deskilled and that teachers are frequently devalued and diverted from their cause. The literature reveals that teachers desire more formal 'power' or freedom to use professional discretion as they work with other teachers (Maeroff, 1988). Davidoff and Lazarus (1999) argue that the major challenge for all schools is to build leadership capacity throughout the school.

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter I have outlined the literature on teacher leadership as it pertains to my study. In the next chapter I discuss the research design and methodology I used in my study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The aim of the study was to explore teachers' perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership in schools, as mentioned in Chapter One. To remind the reader, I repeat my three sub-questions here:

1. What are teachers' perceptions about leadership in schools?
2. To what extent is teacher leadership happening in schools and what roles do teachers take up?
3. What are teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools?

This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology. In this chapter, I present and explain the methodological process and methods I chose in order to generate and analyse data that would enable me to answer research questions. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) distinguish between methods and methodology. Cohen et al. (2000) define methods as the range of approaches used in educational research to gather data for interpretation or explanation of the study. They define methodology as a means of helping us to understand, in the broadest possible terms, not the products of scientific inquiry but the process itself. However, this chapter (Chapter Three) is guided by Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit's (2004, p. 36) definition of methodology. They refer to the term "methodology" as the coherent group of methods that complement one another and that have the "goodness of fit" to deliver data and findings that will reflect the research question and suit the research purpose. In contrast to this, Kaplan (1973), views methodology through its aims. Kaplan (1973) argues that the first aim of methodology is to describe and analyse methods, throwing light on their limitations, resources, techniques and procedures used to gather data and the second aim of methodology is to venture generalisations from the success of particular techniques and suggesting new applications. Traditionally, the word methods refers to those techniques associated with the positivist approach and has been extended to include interpretive paradigms (Cohen et al., 2000). Interpretive social science is associated with the qualitative paradigm, while a positivist approach

to social science is associated with the quantitative paradigm. According to Neuman (2006), quantitative researchers apply more of the reconstructed logic, whereas qualitative researchers apply logic in practice. Neuman (2006, p. 151) further explains the meaning of 'reconstructed logic' as the logic of how to do research in a highly organised and restated, formal and systematic form. For example, this study followed the rules for conducting a simple random sample, which are very clear and straightforward.

Aspects of interpretivist educational research inform my study because it does not seek to get the 'truth' but tries to understand teachers' perceptions and their experiences by the process of prediction (Henning et al., 2004). I employed quantitative research design with the understanding that, quantitative approach utilises evidence based on numbers. Quantitative approach was appealing for my study, since my study is a survey research. According to Neuman (2006, p. 43), in survey research, researchers utilise questionnaires or interviews to learn people's beliefs or opinion in many research situations.

A survey research is an appropriate mode of making inferences about a large group of people from data drawn on a relatively small number of individuals from that group (Gall et al., 2005). The basic aim of survey research is to describe and explain statistically the variability of certain features of a population. The strengths of survey research are accuracy, generalisability, and convenience (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Accuracy in measurement is enhanced by quantification, and replicability. The results of my study were generalised to a larger population within known limits of error. I started with the total population of Umlazi schools and worked down to the sample. According to Neuman (2006, p. 219), sample is a smaller set of cases a researcher selects from a larger pool and generalizes to the population. The two broad types of samples will be discussed in the following section.

This chapter consists of four sections, which are outlined below:

Section One is about *Setting up the research design* to plan and structure my research project in such a manner that the validity of the research findings is maximised. In this section I cover sampling, ethical issues, gaining entry to schools and piloting the

instrument. Section Two, *Data collection plan*, has two aims. The first is to discuss the instrument that was used to collect data. The second is to highlight data management procedure, because if this was overlooked, valuable data and effort could be lost through sloppiness. Section Three explores the *Constraints and limitations on my research*. In Section Four *Data analysis* I present how data was analysed using SPSS computer software. SPSS was useful for my study because it offers a comprehensive set of flexible tools that have the ability to calculate quickly and accurately. It is also used for descriptive statistics.

3.2 Setting Up The Research Design

3.2.1 Sampling and population

Weisberg, Krosnick and Bowen (1996) define sampling as the technique by which survey researchers choose respondents. As the reader will see later in this section sampling procedures vary widely. In this section, the word ‘sample’ and ‘population’ are employed more frequently. Population refer to the total collection of individuals who are potentially available for research, and a sample means a relatively small subgroup of cases of the population (Huysamen, 1976).

There are two broad types of samples. Cohen et al. (2000) differentiate between probability sample and non-probability sample. Probability sample is known as a random sample, while non-probability sample is known as a non-random sample. Several researchers (Cohen et al., 2000; Mouton, 1988; Neuman, 2006; Weisberg et al., 1996) identify the following two broad sampling families:

Probability sampling

- Simple Random sampling
- Systematic Random sampling
- Stratified sampling
- Cluster sampling
- Stage sampling

- Multi sampling

Non-probability sampling

- Purposive sampling
- Convenience sampling
- Snowball sampling
- Haphazard sampling
- Quota sampling
- Sequential sampling
- Deviant case sampling
- Theoretical sampling

Randomisation is the procedure that is followed to give everyone in the population an equal chance of being part of the sample. The difference between the two types of samples is that in the probability sample each element of a wider population has equal probability or chance of being selected in the sample. Whereas in the latter (non-probability sample) some elements of the wider population will be excluded and others included in the sample (Cohen et al., 2000; Neuman, 2006). A probability or random sample will have less risk of bias than a non-probability sample. In addition, Weisberg et al. (1996, p. 23) argue that probability sample permits researchers to select a group that is similar to the population in its composition, although of a much smaller and more manageable size. Because of the limited scope of a half thesis, I have sample size at 20% of teachers of the Umlazi schools. This was a manageable size for my study.

My study utilises a probability or random sample, which means each school in the population has an equal or at least known chance of being selected. I utilised the principle of stratified random sampling to provide surety of equal probability of selecting a sample frame (Neuman, 2006) and organising schools by their types. Koul (1984) argues that stratification is particularly useful in opinion survey studies in which the categories of ‘strongly approve’, ‘approve’, ‘undecided’, ‘disapprove’ and ‘strongly disapprove’ might be related to such factors as sex, educational status, and

on. My study follows a similar route, although it utilised 'always', 'often', 'sometimes', 'seldom' and 'never' (See, Questionnaire: Appendix E for variables).

Weisberg et al. (1996) define the sampling frame as the list of units from which the sample will be drawn. My sampling frame comprised the population of 123 Umlazi schools in KwaZulu-Natal. I employed a stratified sampling procedure where I divided the population into what Weisberg et al. (1996) call 'small manageable chunks'(p. 45) and randomly selected from each chunk. These chunks were the sub population of primary and sub population of secondary schools. I had strata of 83 primary schools and strata of 40 secondary schools. This was done in order to accurately reflect the views of teachers from 123 Umlazi schools about their perception and experiences of teacher leadership in their schools. In doing this, I was able to generalise the results to the larger population, which my sample represented. My sampling element or population was schools in Umlazi.

I carried out calculations that precisely determined the sampling size of educators and the schools from which I drew this sample. Gay et al. (2006, p. 110) argue that it is common for descriptive research to sample 10% to 20% of the population. As already mentioned my study sampled 20% of each stratified sample. 83 primary schools; multiplied by 10 teachers employed in Umlazi primary schools*, which therefore equalled to 830 primary school teachers. 20% of 830 primary school teachers totalled 166. 166 divided by 10 teachers employed in each primary school was equal to 17 primary schools. 40 secondary schools; multiplied by 25 teachers employed in Umlazi secondary schools# totalled 1000 secondary school teachers. 20% of 1000 secondary school teachers totalled 200 secondary teachers. 200 secondary school teachers divided by 25 secondary school teachers employed in each secondary school was 8 secondary schools.

I randomly sampled by first putting the names of 83 primary schools in a hat and randomly selected 15 primary schools. I then pulled out primary schools' names one-

* I am assuming that the number of teachers employed in a primary school is 10.

I am assuming that the number of teachers employed in a secondary school is 25.

by-one from the hat until 15 primary schools were drawn out. I then put 40 secondary schools' names in the hat and randomly select eight of them. The same procedure was followed in pulling out eight names of secondary schools.

PROFILE OF SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS

- Population

N=123 Umlazi schools

- Sub-population stratified

n=83 primary schools

n=40 secondary schools

- Total number of teachers employed in primary schools

n= 83x 10

= 830 teachers

=20% of 830 teachers

=166 teachers

= 166 teachers divided by 10 teachers employed in each primary school

= 16.6 primary schools

= 17 primary schools

- Total number of teachers employed in secondary schools

n= 40x 25

=1000 teachers

= 20% of 1000 teachers

= 200 teachers

= 200 teachers divided by 25 teachers employed in each secondary school

= 8 secondary schools

My sample size was 17 primary schools with 166 primary school teachers and eight (8) secondary schools with 200 secondary schools teachers. This was 25 Umlazi schools with a total of 366 teachers.

According to statistical calculations, Fink (1995c) reflects on the Commission on Refugee Affairs which needs a sample of 100 for its mailed survey. Based on the results of previous mailings, a refusal rate of 20% to 25% was anticipated. To allow this possibility, 125 eligible people were sent a survey. My study followed a similar procedure, where 439 eligible participants were sent a questionnaire. Similarly, Cohen et al. (2000) suggest that one increases the sampling size. They argue that determining the size of the sample will have to take into account attrition, respondent mortality, and the possibility of some participants leaving the research or failing to return questionnaires. Hence their advice is to overestimate rather than to underestimate the size of the required sample. My study followed the call and over estimated by calculating 20% of 366 teachers adding 73 participants. With the advice of Cohen et al. (2000) and Fink (1995c; A. Fink, 1995d) my survey over sampled in the hope that the desired number of respondents would finally participate.

3.2.2 Ethical issues

As one of the scientific community I had responsibilities not only to the ideals of the pursuit of truth and search for knowledge, but also to the subjects of my research. In conducting my research I always took into consideration the effects of my actions upon the subjects. I acted in such a manner that I preserved their rights and integrity as human beings. My ethical behaviour adhered to the research ethics of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. As a researcher I submitted an ethical clearance application to the University Ethical Clearance Committee to look at this matter. I was granted ethical clearance (Appendix A), which allowed me to proceed with data collection process.

The instrument that I used to collect data was a self-administered questionnaire (Appendix E). I was aware of the possibility that it could be an intrusion into the lives of the respondents and so ensured that respondents were not coerced into completing the questionnaire. An informed consent form (Appendix B) was attached to the questionnaire for the participants to consent to their participation in the study. Participants were made aware that they had a right to withdraw at any stage of the study. They were guaranteed confidentiality and anonymity in the research.

3.2.3 Gaining entry to schools

Questionnaires were distributed to all teachers in the 23 sample schools with the help of the principals. I gained entry to the schools by asking the principals of those schools randomly selected from the population. (See the letter of request to the principals of schools randomly selected from the sample, attached in Appendix C) Bourque and Fielder (1995) caution us that many surveyors want to use self-administered questionnaires to collect data from samples that can be considered representative of the population from which they were drawn and yet there is a possibility that the list may be unavailable, incomplete or inaccurate. Data obtained from such a sample may not be deemed to represent the population to which the surveyor wishes to generalise. In my research every effort was done to make the list of the population of the proposed study representative, complete and accurate. Hence, the accurate list of the population of my study was obtained from the Education Master Information System, Department of Education in Pietermaritzburg.

I relied on the principals for the distribution of the questionnaires. Gall et al. (2005) and Gay et al. (2006) suggest that sometimes it is useful to send questionnaires to a person of authority, because a boss can pass along a questionnaire and asks the person to complete it. A covering letter (Appendix D) for each respondent was included in which I explained briefly the reason for the questionnaire and gave assurance of the confidentiality of all the information that they would give as far as possible. In this letter I also requested fifteen to twenty minutes of their break time for the completion of the questionnaires.

The staff was then requested to return the anonymous completed questionnaire to a drop box in the school office or in the place provided for by the principal. Where possible, I phoned the respective schools' principals to request fifteen to twenty minutes of their break time to complete the questionnaire. Where such a request was not possible, I personally drop questionnaires off at the schools and make a follow up telephonically to negotiate a time to come and personally pick them up. Coombes (2001) agrees with the idea of reminding people by calling a day or two before the appointment pick-up day. She adds that there may also be a need to send a second

questionnaire because some people might have lost the original one. This would involve extra photocopying costs.

3.2.4 Piloting the instrument

Piloting the questionnaire is of paramount importance. Oppenheim (1992) suggests that everything about the questionnaire should be piloted; nothing should be excluded, not even the type-face or the quality of the paper! Cohen et al. (2000) state that piloting a questionnaire increase the reliability, validity, and its practicability. Also Coombes (2001) places an emphasis on trying a questionnaire out on a few people before using it for real. She warn us of the temptations of missing this stage as putting ourselves in danger of not getting feedback that will help us to iron out small problems before they become extremely difficult.

In order to ensure quality as well as the identification of ambiguous and redundant questions, a two stage pilot study was conducted. The initial stage was with six ($n = 6$) participants in one of the primary schools in the Umbumbulu Circuit. This primary school was not part of my chosen sample. The school was selected through a convenience sampling method.

In the initial stage of the pilot study the feedback that I received assisted me to check time taken to complete the questionnaire, numbering and itemisation of the questionnaire, too difficult, unengaging questions and the type of questions and its format. Piloting the questionnaire helped me to refine the variables to make them appropriate for SPSS package.

Furthermore the contributions of my supervisor and my co-supervisor have resulted in a lot of amendments carried out on my draft questionnaire. As a consequence, I considered piloting the second draft. Piloting the second draft is in line with Coombes (2001) on some possible remedies which include: ensuring that questions are understandable, instructions are clear, the layout is short and the look is pleasing.

The second piloting of the questionnaire included two more participants over and the previous sample. Therefore, the second pilot study was conducted with eight ($n = 8$) participants hoping to reinforce its validity and reliability. As a result of the second questionnaire piloting, it was felt that incorporating Coombes's ideas would be of great assistance in increasing the response rate.

The constructive feedback that I got from the second piloting helped me to make the following changes in the questionnaire: I reduced the number of pages from six to three to make the questionnaire less intimidating. The instructions for the questionnaire were combined into one page with the biographical information and demographic information. The feedback that I obtained from the participants guided the new format of the paper, a separate page for instructions and pages one and two for the questions, the reduced font size and the alteration of a few of the biographical questions and the teacher leadership questions.

I opted for the Likert five scale and the Thurstone and Guttman Binary scale. According to Neuman (2006) the logic for scaling is that people indicate a rating by checking a point on a line that runs from one extreme to another. The questionnaire was divided into sections A, B, and C, with section C further divided into three sections. Section C.3 was the result of the pilot study. The participants felt that this section should be included as it explicitly reviewed teachers' experiences of their leadership roles. It was this section that had to be answered using the Thurstone and Guttman Binary scale. I opted for the Likert scale and the Thurstone and Guttman Binary scale because they were time-saving for teachers who were known to have a tight time schedule (Van der Westhuizen & Theron, 1994).

3.3 Data Collection Plan

In this section I cover the instrument for collecting data and the data management procedure I used.

3.3.1 The Research Instrument

Data was collected through self-administered questionnaires. The data collection period was extended from March to June 2007. The sample representing population

was selected randomly and then stratified according to primary and secondary schools.

Questionnaires were sent to 17 primary schools and 8 secondary schools, a total of 25 Umlazi schools. I was expecting 166 returns of questionnaires from primary schools, with the assumption that there were 10 teachers employed in each primary school. With the total of approximation of 25 teachers employed in the secondary schools, I expected 200 returns of questionnaires, a total of 366 plus over sampling of 73 questionnaires. This gave me a total of 439 questionnaires, which were sent to 25 Umlazi schools.

As was mentioned earlier, the study utilised self-administered questionnaires as the instrument chosen to collect data from 25 Umlazi schools. There were several reasons why this instrument was chosen for this study. Firstly, self-administered questionnaires require less time to fill them in (A. Fink, 1995d). Secondly, they permitted respondents to respond freely, because there was no direct contact with the researcher and their identity was protected (Mouton, 1988). Thirdly, they enabled me to collect data from a much larger sample (Wilson & McLean, 1994). Lastly, the self-administered questionnaire was widely used and was a useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structure and was often straight forward to analyse (Wilson & McLean, 1994).

Many researchers (A. Fink, 1995d; 2005; Gay et al., 2006; Neuman, 2006) divide surveys into the following prominent types: mailed, taped, self-administered questionnaires, in-person or telephone interviews. My choice of survey type falls under self-administered questionnaires as it hoped to provide a descriptive portrait of Umlazi schools teacher's on their perception about teacher leadership in their schools.

According to many researchers (DeVellis, 1991; Neuman, 2006; Weisberg et al., 1996) the Likert scale does not come without criticisms. Some of the common criticisms are as follows: Items may be too mild that they may yield the absence of belief or opinion. The researcher often inclines to write statements that may not offend the participants. This may lead to the researcher favouring items that almost everyone will find favourable. Thurstone and Guttman Binary options for some of the

items utilised in this study also come with certain criticisms. Cohen et al. (2000) argue that a 'yes' or 'no' answer may be inappropriate for a situation whose complexity is better served by a series of questions which catch that complexity.

My questionnaire had closed-ended questions. Out of the 46 questions five items were biographical information with a cross response format. Two were school information items with a cross response format, 25 were Likert items with five to one response format, while 14 items used the Thurstone and Guttman scale, with a binary response of "yes" or "no" options. The construction of the questionnaire comprised 46 questions (see Appendix E). The purpose of these 46 questions was to determine teachers' perceptions and their experiences of teacher leadership in their schools.

My questionnaire was three pages in length. The first page was the instruction page followed by pages two and three in which there were the questions to be answered. I used a combination of bold and capitals to emphasize something in the text or give an instruction about how to fill the questionnaire. The instruction 'cross' was consistently in bold and capitals from the cover page to the last page to make it easier for the respondent to follow through.

3.3.2 Response rate

Many researchers, (Cohen et al., 2000; A. Fink, 1995c; Weisberg et al., 1996) argue that practically all surveys are accompanied by a loss of information because of non-response. Due to the public servants strike four schools withdrew their participation from my study, hence the total number of participating schools decreased to 19. I maximised the response rate by multiple rounds of follow-up to request returns, and followed up with a personal telephone call to further increase the response rate. To further intensify response rate, I added pens as a form of incentive (Bourque & Fielder, 1995; Weisberg et al., 1996).

3.4. Limitations

Generally in surveys a non-response rate is major problem. If a high proportion of the sampled respondents do not respond, one would not be able to generalise results,

especially if those who do not respond differ from those who responded. However, I was fortunate that, the response rate of my study was high (99%).

However, my study did have its limitations. It was limited as it was conducted in an urban area and did not include schools in rural areas. I could have included schools in rural areas; however, time and money did not allow me to do so. My study could not examine complex social relationships, because it solely relied on self-administered questionnaire for collecting data.

With regards to the limitations regarding methodology, there is always the danger of pitfalls in question writing. Rating scales are quick to complete and straightforward to code and they do not discriminate on the basis of how articulate the respondents are, but if they do not meet the purpose of the study, they yield data that is not relevant to the purpose of the study. Question Two C (See Appendix E) did not ask the most appropriate kind of questions about the issues of teacher leadership. The researcher equated committee membership with teacher leadership. Having explored exhaustively and comprehensively on teacher leadership issues, the researcher narrowing utilise levels of teacher leadership according to (Gunter, 2005). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) this has an effect on the relevant data for answering research question.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedures

This section is concerned with the analysis of data collected from the participants in the study. Two levels of analysis were used in this study. SPSS provided the first level of analysis followed by teacher leadership model of zones and roles.

3.5.1 SPSS Analysis

In this section, I dealt with analysing the data using SPSS I now move on to explain and justify my chosen method.

Statistics is about numerical calculations that summarise the data collected and the organisation and interpretation thereof in order to understand our world (Howell, 2004). The data collected in my study was analysed using a popular computer programme the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for windows (Einspruch, 1998). SPSS allowed me to assign labels to my variables. According to Cohen and Manion (1994) a variable is something that can be observed and can take on more than one value. SPSS allowed me to assign labels to variables for two reasons, to easily remember what they were and to assign codes to the values of variables with the aim of making it easy to remember and making data entry easier and computer storage more efficient.

Neuman (2006) provides two types of statistics: descriptive and inferential statistics. He describes descriptive statistics as a general type of simple statistics used by researchers to describe basic patterns in the data, while inferential statistics as a branch of applied mathematics that allows researchers to make precise statements about the level of confidence they can have that measures in a sample. My study utilised descriptive statistics, which described numerical data and categorised the number of variables involved. Although categories can employ either from one category to many categories (univariate to multivariate), my study opted for univariate. Why univariate? Firstly, univariate statistics was the easiest way to describe the numerical data because it involved frequency distribution. Secondly, it was used with nominal level data, ordinal level data. Thirdly, the information of the respondent could be summarised at a glance with a raw count or a percentage frequency distribution. Fourthly, similar information could be presented in graphic form. Einspruch (1998) argues that one can draw charts using the SPSS chart feature. Charts are very important for displaying data and for communicating the results of an analysis. My study utilised SPSS software to statistically analyse data. Pie graphs were used to present some of the data.

For my study descriptive, univariate statistics were employed to analyse data. Why descriptive statistics? Firstly, as an inexperienced researcher, descriptive statistics assisted me to describe basic patterns in the data. The ' *what*' question utilised in the study sought descriptive answers, hence univariate analysis (Blaikie, 2003). Secondly, I wanted to know how many participants in each category either *Always*, *Often*,

Sometimes, Seldom or Never agreed with the statement, through univariate statistics. Thirdly, univariate descriptive analysis assisted me to summarise the views of teachers about how they understood leadership in schools. Lastly, univariate descriptive analysis assisted me in summarising and reducing the amount of information with which I was confronted, hence making it readable and analysable.

The necessary measures were taken to ensure validity and reliability (Bryman & Cramer, 1997; Cohen et al., 2000; A. Fink, 1995a, 1995b; Healey, 1990; Henning et al., 2004; Neuman, 2006). Measures of validity were considered when compiling the questionnaire, namely, content validity and face validity (A. Fink, 1995d). The questionnaire measured what it was supposed to measure and the questions were adequate to be representative of the phenomenon (Neuman, 2006). Steps were taken to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire in the sense that an extensive literature review was conducted and various experts were requested to check the phrasing and assignment of items to fields (Mouton, 1988).

The following explanations will equip the reader with a brief understanding of the statistics terms mentioned in this section and in the following sections of Chapter Four as highlighted by Rose and Sullivan (1996). In Chapter Four the reader encounters numerous tables. These tables are called frequency tables. A Frequency table has the following:

- Column 1: The values or categories of the variable.
- Frequency column: The number of people in each category.
- Percentage column: The percent of the whole sample in each category
- Valid percentage column: The percentage of those who gave a valid response to the question that belongs to each category. This is usually the percentage that is utilised when reporting results.

- Cumulative percentage column: The rolling addition of percentages from the first category to the last valid category (De Vaus, 2002, p. 213).
- Frequency: the number of times a certain value or class of values occurs
- Frequency distributions: the number of cases in the categories of a variable.

- Percentage distributions: the percentage of cases in the categories of a variable.
- Cumulative frequency distribution: involves showing the number or percentage of observations that are more or less than a particular value.
- Central tendency of a distribution: the place in the distribution of category values where a particular distribution is centred (Rose & Sullivan, 1996).

Pie charts were used as a more visual way of presenting the information in a frequency distribution than a frequency table. Univariate distributions were displayed effectively with graphs. Graphs were a powerful way of illustrating patterns in data (De Vaus, 2002).

I used the direct-entry method to enter raw quantitative data into a computer. I checked the accuracy of coding in two ways. The first one was wild code cleaning in which I checked the categories of all variables for impossible codes. The second one was contingency cleaning in which I cross-classified two variables with the intention of looking for logically impossible combinations (Neuman, 2006). As already mentioned the data was analysed using SPSS. Biographical data was analysed using frequency distribution. The idea was to state the number of high school and primary school teachers who participated in the study, their gender distribution, age distribution, their education qualifications and their teaching experience. For the teachers' perception about leadership in schools pie graphs were employed. The aim was to investigate the relationship between variables, and to show proportion of categories in relation to all categories. A proportion is the measure of the contribution that the frequency in a particular category makes to the frequencies in all categories of a distribution. The formula for calculating proportion is:

$$\text{Proportion } (p) = f/n$$

For 'what roles do teachers take up', and 'what are teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools', frequency tables with percentage counts were employed. The equation for the percentage is:

$$\text{Percentage } (\%) = f/n \times 100$$

Bourque and Fielder (1995); Fink (1995a, p. 73) raise very important issues that need to be resolved before data analysis. These issues include the need for prior editing for each completed questionnaire, reviewing the entire data set, checking the missing value or data, and, screening the data for incorrect values if the correct response is obvious, the researcher may allow corrections to be made by the respondent.

Respondents from each school were assigned a unique number. This was done in order to avoid repetition and confusion of the information when analysing data. Scores were obtained on a 5-item entrance of teachers' biographical information; 2-items on the teachers' own school information, 3-items on the teachers' understanding of the term 'teacher leadership', 13-items on the different roles they play, 14-items on the evidence of what they did and who placed them in those positions, and 9-items on the teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools.

According to Frude (1987), SPSS analyse data from a survey in which we have collected many items of information (*variables*) from a number of different respondents. Thus the following served as variables that were collected from each respondent.

A. Biographical information:

- Respondent number
- Gender
- Age
- Formal qualifications
- Nature of employment
- Teaching experience

B. School information:

- Enrolment

Number of educators

C.1. Teacher leadership information:

- SMT and decisions
- Leadership roles
- Who should lead

C.2 Different roles teachers themselves play:

- Taking initiative
- Improving own teaching
- Review year plan
- Participating in decision making
- In-servicing educators
- Curriculum development
- Participating in IQMS
- Extending beyond formal duty
- Planning extra-mural activities
- Choosing learning materials
- Designing staff development program
- Set duty roster

C.3 Committees in which teachers are involved:

- Catering committee
- Sports committee
- Bereavement committee
- Cultural committee
- Library committee
- Subject committee
- Awards committee
- Time –table committee
- School Governing Body
- School Development Team
- Fundraising committee
- Maintenance committee
- Safety and security committee
- Other

C.4. The environment in which teachers exercise their leadership roles:

- People and trust
- Teamwork
- Creativity is allowed

- Take others opinions
- Collective decisions
- SMT hinders teacher leadership
- Professional opportunities
- Only SMT initiate

Having done variables, I then assigned labels to them, because SPSS allowed me to assign labels to the variables so that it was easy to remember what they were. Many scholars (Einspruch, 1998; A. Fink, 1995a; Frude, 1987) utilise a codebook. According to Neuman (2006, p. 344), a codebook is document describing the coding procedure and the location of data for variables in a format that computers can use. My codebook was similar to the one of the Wintergreen study (Einspruch, 1998, p. 10). I used codes assigned by Lewis-Beck for my study and added my own creativity, since SPSS limits variables' names to less than eight characters long. (See Appendix F: Assigning codes to the variables). I created a well-organised, detailed codebook. Coding made the output from SPSS easily interpreted, while labels provided maximum information to the system (See Appendix G: Codebook).

In order to declare missing data Bourque and Fielder (1995) and Fink (1995a) concur that number "9" can be used as a placeholder in the dataset. I opted for the next consecutive number, to represent missing data. For example, if the last number was "5" the next number "6" represented missing data.

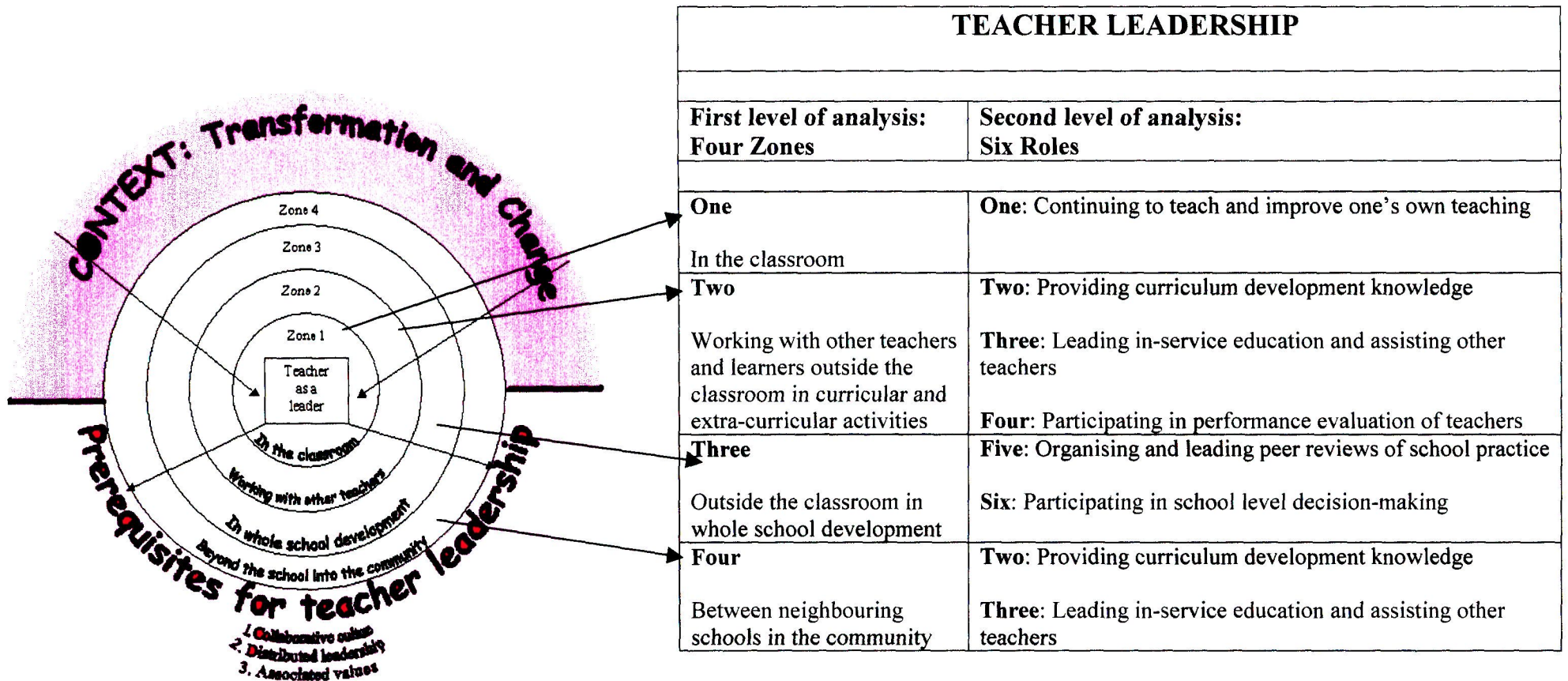
The codebook represented in Appendix G assisted me in a number of ways: Firstly, it assisted me in terms of developing records for each teacher in what (Weisberg et al., 1996, p. 11) calls 'fixed-length flat file'. Secondly, it kept the data free from data entry error as far as possible. Lastly, data entry was a very important part of the research process; keeping it clean reduced the amount of time re-running the program.

The dialog box opened up from SPSS software program and data analysis was automatically analysed and pie graphs were part of data analysis.

3.5.2 Analysis using a teacher leadership model of zones and roles

I used Grant's (2007) teacher leadership model of zones and roles below for the second level of analysis.

Figure 3: Towards a model of understanding of zones and roles of teacher leadership in South Africa



The above model indicates a multi-layered understanding of teacher leadership for the South African context within four zones. The model incorporated leadership in and beyond the classroom including working with learners and other teachers (Zone One & Two), involvement in whole school development initiatives as well as leadership beyond the school into the community (Zone Three & Four). Six roles (Devaney, 1987) of teacher leadership were then incorporated into the four zones of teacher leadership in order to articulate more coherently with the four zones (Grant, 2007). The six roles were re-ordered by Grant (2007) as follows:

1. Continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching
2. Providing curriculum development knowledge
3. Leading in-service education and assisting other teachers
4. Participating in performance evaluation of teachers
5. Organising and leading peer reviews of school practice
6. Participating in school level decision-making.

(2007, p. 6)

The model in figure 3 assisted me in analysing data in terms of the second research question as mentioned in Chapter One. The data from the questionnaire was mapped onto the model.

3.6 Section Five: Conclusion

This chapter has described the methodology and methods employed for my research study. The study utilised survey design, because I collected data from a large sample. I opted for a self-administered questionnaire. According to Neuman (2000) quantitative researchers conceptualise variables and refine concepts as part of the process of measuring variables that comes before data collection or analysis. The research instrument of my study was refined into these sections: teachers' perception about leadership in schools, the extent in which teacher leadership is happening in schools and the roles teachers take up in their schools, and teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools.

The study hoped to provide a descriptive portrait of Umlazi teachers' perceptions and their experiences about teacher leadership in their schools. The self-administered questionnaire was piloted twice to increase its validity and reliability. The sampling procedure was described since the study utilised probability sampling.

The chapter concluded with my data analysis plan using both SPSS version 15 and the model of four zones and six roles of teacher leadership. The data analysis process is dealt with in the next chapter, Chapter Four.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents survey results and findings, which emerged from the data collected using self-administered questionnaires as outlined in Chapter Three. This chapter covers the overview of data analysis, survey response rates and biographical data. It also reports the research results in the context of the questions that prompted the research.

Close to 400 questionnaires were distributed to the teachers in the nineteen schools towards the end of May 2007. 396 (n = 396) completed questionnaires 99% of distributed questionnaires were returned.

4.2 Biographical Information

The aim of this section is to present the profile of the respondents who completed the questionnaires.

Teachers who participated in the study were teaching in high schools and primary schools. The table below shows that the majority of the respondents were high school teachers.

Table 1: Type of schools of the respondents

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Primary school	189	47.7	47.7	47.7
	High school	207	52.3	52.3	100.0
	Total	396	100.0	100.0	

Table 1 indicates that of the 396, 207 respondents (52.3 %) were from eight high schools and 189 respondents (47.7 %) were from eleven primary schools. High schools have more learners than primary schools; hence high schools have more teachers than primary schools. In addition the 2002/2003 South Africa Survey (2003) indicates that primary school enrolment declined by 7% while secondary school

enrolment increased by 13%. This confirms the response rate of the secondary school participants against primary school participants.

4.2.1 Gender of the respondents

The table below shows that there were more females than males in the sample.

Table 2: Gender distribution of respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	103	26.0	26.0	26.0
Female	293	74.0	74.0	100.0
Total	396	100.0	100.0	

Of the 396 teachers in the sample, only (103) 26% were male, while the majority (293) 74%, were female. It is interesting to note that of 360155 educators in ordinary schools in South Africa in 2002, 230546 (64%) were female and 129606 (36%) were male (Henderson et al., 2003). Thus the sample has proportionally more females than the national population of teachers.

4.2.2 Age distribution of the respondents

The following table indicates the age distribution of the participants under investigation.

Table 3: Age of respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 18 - 30	35	8.8	8.8	8.8
31 - 40	190	48.0	48.0	56.8
41 - 50	139	35.1	35.1	91.9
51+	32	8.1	8.1	100.0
Total	396	100.0	100.0	

The age distribution of the participants was as follows: 18-30 years (8.8%), 31-40 years (48.0%), 41-50 years (35.1%) and those older than 50 years (8.1%). The majority was therefore older than 30 years. It is interesting to note that there was a

minority of participants between 18-30 years (9%) and those who are 50 years and over (8%).

4.2.3 Educational qualifications of respondents

The participants had to indicate their formal qualifications on the questionnaire. The results are presented in the table below.

Table 4: Formal qualifications of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Below M+3	20	5.1	5.1	5.1
M+3	120	30.3	30.3	35.4
M+4	186	47.0	47.0	82.3
M+5 and above	70	17.7	17.7	100.0
Total	396	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 indicates that more than 64.7% of the respondents had a qualification higher than the expected REQV 13 level. Of the 396 participants only, 5.1% did not meet the minimum qualification (REQV 13) for teachers. It is interesting to note that National Teacher population indicates that 64% of teachers were qualified at REQV 13 in 1994 and the number increased to 78% in 2000 (Henderson et al., 2003). So the sample is particularly well qualified.

4.2.4 Teaching experiences of respondents

Participants had to indicate their years of teaching experience. The results of their responses are presented in the table below.

Table 5: Years of teaching experience of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid 0 - 5	49	12.4	12.4	12.4
6 - 10	65	16.4	16.4	28.8
11 - 15	119	30.1	30.1	58.8
16+	163	41.2	41.2	100.0
Total	396	100.0	100.0	

Of the 396 participants, a very small percentage of 29% had experience of less than ten years teaching experience. The majority of participants 282 (71%) had more than ten years of teaching experience.

4.3 Addressing The Research Questions

4.3.1 Description of what teachers' perceptions about leadership in schools are

This section examines the responses of the first critical question highlighted at the initial stage of this chapter. The results of how teachers understood teacher leadership in their schools are summarised in figure 4, 5, and 6 below.

Teachers were requested to indicate their opinions about teacher leadership in their schools. The question is: 'should teachers lead?' For discussion purposes, coloured segments in figures 4, 5 and 6 indicates proportions of respondent's opinion to the notion of teacher leadership. Furthermore, percentages in the figures have been rounded up or down to a whole number using the simple rule that 0.5 and above are rounded up and below 0.5 are rounded down to make the table easier to read and understand (Bryman & Cramer, 1997). Figure 4 shows that 50% of the participants say that they agree with the statement (*Never*). This seems to indicate that the majority of teachers surveyed do not believe that only the School Management Team (SMT) should make decisions in the school. In contrast, 20% of the participants agreed that the School Management Team should make decisions in the school.

I believe only the SMT should make decisions in the school

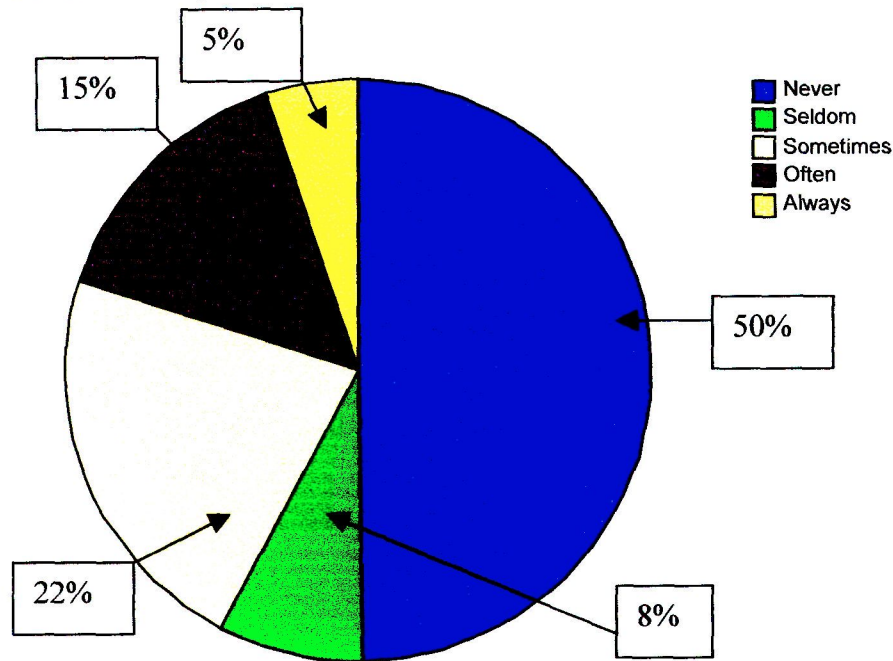


Figure 4

At a glance, it can be seen that the numbers of teachers who do not believe that only the SMT should make decisions in the school are more than half of the pie chart, while those that believe that sometimes only the SMT should make decisions in the school occupy. This strongly confirms that the majority 50% of teachers support the notion of teacher leadership.

Figure 5 and Figure 6 below substantiate data from the previous figure (Figure 4).

I believe all teachers can take a leadership role in the school

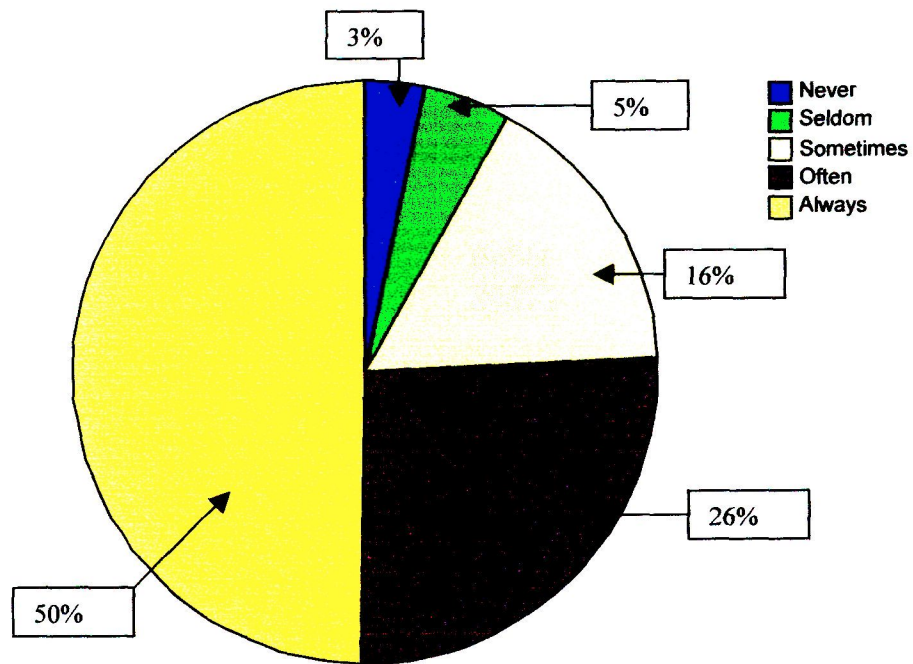


Figure 5

Figure 5 and figure 6 indicate similar beliefs of the participants about the notion of teacher leadership. Figure 4 indicates that (50%) of the participants do not believe that only the SMT should make decisions in the school and Figure 5 concurrently indicates that 50% of the respondents supported the notion of teacher leadership.

I believe that only people in positions of authority should lead

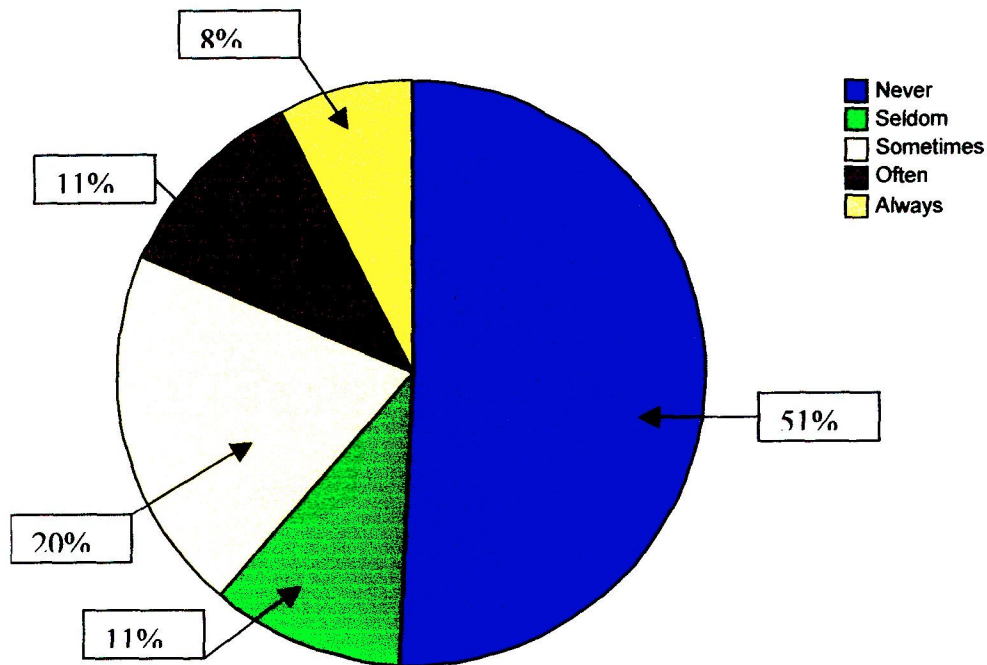


Figure 6

The figure 6 above indicates a slight (1%) difference of the participants view about the term teacher leadership from figure 4 and figure 5. Figure 6 indicates the majority (51%) of teachers who do not believe that only people in positions of authority should lead. From the evidence above (Fig 4; Fig 5; Fig 6), it may be concluded that the majority of teachers are in favour of the notion of teacher leadership.

4.3.2 Responses of teachers assuming the position of leadership

The following section examines responses to the question: 'what do teacher leaders do in schools?' The complete results of the analysis of this section are presented in Table 6 below. The table reports on the following aspects of what teachers do as leaders in their schools:

- Taking initiative without being delegated
- Continuously improving own classroom teaching
- Organising and leading reviews of the school year plan
- Participating in in-school decision making
- Giving in-service training to colleagues

- Providing curriculum development knowledge to colleagues
- Participating in the performance evaluation of teachers
- Planning extra-mural activities in the school
- Choosing textbook and instructional materials for the grade or learning area
- Setting standards for pupil behaviour in the school
- Designing staff development programmes
- Setting the duty roster for the colleagues

I used all the questions designed for this section (see Questionnaire, Section C.2 Appendix C) to analyse data because I believed that all the questions yielded interesting information that contributed directly to how teachers exercised their teacher leadership roles in the schools. I then used Grant's (2007) model of teacher leadership and Devaney's (1987) six roles of teacher leadership to further interpret the results of this section (section 4.3.2). Therefore section 4.3.2 was analysed through univariate analysis (Blaikie, 2003), and zones and roles of teacher leadership (Grant, 2007).

The Results

I did the holistic analysis of the results shown in table 6 below utilising Grant's (2006) four zones of teacher leadership as well as the six roles of teacher leadership by Devaney (1987, cited in Gehrke 1991). Therefore, Table 6 and Figure 3 was utilised to analyse the data for this section (section 4.2.2).

Table 6: Interpreting teachers' leadership roles, first level of analysis

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
I take initiative without being delegated duties	.8%	1.5%	25.5%	38.1%	34.1%
I continuously improve my own classroom teaching	.3%		9.6%	36.4%	53.8%
I organize and lead reviews of the school year plan	9.1%	13.6%	34.8%	28.5%	13.9%
I participate in in-school decision making	5.6%	9.8%	41.9%	27.0%	15.7%
I give in-service training to colleagues	10.9%	14.9%	40.9%	24.2%	9.1%
I provide curriculum development knowledge to my colleagues	6.1%	11.1%	43.2%	27.5%	12.1%
I participate in the performance evaluation of teachers	8.6%	10.1%	32.1%	29.0%	20.2%
I extend myself beyond my formal duty load	1.3%	3.8%	26.5%	35.1%	33.3%
I plan extra-mural activities in my school	4.0%	13.6%	37.4%	28.0%	16.9%
I choose textbook and instructional materials for my grade/learning area	4.8%	4.5%	26.0%	29.3%	35.4%
I set standards for pupil behaviour in my school	4.5%	4.0%	18.4%	24.5%	48.5%
I design staff development programmes	16.9%	16.9%	40.4%	17.9%	7.8%
I set the duty roster for my colleagues	24.5%	21.7%	33.6%	13.1%	7.1%

Teachers' leadership roles

Leadership is frequently seen as an aspect of management. In Chapter Two, I mentioned that the concepts leadership and management are often used interchangeably in everyday speech. In practice it is often the same people who are both leading and managing. Teacher leaders need to do management tasks as well. The following analysis includes both teachers' management and leadership functions.

The holistic analysis of data will now follow (See Figure 3 in Chapter Three and Table 6 above)

Zone One: Exercising teacher leadership in the classroom

Table 6 above indicate that the majority (54%) of the participants had *always* worked at continuously improving their own classroom teaching (See Figure 3: Zone One,

Role One). From the above evidence it can be concluded that teachers believe that they are taking up leadership role in their classrooms.

**Zone Two: Exercising teacher leadership, working outside the classroom-
curricular, and extra-curricular activities and working with other
teachers**

From Table 6 above, it can be concluded that 40% of the participants had *often* or *always* lead outside the classroom (Zone Two), by providing curriculum knowledge to colleagues (Role Two). 35,4% of the participants had *always* assisted with the selection of the textbooks and as well as the instructional materials for the grade or learning area (Role Two). This is an indication that teachers are exercising teacher leadership outside the classroom in curricular matters. In addition, Table 6 indicates that 45% of the participants lead in planning extra-mural activities in schools (Zone Two). This is an indication that teachers are exercising teacher leadership outside the classroom in extra-curricular activities. Lastly, Table 6 indicates that 49% of the participants had *often* or *always* worked with other teachers in performance evaluation (Figure 3: Zone Two, Role 4); 41% of the participants had *sometimes* worked with other teachers giving in-service to colleagues (Figure 3: Zone Two, Role Three). This is evidence that teachers are taking up leadership roles working with other teachers.

Within Zone Two, 34% of the participants are of the opinion that they had *sometimes* worked with other teachers in setting teachers' duty roster (Zone Three, Role Six). This is an indication that teachers take up some management functions in schools.

Table 6 above indicates that there is evidence that some teachers 35% and 41% of the participants are taking up leadership outside their classrooms assisting with extra-curricular matters (Zone Two).

Zone Three: Exercising teacher leadership in the whole school development

This section (Zone Three) reveals strong evidence that teachers are taking up leadership roles in schools. Data in Table 6 indicates that approximately half of the teachers exercising their roles in Zones Two. Table 6 above indicates that 43% of the

participants are involved in organising and leading reviews of the school year plan (Role Five); 43% of the participants are participating in school decision-making (Role Six). There appears to be two other examples of teacher leadership, which illustrate the six roles in Figure Three. Table 6 indicates that 40% of the participants *sometimes* lead in the whole school development; designing staff development programmes would be an example of Role Three. Roles in Zone One, Two and Three are an evidence that there is a take up of teacher leadership roles in schools. Setting examples for pupils' behaviour in the school is an example of Role Six.

As has been highlighted in Chapter Two, in South Africa the notion of teacher leadership is being dictated in varying degrees of practice, the following section confirms the level at which teachers exercise their leadership roles in schools. (See Questionnaire Section C.2: Appendix C).

4.3.3 Teachers and their involvement in the committees

Although there is a problem equating teachers' involvement in committees with their leadership roles, finding out about their involvement in committees would shed some light on their roles as teacher leaders.

The following section further examines responses to the research: 'What roles do teachers play?' In order to avoid false distorted accounts of data analysis and interpretation, the full results of the analysis were presented in the frequency table below (See Table 7). However this section of analysis of data has raised complexities in terms of the high response rate to 'No' on all the committees. There are three possible reasons for such a response. Firstly, it could be because teachers were volunteered, delegated or selected to be in the committees. Secondly, it could be that the term of office of each member in each committee is limited to one year. Due to the fact that teachers are also involved in core teaching as per duty load according to Employment of Educators Act (1998), they could not be involved in all the committees (Department of Education, 1999). The last reason being the placement of teachers in other schools through the PPN (Post Provisioning Norm), hence having to adapt to entirely new settings of the new school. The following section will be

analysed utilising respondents who participated in the committees. I used the notion of 'zones' to analyse this section (Section 4.4.3) as was done in the previous section (Section 4.4.2). Working inductively and deductively (Henning et al., 2004), I used Grant's (2007) ideas of the zones and Devaney's (1987) ideas of six roles to develop my own tool for analysis, for this section (Section 4.4.2) where the following aspects of committees were grouped into two zones and three main roles of teacher leadership. In Zone Two, teachers were involved in both curricular and extra-curricular committees. In Zone Three, teachers were involved in committees relating to school management and governance.

Figure 7: Teacher leadership and school committees

<p>First level of analysis: Two Zones</p>	<p>Second level of analysis: School Committees</p>
<p>Zone Two: Curriculum Extra-curriculum</p>	<p>Teacher leadership and the curriculum as evidenced by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Participation in the library committee 2. Participation in the subject committee 3. Participation in the awards committee 4. Participation in the time-table committee <p>Teacher leadership and the extra-mural activities as evidenced by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Participation in the sports committee 6. Participation in the cultural committee 7. Participation in the catering committee 8. Participation in the Bereavement/condolence committee
<p>Zone Three: Management</p>	<p>Teacher leadership and the school management as evidenced by:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Participating in the School Governing Body 10. Participating in the School Development Team 11. Participating in the School fundraising 12. Participating in the safety and security of the school 13. Participating in the maintenance of the school

The following section was analysed using univariate descriptive statistics. The full results are presented in a frequency table. The reason for utilising frequency tables was to count the number of times teachers were personally engaged in committees and present key findings.

The Results

Teacher leadership and the curriculum (See Table 7 below)

According to Table 7 below, the majority of 227 (57.3%) respondents were involved in **subject committee** (See Figure 7 above). This may be an indication that the majority of the respondents had been taking up teacher leadership roles in curriculum matters (See Figure 7 above) of the school.

Teacher leadership and the extra-curriculum (See Table 7 below)

Table 7, indicates that 226 (57.3%) of the participants had been involved in the **sports committee** participating in extra-mural activities (Zone Two); 164 (41%) of the participants had been involved in **cultural committee** taking up teacher leadership role in extra-mural activities (Zone Two); 141 (36%) of the respondents had been involved in the **catering committee** undertaking teacher leadership role in extra-mural activities (Zone Two)

Teacher leadership and management (See Table 7 below)

Table 7, indicates that (34%) of the participants were personally involved in the management (Zone Three) of funds in the **fundraising committee**. This is an indication that teachers are taking up teacher leadership roles in schools.

In concluding this section Table 7 below indicates that the majority of teachers are involved in committees which link to curricular and extra-curricular activities (See figure 7, Zone Two). However, their involvement on a committee does not automatically show teacher leadership.

Table 7: I am personally part of the following committee

	Yes		No		Missing	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
I am personally part of catering committee	141	35.6%	254	64.1%	1	.3%
I am personally part of the sports committee	226	57.1%	170	42.9%		
I am personally part of the bereavement/condolence committee	119	30.1%	277	69.9%		
I am personally part of the cultural committee	164	41.4%	231	58.3%	1	.3%
I am personally part of the library committee	51	12.9%	345	87.1%		
I am personally part of the subject committee	227	57.3%	169	42.7%		
I am personally part of the awards committee	82	20.7%	314	79.3%		
I am personally part of the time-table committee	91	23.0%	305	77.0%		
I am personally part of the SGB	70	17.7%	326	82.3%		
I am personally part of the SDT	120	30.3%	275	69.4%	1	.3%
I am personally part of the fundraising committee	134	33.8%	260	65.7%	2	.5%
I am personally part of the maintenance committee	64	16.2%	332	83.8%		
I am personally part of the safety and security committee	82	20.7%	314	79.3%		
Other (Please specify)	41	10.4%	352	88.9%	3	.8%

In addition to the above analysis the results shown in this section are also listed in the order in which teachers engaged themselves in the committees.

- 227 (57%) of the respondents were personally part of the **subject committee**
- 226 (57%) teachers who were personally involved in the **sports committee**
- 164 (41%) teachers who said they were personally involved in the **cultural committee**
- 141 (36%) of participants who indicated they had been personally involved in the **catering committee**
- 134 (34%) teachers who were personally part of the **fundraising committee**
- 120 (30%) respondents who were personally part of the **SDT committee**

- 119 (30%) participants were personally involved in the **bereavement or condolence committee**
- 91(23%) teachers who were personally involved in **time-tabling committee**
- 82 (21%) participants who were personally part of the **awards committee**
- 82 (21%) were personally involved in the **safety and security committee**
- 70 (18%) of the participants were part of the **SGB**
- 64 (16%) of teachers who indicated that they were personally part of the **maintenance committee**
- 51 (13%) of the respondents had been involved in the **library committee**
- 41 (10%) of teachers reveal that they were personally part of **other school committees.**

The majority of the teachers had been involved in subject committee, sports committee and cultural committee (from 41% to 57%), whereas in other committees, the participation was rated from 10% to 36%.

4.4 How Did The Teachers Get Onto The Committees?

This section will examine responses to the second research question: ‘To what extent is teacher leadership happening in schools and what roles do teachers take up?’ The aim of this section is to explore the type of teacher leadership that exists in the schools. Gronn (2003) states that some teachers **volunteer**, others are **selected** through the transparent democratic system, while others are **delegated** duties by the School Management Team (Harris, 2004). Volunteering to be on a committee is understood as the most useful indicator of teacher leadership. I have been selective in analysing this section to get the most appropriate results from table 8 below.

Table 8: I got onto this committee by:

	Selection		Delegation		Volunteered		Total no. of participants involved in a committee
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count
I got onto the catering committee by	54	37.2%	19	13.1%	72	49.6%	145
I got onto the sports committee by	122	53.7%	38	16.7%	67	29.5%	227
I got onto the bereavement/condolence committee by	32	27.1%	29	24.6%	57	48.3%	118
I got onto the cultural committee by	83	49.1%	32	18.9%	54	32%	169
I got onto the library committee by	14	27.5%	18	35.3%	19	37.2%	51
I got onto the subject committee by	143	62.4%	41	18%	45	19.6%	229
I got onto the awards committee by	17	19.8%	31	36%	38	44.2%	86
I got onto the time-table committee by	18	20%	21	23%	52	57%	91
I got onto the SGB by	51	71%	11	15%	10	14%	72
I got onto the SDT by	87	72%	18	14.8%	16	13.2%	121
I got onto the fundraising committee by	42	31.3%	42	31.3%	50	37.3%	134
I got onto the maintenance committee by	13	20%	17	26%	35	54%	65
I got onto the safety and security committee by	25	30%	18	22%	40	48%	83
I got onto the committee by	5	12%	10	24%	26	63%	41
Total	706	43%	345	21%	581	36%	1632

Committee involvement

Table 8 above indicates that of the sample, 229 (57.8%) participants had been involved onto *the subject committee*. Of the 229 participants, 143 (62%) had been **selected** onto the subject committee, 41 (18%) had been **delegated** onto the subject committee, and 45 (20%) had **volunteered** onto the subject committee.

227 (57.3%) participants had been involved onto *the sports committee*. Of the 227 participants, 122 (53.7%) of the participants had been **selected** onto the sports committee, 38 (16.7%) of the participants had been **delegated** onto the sports committee and 67 (29.5%) of the participants **volunteered** onto the sports committee.

169 (42.6%) of the participants had been involved onto *the cultural committee*. Of the 169 participants, 83 (49.1%) of the participants had been **selected** onto the cultural committee, 32 (18.9%) of the participants had been **delegated** onto the cultural committee and 54 (31.9%) of the participants had **volunteered** onto the cultural committee.

145 (36.6%) respondents had been involved on *the catering committee*. Of the 145 respondents 54 (37%) had been **selected** onto the catering committee, 19 (13%) had been **delegated** onto the catering committee, and 72 (49.6%) had **volunteered** onto the catering committee.

134 (33.8%) participants had been involved on *the fundraising committee*. Of the 134 participants 42 (31%) had been **selected** onto the fundraising committee, 42 (31%) participants had been **delegated** onto the fundraising committee, 50 (38.2%) of the participants had **volunteered** onto the fundraising committee.

The above evidence is an indication that teachers do participate in dispersed distributed leadership (**selected leadership**), (**voluntary leadership**) and authorised distributed leadership (**delegated leadership**).

In concluding this section, data indicates that an average of 43% participants were **selected** onto the committees, 21% participants were **delegated** onto the committees and 36% participants **volunteered** onto the committees. Volunteering is the most indicative of teacher leadership, so we can surmise that just more than a third of teachers who serve on committees (36%) display teacher leadership.

4.5 Teachers' Perceptions Of Leadership Culture And Context In Their Schools

The following section will examine responses to the third critical question: 'What are teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools?' Univariate descriptive analysis is utilized to obtain the results and the findings of this section.

The results of teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools are summarised in Table 9 below. (For discussion purposes, '*Often*' and '*always*' are grouped together for more condensed clearer results.)

Table 9: My school is a place where

	Never		Seldom		Sometimes		Often		Always	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
My school is a place where people trust each other	40	10.1%	30	7.6%	115	29.0%	112	28.3%	99	25.0%
My school is a place where teachers work together	7	1.8%	32	8.1%	103	26.0%	123	31.1%	131	33.1%
My school is a place where teachers are allowed to try out new ideas	13	3.3%	15	3.8%	139	35.1%	108	27.3%	121	30.6%
My school is a place where the SMT listens to teachers' opinions	19	4.8%	27	6.8%	132	33.3%	114	28.8%	104	26.3%
My school is a place where the SMT allows teachers to make their own decisions	31	7.8%	46	11.6%	143	36.1%	111	28.0%	65	16.4%
My school is a place where only the SMT takes important decisions	46	11.6%	39	9.8%	101	25.5%	91	23.0%	119	30.1%
My school is a place where the SMT believes that it is its role to lead	37	9.3%	22	5.6%	89	22.5%	109	27.5%	139	35.1%
My school is a place where adequate opportunities are created for the staff to develop professionally	15	3.8%	30	7.6%	133	33.6%	103	26.0%	115	29.0%
My school is a place where only the SMT takes initiative in the school	91	23.0%	51	12.9%	112	28.3%	81	20.5%	61	15.4%

My school is a place where

Table 9 above indicates that of the 396 respondents, 211 (53%) respondents believe that their schools were places where people trust each other, 254 (64%) of the respondents believe that their schools were places where teachers worked together, 229 (58%) of the participants believed that their schools were places where teachers are allowed to try out new ideas, 218 (55%) of the participants believe that their schools were places where the SMT listens to teachers' opinions, 176 (44.4%) of the participants believe that their schools were places where the School Management Team allows teachers to make their own decisions, 218 (55%) of the participants believe that their schools were places where adequate opportunities were created for the staff to develop professionally. The above evidence indicates the culture and context of leadership in many of the schools supports teacher leadership.

Table 9 indicates that of the 396 respondents, 210 (53%) respondents believe that their schools were places where only the SMT takes important decisions, 248 (62.6%) participants believe that their schools were places where the SMT believes that it was its role to lead, and 142 (35.9%) of the participants believe that their schools were places where only the SMT takes initiative. It is interesting to note that in schools some of the SMTs were regarded as barriers to teacher leadership

Louis (2007) believe that school senior managers should work hard to create a good climate for a take up for teacher leadership role with all its emphasis on feedback, trust, empowerment, and teamwork. Therefore, trust is a critical factor associated with effective collaboration, collegiality, teamwork and distributed leadership.

4.6 Conclusion

In summary then, the majority of respondents who participated in the study were from high schools. The majority of the participants were females. Most of the participants had adequate formal educational qualifications (REQV 14). The findings presented in Figure 4, 5, 6 clearly indicates that the majority of teachers surveyed do believe strongly support the notion of teacher leadership, and they believe that teachers should lead in schools.

The findings presented in Table 6 and Figure 3 indicates the majority of teachers lead in three zones: That is, in the classroom (Zone One), outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular and working with other teachers (Zone Two). Table 6 and Figure 3 further indicate that teachers also lead in the whole school development (Zone Three). Findings indicate that Zone Two is the most prevalent zone.

The results presented in Table 6 and Figure 7 indicate that as the analysis of data progressed it was problematic to equate committee membership with teacher leadership. However, the results presented in Table 6 and Figure 7 indicate that the majority of teachers exercise leadership roles in two zones. Firstly, Figure 7 indicates that teachers participated in the curriculum development in (Zone Two), for example the majority of teachers participated in subject committee. Secondly, Figure 7 also indicates that the majority of teachers participated in extra-mural activities (Zone Two), for example leading in sports committee. Lastly, Figure 7 indicates that teachers do lead in the school management (Zone Three), for example leading in the School Governing Body. The results of the study reflect that teachers are involved in numerous leadership roles in the schools. Therefore there is an indication that some teacher leadership is being exercised in schools.

The results presented in Table 7 reflect the ideas of Ash and Pearsall (2000, p. 15) who argue that: 'There is both joy and difficulty in being a teacher leader. The ways in which we lead are countless '(p. 15). Table 7 reflects that teachers are involved in leadership roles but in varying degrees of practice. The results presented in Table 7 indicate that teachers exercise their leadership roles through different committees depending on the needs of the school in which the teacher is placed. However the data do not give sufficient evidence as to exactly how teachers lead.

The results presented in Table 8 reflect that teachers do lead in dispersed (elected and volunteered) leadership and authorised (delegated) leadership. Findings indicate that dispersed (elected and volunteered) leadership is most prevalent in schools.

The findings presented in Table 9 indicate that the majority of teachers believe that the leadership culture and context of schools is such that people trusted each other and are allowed to try out new ideas. The majority of the participants believed that their

schools were places where people worked together and where adequate opportunities are created for the staff to develop professionally, hence the majority of them believed that the leadership culture and context of their schools is very open and collaborative. The SMT in their schools listens to teachers' opinions and allows them to make own decisions.

The findings presented in Table 9 also indicate that 62% of the teachers believe that the leadership culture and context of their schools was such that the SMT believe that it was its role to lead, 53% of the teachers believe that only the SMT takes important decisions in their schools and 36% of the teachers believe that their schools were places where only the SMT takes initiative in the schools. The study has served to confirm findings from small-scale qualitative studies

The results and findings of this chapter form the basis of the discussion of findings in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Once the results have been analysed and described, de Vaus (2002) suggests that it is useful to briefly summarise the main findings insofar as they relate to theory. As indicated in Chapter Four, tables, figures, and graphs were very important in summarising and presenting the results of the analysis. In addition to the tables and graphs, research questions were used to organise the findings. The final chapter provides an analysis and discussion of the research findings in the light of the theoretical concepts and literature review as presented in Chapter Two. In support, Punch (2003) agrees that the researcher can refer back to themes identified in the literature review, hence this chapter is in the position to refer back to Chapter Two for the discussion of findings. Although the study is a survey study, I worked within the ontological assumptions of interpretivism.

This chapter is divided into six sections. The first section deals with the discussion of findings on the teachers' perceptions about leadership in the schools in the South African context. The second section deals with the discussion of findings on what extent teacher leadership is happening in schools and what roles teachers take up. The third section deals with how teachers got involved onto the committees. The fourth section deals with the discussion of findings of what teachers' perceptions of the leadership context and culture in their schools are. The fifth section deals with the conclusion. The last section deals with recommendations for future research.

5.2 Teachers' Perceptions About Leadership In Schools

The results in Chapter Four of my study indicated that the majority of teachers believe that there are numerous leadership possibilities and many leaders within the school. The majority of them (50%) believe that all teachers can take a leadership role in the school. The study indicates that the majority of teachers did not believe that only people in positions of authority should lead. The majority of teachers (50%) did not believe that only the SMT should make decisions in the school. Views expressed by teachers that participated in this study are in agreement with Ash and Persall's (2000) formative leadership theory. Teachers' responses fit into the term 'participative leadership' as was adopted from Yukl's (1994) description to encompass 'group', 'shared' and 'teacher' leadership. In a similar vein, Hayes (1995) examines the potential for participation of group members in various organisational processes. Such participation might involve decision-making, consultation, or power sharing. In my study, the notion of 'shared leadership' has been indicated in a variety of responses, which have been described in a variety of approaches including co-operative, distributed, and teacher leadership. The majority of responses echo the view of Spillane et al. (2001) who draw on their research data to elaborate their understanding of distributed leadership. They view distributed leadership as not just the number of individuals that can be involved in the school, but that leadership practice is stretched over leaders, followers and the situations.

Five percent of the respondents still believe that only the SMT should make decisions, and three percent of the respondents believe that not all teachers can take a leadership role in the school. For this group of participants, only people in positions of authority should lead. This confirms the research conducted by Grant (2006). Grant (2006) shows that the concept of teacher leadership is relatively new to educators and researchers in South Africa. This could be one of the main reasons explaining the differences in the proportionalities of the research findings in respect to those finding difficulties in grasping and conducting the concept of teacher leadership or shared leadership.

In a recent study conducted by Singh (2007) in South Africa in two primary schools, it was found that at both schools some of leadership practices were traditional in nature. In my study, it was found that the minority of participants (19%) had often and always believed that only people in positions of authority should lead and take decisions in schools. These teachers view leadership as relying on bureaucratic linkages to connect people to work by forcing them to respond as subordinates (Sergiovanni, 2001). This is in contrast with the modern conception of leadership, be it within schools or elsewhere, where there is dispersed leadership throughout the whole organisation (Earley, 2003).

In conclusion, teachers too, are increasingly being referred to as 'teacher leaders' in recognition of their work with others, especially in relation to whole-school decision-making (Harris & Lambert, 2003).

The following section incorporates the discussion of the findings of the second critical question using Grants' (2007) model.

5.3 Teachers' Roles In Schools

In this section, as mentioned in chapter three, I used Grant's model (2007) to show the comparison between the findings in her studies and the findings in my study. Figure 8 below is a representation of the findings derived from Question Two of the research questions which is 'to what extent is teacher leadership happening in schools and what roles do teachers take up?'

Second level of analysis: Zones and roles of Teacher leadership		
Illustrating the model		
Zones	Roles	Examples from my study
One In the classroom	One Continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching	
Two Working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities	Two Providing curriculum development knowledge Three Leading in-service education and assisting other teachers Four Participating in performance evaluation of teachers	2.1 Providing curriculum development knowledge to colleagues 2.2 Choosing textbook and instructional materials for the grade or learning area 2.3 Initiating and planning extra-mural activities in the school 3.1 Designing staff development programmes
Three Outside the classroom in whole school development	Five Organising and leading peer reviews of the school practice Six Participating in school-level decision making	5.1 Organising and leading review of the school year plan 6.1 Setting standards for pupils' behaviour in the school 6.2 Setting duty roster for colleagues

Figure 8: A model of teacher leadership: zones and roles in South Africa

Illustrating the model

As discussed in Chapter Two and in correspondence with the studies conducted by Blasé and Blasé (2001) in USA; Harris (2004) in UK; Grant (2006) in SA; Rajagopaul (2007) in SA and Grant (2007) in S A, it has been confirmed that leadership can be exercised by different people at different times in different ways. The aim of my study was to investigate ‘teachers perceptions and their experiences about teacher leadership in their schools in the South African context’.

Rajagopaul (2007) replicated Grant’s (2006) model of teacher leadership in her study and compared the findings between her study and Grant’s (2006) study. The findings in Rajagopaul (2007) study suggests that teachers generally work within the first three of Grant’s four levels of the model (2006). This study shows similar findings, where the majority of the participants normally work within the first three zones of Grant’s four levels of the model of teacher leadership. Teachers in my study were leaders in three zones; these being zone one, zone two and zone three (See Figure 8 above). Grant (2007) used six roles of teacher leadership within the four zones of teacher leadership as mentioned in Chapter Three. In her findings, Grant showed that teachers exercise teacher leadership in Zone One and Two and reduced considerably in Zone Four (Grant, 2007). However, the take-up of the new pedagogic learning did not move into a whole school framework (Zone Three), highlighting a lack of distributed leadership and agency.

I now turn to the discussion of findings according to the second level of analysis using Grant’s (2007) model of zones and roles.

Zone One: Teacher leadership in the classroom

The evidence revealed that 54% of the teachers were continuously improving their own classroom teaching (Role One).

Zone Two: Teacher leadership - working outside the classroom-curricular and extra-curricular matters and working other teachers

20% to 64% of teachers in all nineteen schools pointed out the existence of teacher leadership in schools. Teachers indicated that they did most of the activities in this

zone than in Zone One and Zone Three. The above evidence indicated three contexts in which teachers take up their leadership roles. Firstly, in the context of teachers working outside the classroom—curricular matters where teachers took up leadership roles by providing curriculum development knowledge to colleagues (Role Two), choosing textbook and instructional materials for the grade or learning area (Role Two). Secondly, in the context of teachers working outside the classroom in extra-curricular matters, teachers took up their leadership roles by planning extra-mural activities in their schools. Lastly, in the context of teachers working with other teachers, teachers participated in the performance evaluation of other teachers (Role Four), as well as giving in-service training to colleagues (Role Three).

Zone Three: Teacher leadership and whole school development

The evidence in my study indicates that 26% to 50% of teachers had been leading in Zone Three. The study indicates that teachers in this zone were leading in their schools by organising and leading reviews of the school year plan (Role five), participating in school decision-making (Role Six). The above findings serve as an indication that Zone Two is the most prevalent zone.

The data indicates that teachers are also involved in management functions in Zone Two and Three. The majority (48.5%) of the participants always set standards for pupils' behaviour in schools (Zone Three: Role Six), while the minority (7.1%) of the respondents set the duty roster for their colleagues (Zone Three: Role Six).

The discussion of findings of how teachers got involved onto the committees will now follow.

5.4 How Teachers Got Involved Onto The Committees

As discussed in Chapter Two, teachers take up membership of committees either through selection, delegation or volunteering. Gunter (2005) offered three keywords: authorised distributed leadership, selected distributed leadership and democratic distributed leadership as characteristics of teacher leadership. My study revealed that an average of 43% of the participants ranging from 12% to 72% got onto the

committee by **selection**. Selection of teachers onto the school committees meets the requirements expressed in the South African Schools Act 84 of 1996, especially in the selection of teacher representatives in the SGB. For a teacher to serve in the School Governing Body, his or her colleagues have to vote for him or her. The selection of teachers is also featured in the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998 in which the teacher is selected to serve as a chairperson of the School Development Team.

The study indicated that an average of 36% of the participants from 13.2% to 63% were respondents who **volunteered** onto the committees. This is an indication of teacher leadership in schools. Blasé and Blasé (2001) argue that when teachers are allowed to choose committees to participate in and run those committees, they feel empowered. Lumby (2003) concurs that leadership is not only management delegation but it is also partly voluntary.

The study further indicates that the other proportions of the respondents (21%) ranging from 13% to 30% were **delegated** onto the committees. This is in line with what Blasé and Blasé (2001) view as delegating out the responsibilities to the staff so that many of the decision-making issues are placed in the hands of the staff.

5.5 Teachers' Perceptions Of The Leadership Context And Culture In Schools

The evidence from the previous Chapter indicated that the majority of teachers take initiative without being delegated duties. The majority of them continuously improve their own classroom teaching- Level One in the classroom. Such a position is in line with what Woods et al. (2004) view as the capacities for participating on leadership. The confidence to play a role enables envisioning of the practice of leadership. Thus encouraging and creating opportunities contributing towards sharing leadership are essentially central to teacher leadership (Woods et al., 2004). 42.3% of the participants had been involved in sports committee, cultural committee, catering committee, condolence or bereavement committee which is an indication that most of the teachers are involved in what Muijs and Harris (2003) term informal leadership roles. In USA and Canada these roles constitute classroom-related functions such as:

Planning, communicating goals, regulating activities, creating a pleasant workplace environment, supervising, motivating those supervised and evaluating the performance of those supervised (Muijs & Harris, 2003, p. 437).

The data revealed that 28.7% of the teachers had been involved in management activities, such as the School Governing Body, the School Development Team, the school fundraising and the school maintenance. Of which 28.6% of them had been involved in curricula matters such as: subject committee, library committee, awards committee and timetable committee. This is evidence that teachers are involved in formal leadership roles. Formal leadership roles encompass a teacher being a subject co-ordinator or, head of department (Ash & Persall, 2000). Grant (2005a) also argues that teacher leadership refers to teachers being aware of and taking up informal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond. These ideas are in line with the seven roles of educators as stipulated by Norms and Standards for Educators (Department of Education, 2000).

As indicated in Chapter Four, the majority of respondents (53%) view their schools as places where people trust each other. Louis (2007) examines how trust affects teachers' willingness to work with innovations introduced by central office administrators. Louis' (2007) paper suggests that trust enlarges the arena for legitimate achievement on the part of administrators, during a change process. Therefore for teachers to take up formal and informal leadership roles, Grant (2005a) argues that teachers should work collaboratively with all stakeholders within a culture of mutual respect and trust. Within the South African school context collaboration is highly supported through the developmental appraisal for educators where educators have to work together to assist in problem solving (1998). Blasé and Anderson (1995) view the fostering of a more collaborative way of working as another dimension for the teacher leadership role. From data in this study it emerged that a minority (10%) of the sample of educators view their schools as places where people never trust each other. Louis (2007) views low trust settings as barriers to teacher leadership. The data further reveals that not only are teachers involved in formal and informal leadership roles but also involved in formal and informal teams. This is in line with the view of Woods et al. (2004) who identify two kinds of teams. The first form of distributed

leadership is given long-term institutional form through team structures, committees and other formal structures. The second form is that which can operate through ad hoc arrangements, such as fluid leadership, and resting on expertise rather than position. Be it formal teacher leadership, informal teacher leadership roles, formal teams, or informal teams, Woods et al. (2004) argue that teacher leadership will only be possible within a climate of trust and mutual support.

Previously, in Chapter Two, it was mentioned that collaboration between teachers enhances and empowers teachers as leaders (Glanz, 2006). The evidence from the results of my study revealed that the majority of the participants view their schools as places that allow teachers to work together and even to try out new ideas. In contrast to this, 35% of the respondents view their SMT as a barrier to teacher leadership. They believed that their schools were places where the SMT believes that it is its role to lead. One of the respondents wrote on the questionnaire that ‘the principal believes that it is his role to lead’ (See the questionnaire for the exact variable in Appendix I). This message is echoed by Karlsson (2002) who focuses on developing the participative model of leadership which is consistent with the democratic values of the new South Africa. In her study of six South African schools, Karlsson (2002) states that principals are dominant in all meetings because of ‘their power position within the schools, of first access to information taken from education authorities, and because it is the principal who executes the decision taken’ (Karlsson, 2002, p. 332).

5.6 Recommendations

The discussion of findings derived from my study formed the basis of the recommendations of this chapter. The following recommendations were based on the responses of the questionnaire, the analysis of data, the discussion of findings and the conclusion.

- The SMTs should create schools with an environment that has an atmosphere of trust and which allows teachers to try out new ideas without fear of failure.

The cornerstone of trust is to build a trusting environment through openness, effective communication and modelling understanding.

- The Education System should widen the scope of leadership in South Africa to fit all dimensions and context of teacher leadership in schools and to build into qualifications at higher education level.
- Designing ongoing programmes to teach teacher leadership at Higher Education institutions and for the ongoing research in South African context to develop own utilisation of teacher leadership.

5.7 Recommendations For Future Research

The study was a quantitative large-scale study. The next study could be conducted using a quantitative approach combined with qualitative approach in order to collect rich data from respondents' view on the subject. Secondly, quantitative and qualitative methods are derived from different understandings of knowledge. Furthermore, using multimethod research is a good example of putting initiative to develop social science research and to deal with the weakness and limitations inherent in quantitative and qualitative research methods. So, further research could be undertaken along those lines.

5.8 Conclusion

This chapter provided the discussion of findings on the teachers' perceptions and their experiences about teacher leadership in their schools. The perceptions and experiences were analysed against the leadership theories and the literature review. The study discovered that while teachers understand teacher leadership through the formal and informal roles they play, the SMT should play a crucial role in encouraging and promoting teacher leadership.

The findings of this study are similar to the findings of Grant (2007), Singh (2007) and, Rajagopaul (2007) studies which suggest that teachers exercise leadership roles in the classroom, beyond the classroom and working in whole school development. The findings of my study suggest that in addition to teachers working with other teachers in Zone Two, teachers were also working outside their classrooms in

curriculum and in extra-curricular matters. This study has shown that the perceptions of respondents place teacher leadership as occurring in three of the four zones identified in Grant's model (Figure 3). It has provided illustrative descriptions of the six teacher roles. For example, the majority of teachers choose textbooks and instructional materials for the grade or learning area and plan extra-mural activities in the school, which are examples of Role Two. Teachers set duty rosters for colleagues and set standards for pupils' behaviour in the school, which are examples of Role Six. Teachers designing staff development programmes in whole school development is an example of Role Three.

This study is different to Grant (2007), Rajagopaul (2007) and Singh (2007) in that it is a large scale survey study of nineteen schools of which eleven were primary schools and eight were high schools, while these were small qualitative studies. This survey has confirmed their findings and added value in terms of its generalizability.

It was noted that teachers' perceptions of the leadership culture and context in the schools was such that the majority of teachers believed that there was trust in their schools and the majority of them believed that the collaborative cultures prevailed in their schools. The leadership context and culture in schools was such that there was teamwork, collegiality and empowerment of teachers in the schools.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A



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

23 MARCH 2007

MRS. JC KHUMALO (200202256)
EDUCATION & DEVELOPMENT

Dear Mrs. Khumalo

ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL NUMBER: HSS/0094/07M

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

"Teachers, perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership, a survey in Umlazi Schools: KwaZulu-Natal"

Yours faithfully


.....
MS. PHUMELELE XIMBA
RESEARCH OFFICE

cc. Faculty Research Office (Derek Buchler)
cc. Supervisor (Ms. C Grant)
cc. Ms. C Bertram

2007-03-27

Appendix B

DECLARATION

I.....(full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this 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 PARTICIPANT

DATE

.....

APPENDIX C

P. O. Box 23599
Isipingo
4110

16 February 2007

Dear Principal

RE: Survey for research purposes

I am currently conducting a research project aimed at examining “Teachers perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership: A survey in the Umlazi Schools, KwaZulu-Natal” (project title).

This research is being conducted in fulfilment of a MEd degree in Education Leadership and Management.

I would like to request permission to conduct research in your school. Participants are requested to do the following:

- Answering a questionnaire, which will take approximately 20 minutes to fill in.

This they would do in their own time and it would not in any way disrupt the time that would have to be spent in the classroom.

You are free to ask me any questions about the research. My supervisor is Miss C Grant who can be contacted at **Extn: 6185 – Location:** Faculty of Education, Room 46, Pietermaritzburg Campus (School of Education & Development). My contact details are: 0833285111.

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

Yours truly,

Ms Jabu Khumalo

APPENDIX D

P. O. Box 23599
Isipingo
4110

16 February 2007

Dear Participant

RE: Participation in Survey for research purposes

I am currently conducting a research project aimed at examining “Teachers perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership: A survey in the Umlazi Schools, KwaZulu-Natal” (project title).

This research is being conducted in fulfilment of a MEd degree in Education Leadership and Management.

As a participant you will be expected to do the following:

- Answering a questionnaire, which will take approximately 20 minutes to fill in.

You are free to ask me any questions about any of the information that is requested of you. Please note you are not expected to reveal your name. You are also not expected to answer questions that you feel uncomfortable about.

Please sign the declaration on the next page and return it to me. This will be kept confidential and at no time will your identity be revealed to anyone.

My supervisor is Miss C Grant who can be contacted at **Extn: 6185 – Location:** Faculty of Education, Room 46, Pietermaritzburg Campus (School of Education & Development). My contact details are: 0833285111. You may contact either my supervisor or myself should you have any queries or questions you would like answered.

Yours truly,

Ms Jabu Khumalo

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS FOR QUESTIONNAIRE

- **Use a BLACK or BLUE ink pen. Please do not use a pencil.**
- **In the interests of confidentiality, you are not required to supply your name on the questionnaire.**

However, a few personal and professional details will be most useful to the research.

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

A. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1. Gender

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

2. Age

18-30	31-40	41-50	51+
-------	-------	-------	-----

3. Your formal qualifications is:

Below M+3	M+3	M+4	M+5 and above
-----------	-----	-----	---------------

4. Nature of employment

Permanent	Temporary	Seconded
-----------	-----------	----------

5. Years of teaching experience

0-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16+yrs
--------	---------	----------	--------

B. SCHOOL INFORMATION

6. Enrolment of your school

1-299	300-599	600+
-------	---------	------

7. Number of educators in your school

2-10	11-19	20-28	29-37	38+
------	-------	-------	-------	-----

C. TEACHER LEADERSHIP SURVEY

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that, most closely describe your opinion on the role of teacher leadership in your school. Scale: 5= Always

4= Often

3= Sometimes

2= Seldom

1= Never

C. 1

I believe:	5	4	3	2	1
8. Only the SMT should make decisions in the school.					
9. All teachers can take a leadership role in the school.					
10. That only people in positions of authority should lead.					

C. 2

Which one of these tasks do you do?	5	4	3	2	1
11. I take initiative without being delegated duties.					
12. I continuously improve my own classroom teaching.					
13. I organise and lead reviews of the school year plan.					
14. I participate in in-school decision making.					
15. I give in-service training to colleagues.					
16. I provide curriculum development knowledge to my colleagues.					
17. I participate in the performance evaluation of teachers.					
18. I extend myself beyond my formal duty load.					
19. I plan extra-mural activities in my school.					

20. I choose textbook and instructional materials for my grade/learning area.					
21. I set standards for pupil behaviour in my school.					
22. I design staff development programmes.					
23. I set the duty roster for my colleagues.					

Instruction: Please respond by a CROSS either Yes or No along each statement and a CROSS either, under selection, delegation or volunteered.

C.3

I am personally part of the following committee/s:	Yes	No	I got onto this committee by:(cross one)	Delegation	Volunteered
			Selection		
24. Catering committee					
25. Sports committee					
26. Bereavement /condolence committee.					
27. Cultural committee.					
28. Library committee.					
29. Subject/ learning area committee.					
30. Awards committee					
31. Time- table committee.					
32. SGB (School Governing Body)					
33. SDT (School Development Team)					
34. Fundraising committee.					
35.Maintenance committee.					
36. Safety and security committee.					
37. Other (Please specify)					

Instruction: Place a CROSS in the column that, most closely describe your opinion on what factors support or hinder teacher leadership. Scale: 5=Always

- 4=Often**
- 3=Sometimes**
- 2=Seldom**
- 1=Never**

C.4

My school is a place where:	5	4	3	2	1
38. People trust each other.					
39. Teachers work together.					
40. Teachers are allowed to try out new ideas.					
41. The SMT (School Management Team) listens to teachers' opinions.					
42. The SMT allows teachers to make their own decisions.					
43. Only the SMT takes important decisions.					
44. The SMT believes that it is its role to lead.					
45. Adequate opportunities are created for the staff to develop professionally.					
46. Only the SMT takes initiative in the school.					

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR SUPPORT.

Appendix F

Assigning codes to the variables of Umlazi Teacher leadership survey

VARIABLES	CODES
SECTION A	
Respondent number	Resp_nt
School	School
Gender	Gender
Age	Age
Formal qualifications	Qualific
Nature of employment	Natu_emp
Teaching experience	Teac_exp
SECTION B	
School Enrolment	Scho_enr
Number of educators	Num_edu
SECTION C.1	
SMT and decisions	SMT_dec
Teacher leadership role	Teac_rol
People in position of authority lead	Pos_lead
SECTION C.2	
Taking initiatives without delegation	Tak_delg
Improving own teaching	Impr_tea
Review year plan	Yer_plan
Participating in decision making	Part_dec
In-servicing educators	In_servi
Provide knowledge for curriculum development	Pro_kno
Participating in IQMS	Part_eva
Extending beyond formal duty	Beyo_dut
Planning extra-mural activities	Ext_act
Choosing learning materials	Chos_bok
Set standard for behaviour for pupils	Set_beha
Design staff development program	Desn_dev
Set duty roster	Set_rost

SECTION C.3	
Catering committee	Cate_com
Catering committee election	Cat_elec
Sports committee	Sport_com
Sports committee election	Sport_elec
Bereavement committee	Bere_com
Bereavament committee election	Bere_elec
Cultural committee	Cult_com
Cultural committee election	Cult_elec
Library committee	Libr_com
Library committee election	Libr_elec
Subject committee	Subj_com
Subject committee election	Subj_elec
Awards committee	Awad_com
Awards committee election	Awad_elec
Time-table committee	Timet_com
Time-table committee election	Timet_elec
School Governing Body	SGB
School Governing Body election	SGB_elec
School Development Team	SDT
School Development Team election	SDT_elec
Fundraising committee	Fund_com
Fundraising committee election	Fund_elec
Maintenance committee	Main_com
Maintenance committee election	Main_elec
Safety and security committee	Safe_com
Safety and security election	Safe_elec
Other	Other
Other election	Other_elec
SECTION C.4	
People and trust	Peop_tru
Teachers work together	Work_to

Appendix G

The codebook of the survey study about “Teachers’ perceptions and experiences of teacher leadership in Umlazi schools: KwaZulu-Natal”.

SECTION A

Variable name: School
Variable label: Type of school
Values and value labels: 1 Primary school
2 High school

Variable name: Gender
Variable label: Gender of respondent
Values and value labels: 0 Male
1 Female

Variable name: Age
Variable label: Age of respondent
Values and value labels: 0 18-30
1 31-40
2 41-50
3 51+

Variable name: Qualific
Variable label: Formal qualifications of the respondent
Values and value labels: 0 Below M+3
1 M+3
2 M+4
3 M+5 and above

Variable name: Natu_emp
Variable label: Nature of Employment of the respondent
Values and value labels 0 Permanent

- 1 Temporary
- 2 Seconded

Variable name: Teac_exp
Variable label: Years of teaching experience of the respondent
Values and value label: 0 0-5yrs
1 6-10yrs
2 11-15yrs
3 16+yrs

SECTION B

Variable name: Scho_enr
Variable label: Enrolment of the respondent's school
Values and value label: 0 1-299
1 300-599
2 600+

Variable name: Num_edu
Variable label: Number of Educators in the respondent's school
Values and value label: 0 2-10
1 11-19
2 20-28
3 29-37
4 38+

SECTION C.1

Variable name: SMT_dec
Variable label: I believe only the SMT make decisions in the school
Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom

1 Never

Variable name: Teac_rol

Variable label: I believe all teachers can take a leadership role in schools

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Pos_lead

Variable label: I believe that only people in position of authority should lead

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

SECTION C.2

Variable name: Tak_delg

Variable label: I take initiative without being delegated duties

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Impr_tea

Variable label: I continuously improve my own classroom teaching

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom

1 Never

Variable name: Yer_plan

Variable label: I organise and lead reviews of the school year plan

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Part_dec

Variable label: I participate in in-school decision making

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: In_servi

Variable label: I give in- service training to colleagues

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Prov_kno

Variable label: I provide curriculum development knowledge to colleagues

Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Part_eva
Variable label: I participate in the performance evaluation of teachers
Values and value labels: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Beyo_dut
Variable label: I extend myself beyond my formal duty
Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Ext_act
Variable label: I plan extra-mural activities in my school
Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Chos_bok
Variable label: I choose textbook and instructional materials for my subject or phase
Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Set_beha
Variable Label: I set standards for pupil behaviour in my school
Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Desn_dev
Variable Label: I design staff development programmes
Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Set_rost
Variable Label: I set the duty roster for my colleagues
Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

SECTION C.3

Variable name: Cat_com
Variable Label: Catering committee
Values and value label: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Cat_elec
Variable Label: I got onto the catering committee by
Values and value label: 1 Selection

- 2 Delegation
- 3 Volunteered

Variable name: Bere_com
Variable Label: Bereavement committee
Values and value label: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Bere_elec
Variable Label: I got onto the bereavement committee by
Values and value label: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: Cul_com
Variable Label: Cultural committee
Values and value labels: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Cul_elec
Variable Label: I got onto the cultural committee by
Values and value labels: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: Libr_com
Variable Label: Library committee
Values and value labels: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Libr_elec
Variable Label: I got onto the library committee by:
Values and value labels: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: Subj_com
Variable Label: Subject committee
Values and value labels: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Subj_elect
Variable Label: I got onto the subject committee by
Values and value labels: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: Awad_com
Variable Label: Awards committee
Values and value labels: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Awad_elec
Variable Label: I got onto awards committee by
Values and value labels: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: Timet_com
Variable Label: Time-table committee
Values and value labels: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Timet_elec
Variable Label: I got onto time table committee by
Values and value label: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: SGB
Variable Label: School Governing Body

Values and value label: 1 Yes
 2 No

Variable name: SGB_elec

Variable Label: I got onto SGB by

Values and value label: 1 Selection
 2 Delegation
 3 Volunteered

Variable name: SDT

Variable Label: School Development Team:

Values and value label: 1 Yes
 2 No

Variable name: SDT_elec

Variable Label: I got onto the SDT by

Values and value label: 1 Selection
 2 Delegation
 3 Volunteered

Variable name: Fund_com

Variable Label: Fundraising committee

Values and value label: 1 Yes
 2 No

Variable name: Fund_elec

Variable Label: I got onto the fundraising committee by:

Values and value label: 1 Selection
 2 Delegation
 3 Volunteered

Variable name: Main_com

Variable Label: Maintenance committee

Values and value label: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Main_elec

Variable Label: I got onto the maintenance committee by

Values and value label: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

Variable name: Safe_com

Variable Label: Safety and security committee

Values and value label: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Safe_elec

Variable Label: I got onto the safety and security committee by

3 Selection
4 Delegation
5 Volunteered

Variable name: Other

Variable Label: Other

Values and value label: 1 Yes
2 No

Variable name: Other

Variable Label: I got other committees by

Values and value label: 1 Selection
2 Delegation
3 Volunteered

SECTION C.4

Variable name: Peop_tru

Variable Label: My school is a place where people and trust each other

Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: Work_to

Variable Label: My school is a place where teachers work together as team

Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: New_idea

Variable Label: My school is a place where teachers are allowed new ideas

Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: SMT_lisn

Variable Label: My school is a place where the SMT listens to teachers opinions

Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often
3 Sometimes
2 Seldom
1 Never

Variable name: SMT_deci

Variable Label: My school is a place where only the SMT takes important decisions

Values and value label: 5 Always
4 Often

- 3 Sometimes
- 2 Seldom
- 1 Never

Variable name: Only_SMTd

Variable Label: My school is a place where SMT takes important decisions

- Values and value label:
- 5 Always
 - 4 Often
 - 3 Sometimes
 - 2 Seldom
 - 1 Never

Variable name: SMT_lead

Variable Label: My school is a place where the SMT believes it is its role to lead

- Values and value label:
- 5 Always
 - 4 Often
 - 3 Sometimes
 - 2 Seldom
 - 1 Never

Variable name: Adeq_opp

Variable Label: My school is a place where adequate opportunities are created for the staff to develop professionally.

- Values and value label:
- 5 Always
 - 4 Often
 - 3 Sometimes
 - 2 Seldom
 - 1 Never

Variable name: Only_SMTi

Variable Label: My school is a place where only the SMT is taking initiatives

- Values and value label:
- 5 Always
 - 4 Often
 - 3 Sometimes
 - 2 Seldom

1 Never