

**INTERROGATING TEACHER LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT
THROUGH A FORMATIVE INTERVENTION: A CASE STUDY
IN A RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOL IN NORTHERN NAMIBIA**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

(Educational Leadership and Management)

of

RHODES UNIVERSITY

by

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February 2018

Declaration

I, DAVID KANDIWAPA IYAMBO, hereby declare that this thesis is my own work written in my own words and it has not been submitted for any degree in any other university. Where I have drawn on the words and ideas of others, these have been acknowledged by using references according to the Rhodes University Education Department Guide to Referencing.



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Signature

06 December 2017

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Date

Abstract

The Namibian education system has undergone major policy shifts from a ‘top-down’ hierarchical leadership practice to a more shared and democratic form of leadership in schools. These policies compel principals and school management team members to involve level-one teachers in decision-making and other leadership roles within their schools and beyond. However, to this end, the goals envisaged by policies for teachers to participate in, and contribute to the overall school leadership activities and decision-making have not been fully realised. This was due to the inherent hierarchy of the ‘top-down’ system and autocratic leadership style which remains powerful within the current school practice.

Against this backdrop, this study interrogated how teacher leadership can be developed in a rural Secondary School in northern Namibia. The underlying cultural-historical conditions that promoted or constrained teacher leadership development were surfaced. Opportunities for changes in leadership practices through a formative intervention were developed. Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) was utilised as a theoretical and analytical framework in this study together with Grant’s Model of Teacher Leadership (2006; 2008; 2010). Five level-one teachers, two school management members and a school board chairperson were selected as research participants by means of a purposive sampling method. Furthermore, the study used document analysis, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires and change laboratory workshops as main tools for data generation.

The findings revealed that participants understood the concept of teacher leadership differently and that teachers in the case study school were leading in all four zones of teacher leadership model (Grant, 2006; 2008; 2012) although their roles differed. However, the study also found that teacher leadership development was mostly intensified by managerial structures. It appeared from the findings of this study that conditions such as the role of the school management team (SMT) members in promoting teacher leadership development, a supportive organisational culture, and provision of learning support amongst staff members through the attendance of workshops emerged as factors promoting the development of teachers as leaders.

The study also revealed that there were many cultural and historical tensions that constrained the practice of teacher leadership development in school. Thus, the study argues that limited leadership training and an inherent ‘top-down’ hierarchical style of leadership was the main underlying systemic causes that constrained teachers to be developed as leaders. Through the change laboratory workshops, the findings suggested that there was a need for continuous professional development initiatives and leadership training, as alternative way for the realisation of teacher leadership development. Finally, a recommendation that leadership aspects should be constituted in pre-and in-service professional development training as an ongoing practice is made.

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I want to declare that “*The LORD is my shepherd; I shall not want*” (Psalm 23: 1) and I therefore, thank HIM for his guidance, protection, mercy and love that followed and lead me throughout my research journey. Lord, I praise you.

I would like to express my profound gratitude toward the strongest and dedicated team, *TEAMNO SLEEP*.

- Firstly, a singular credit is extended to Ms. Farhana Kajee, my main supervisor for your time, patience, tolerance and regular feedback. Thank you for being there when I needed you the most. You are the best. To my co-supervisors, Professor Carolyn ‘Callie’ Grant and Professor Hennie Van der Mescht ‘Uncle’, thank you for the unwavering continuous support and meticulous guidance throughout this academic journey.
- Secondly, my course-mates, Tomas aka TK, Selma, Vistorina, Loide, sister Linda, Da Silva, Klaudia, Bertha and Jackie, thank you all for your unwavering support throughout the year. Yes, we have made it. May you all reap the rewards of your hard work.
- Mr. Robert Kraft, thank you for your fatherly role during my stay in Grahamstown. God bless you. Gaus, Godfrey, Linus, Joy and Naftal, thank you all.

I am further indebted to the following individuals:

- Firstly, my colleagues at Amakali Combined School, under the leadership of Mrs. Paulina Iyambo, for taking up my subjects and all leadership roles within the school during my continued absence.
- Secondly, I want to thank the community of Dundee (pseudonym) Senior secondary school for providing a home for my study as well as for providing quality data for this research. Without your participation and fruitful contribution, this study would not be successful.

Special appreciation rendered to my family:

- My wife Queen Elizabeth, the iron lady, for her unconditional love, support and encouragement. Thank you darling for taking care of our family. I owe this study to you.

- My children, siblings, my parents and the entire family, thank you for all you have done.
- My stove family, Hon. I-Ben Nashandi, and all friends, for you all, I have done it.

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to the Iyambo family, who have always encouraged academic excellence. This seventh master's degree amongst us bears testimony to the commitment of the academic project.

To my lovely wife, Queen Elizabeth, my children, especially Luiz Tulela, who was born while I was away from home completing this thesis, you have been my source of courage and inspiration. I dedicate this thesis to you all as a motivation for your own studies in the future. Let the sky be the limit.

To my parents, meme Emilia '*Okatana-Gweefuta*' and tate Sakaria Indongo '*Okwaito*' Iyambo, a special dedication goes to you for sending us to school and always encouraging us to study diligently. You will forever remain our inspiration in our lifetime quest. May the Lord, God continue blessing you.

List of Acronyms

CHAT	–	CULTURAL HISTORICAL ACTIVITY THEORY
CL	–	CHANGE LABORATORY
CPD	–	CONTINUOUS PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
DL	–	DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP
DWR	–	DEVELOPMENTAL WORK RESEARCH
ELM	–	EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT
HOD	–	HEAD OF DEPARTMENT
PAAI	–	PLAN OF ACTION FOR ACADEMIC IMPROVEMENT
SBC	–	SCHOOL BOARD CHAIRPERSON
SCM	–	STUDENT CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT
SDP	–	SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT PLAN
SMT	–	SCHOOL MANAGEMENT TEAM
SSE	–	SCHOOL SELF-EVALUATION
SWOT	–	STRENGTH WEAKNESS OPPORTUNITY THREATS
TSE	–	TEACHER SELF-EVALUATION

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

This chapter, which serves as an introduction to my thesis, presents to the reader an overview of my study that focuses on ‘teacher leadership development’. I begin by describing the rationale which highlights the significance of conducting this study and the contextual background of the study. Thereafter, I introduce the reader to the purpose of this research, as well as to the questions that guide this study. Following that, this chapter further presents the main concepts and the theoretical framework underpinning the study in order to make a vivid link with the world of other writers and scholars in the field. I then present a brief description of the research orientation, and end the chapter with an outline of the thesis. Against this backdrop, my attention now turns to the rationale of my study.

1.2 Rationale for undertaking the study

In 2011, I was given an opportunity to act as a principal for a period of six months. It was during this time that I started exploring the issue of exposing teachers to some form of leadership and management of schools, especially by involving them in decision-making. Decision-making was done collaboratively, and I could see the merits of this practice. I began to believe that school leadership was a collective phenomenon. Based on my experience as a school principal, I believe that teachers are very important in the management of the school because they hold positions of authority in their classrooms. Furthermore, a teacher is viewed as an agent of change, an initiator, and a chief contributor and leading tool towards complete school development (Namibia. Ministry of Education and Culture [MEC], 1993). Moreover, the National Report on Education (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2004, p. 6) states also that teachers “were seen to be both agents and implementers of change, and thus had to be prepared adequately for the task”, so it is important to “develop teachers as leaders for leading change in schools” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 61). Similarly, it is also “important to work with them on changing their beliefs, attitudes and

practice” (Namibia. MoE, 2005, p. 14). However, it was equally clear to me that at a certain level, teachers were not always ready to take up leadership roles, which presents a greater challenge in developing them as such.

In 2014, I attended a Continuous Professional Development (CPD) conference, hosted by the CPD unit of the University of Namibia, where a presentation on distributed leadership (DL) was given. This stimulated my interest in exploring the notion of teacher leadership through a distributed perspective. According to Harris and Spillane (2008, p. 31), a distributed perspective on leadership “acknowledges the work of all individuals who contribute to leadership practice, whether or not they are formally designated or defined as leaders”. However, it is evident from much of the international literature that “educational administration that was evolving into educational leadership had little or no place for research on teacher leadership” (Crowther, Ferguson, & Hann, 2009, p. viii). In Namibia for example, many leadership studies conducted focused on school principals; very few studies were done on teacher leadership (Nauyoma-Hamupembe, 2011; Hashikutuva, 2011; Uiseb, 2012; Zokka, 2012; Hanghuwo, 2014; Hamatwi, 2015). Furthermore, these Namibian teacher leadership studies centered on understanding and raising awareness of the phenomenon, and I saw the need for the interrogation of ‘how’ teacher leadership could be developed in school.

1.3 Contextual background of the study

Before Namibia attained her independence, the education system and school leadership were characterised by a ‘top-down’ hierarchical and authoritarian style of leadership, and management structure (Nauyoma-Hamupembe, 2011, p. 1). In addition, “acute discrimination, inequalities and tensions” (Namibia. MEC, 1993, p. 19), in terms of power representation and decision-making, were the order of the day. In line with this thought, Nyambe and Griffiths (1999, p. 5) argue that:

Hierarchical and authoritarian management structures in certain institutions have also tended to create and perpetuate dependency as those staff members occupying lower levels in the hierarchy have always depended on initiatives and decisions to come from the top. Independent thinking, critical decision-making and bottom-up initiatives have been stifled by top-down hierarchical structures.

Since the legacy of ‘top-down’ hierarchy and discrimination were the daily practice within the education system, it was necessary for the new government “to begin reforming the education system immediately” (Namibia. MEC, 1993, p. 19) after independence.

Since independence in 1990, the Namibian government has taken major steps towards addressing previous inequalities through policies and legislation (Namibia. Namibia Vision 2030, 2004, p. 31) namely *Toward Education for All* (1993), the *Decentralisation Policy* (1998), *Education Act, Act 16 of 2001* (Namibia. 2001), ETSIP (Namibia. 2005), and the *National Professional Standards for Teachers* (Namibia, 2006). In addressing the issue of democracy and participation for all, authority and responsibility were relocated from the central level to regional and local levels by means of decentralisation (Namibia. MEC, 1993, p. 169). Decentralisation in the school context means to enhance and guarantee democratic participation for level-one teachers in order to bring about change (Namibia. MRLH, 1998, p. 10). Furthermore, policies indicate that “principals should involve teachers in decision-making in the execution of the activities as prescribed in the School Development Plan” (Namibia. MEC, 2008a, p. 9). Based on these policies, the educational system in Namibia therefore promotes the participation of teachers in decision-making in matters pertaining to schooling (Hanghuwo, 2014). Similar to this claim, the policy document ‘National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia’ (2006, p. 77) explains that teachers should:

participate in school decision-making structures and processes. Furthermore, this area of competence addresses the leader/manager role of the teacher, rather than the formal post appointment. Teachers often have other involvements and life experiences which equip them with leadership skills.

In essence, this policy does not only make provision for teachers to lead in their classrooms, but also compels them to take up leadership roles in the whole school (Uiseb, 2012). However, to this end, the goals envisaged by these policies that call for teachers’ ability to participate in, and contribute to, school leadership activities and make major decisions, have not been fully realised (Namibia. MEC, 2005). Therefore, there is a need for research on how teachers and school management members can develop leadership amongst teachers. For example, studies based in Namibia by Hanghuwo (2014) and Hamatwi (2015), suggest that more extensive research needs to be carried out to explore teacher leadership practices among the stakeholders at different phases

in the schooling system, and in different environments (urban or semi-urban) to find out if those practices are distributed.

1.4 Purpose of the study, research questions and potential value of the study

This study seeks to interrogate how teacher leadership can be developed in a rural school in northern Namibia, through a formative intervention. Moreover, the study aims at surfacing the underlying causes that promote or constrain teacher leadership development in a school, and then pursues identifying ways of creating opportunities for changes within the attitudes of participants, through an intervention.

In order to attain these research goals, the following questions guided me throughout this study:

- (1) How is teacher leadership development understood by teachers and the school management team (SMT) members?
- (2) What leadership roles do teachers currently fulfill?
- (3) What are the conditions that promote or constrain teacher leadership in the school?
- (4) How can teacher leadership be developed through Change Laboratories?

This study is of value in that it anticipates contributing to the global body of knowledge on the notion of teacher leadership. Moreover, it hopes to inform policy makers, education officials, school principals, teachers, and other stakeholders about the importance of shared leadership in terms of decision-making and participation for holistic school development. Finally, through Change Laboratory workshops, the study anticipates bringing about changes to teacher leadership development practices within the school and beyond.

1.5 Conceptual framework

Distributed leadership and teacher leadership are the key concepts underpinning this study. It is argued that predominantly, leadership is currently “locked into management structures” and the need for distribution of leadership roles to all staff is vital for school development (Hatcher, 2005, p. 255). Hence, a distributed leadership perspective acknowledges that “there are multiple leaders” (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004, p. 16), and leadership activities are “widely shared within and between organisations” (Harris, 2007, p. 321) in order to bring about change. I believe that a distributed perspective of leadership is an ideal conceptual framework for my study on teacher leadership development, because it “can be used as a frame to help researchers decide what to look at when they investigate leadership” (Spillane, 2006, p. 10). Therefore, a distributed view of leadership requires schools to ‘de-centre’ from the individual as a leader (Gronn, 2002), and to subscribe to the view that leadership resides in every person (level-one teachers – my focus) from the entry level upward, not merely in the individual (principal or SMT) at the top of the hierarchy (Goleman, 2002, p. 14).

Although distributed leadership as a theory in practice has been growing in popularity in recent studies, I am aware of the critiques of the theory. For example, Lumby (2013) strongly criticises distributed leadership when she points out that it is naïve to think that leadership can be distributed, because power and authority is a central tenet of leadership (Strydom, 2017).

Teacher leadership is a relatively new concept in the field (especially in Namibia). The literature reveals that there are multiple definitions of teacher leadership from different writers across the globe. Thus, there is no singular definition of this concept. Wasley (1991, p. 23) defines teacher leadership as “the ability to encourage colleagues to change, to do things they wouldn’t ordinarily consider without the influence of the leader”. Muijs and Harris (2003) explain that “teacher leadership is centrally and exclusively concerned with the idea that all organisational members can lead, and that leadership is a form of agency that can be distributed or shared” (p. 440). Moreover, teacher leadership is also defined as “a form of leadership beyond headship or formal position. ... it refers to teachers becoming aware and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond” (Grant, 2008, p. 186). Furthermore, she argues that if leadership is

conceptualised as the process which “works towards movement and change” in a school, then it “stands to reason that teacher leaders are those teachers who work towards movement and change in their classrooms and schools” (2008, p. 53). In this way, leadership could be understood as “fluid and emergent, rather than a fixed phenomenon” (Gronn, 2000, p. 324). This notion highlights how teacher leadership aligns to a distributed perspective. Although definitions may vary, the central focus remains within a distributive perspective.

Since teacher leadership development and distribution of leadership is likely to vary depending on the historical, cultural, and institutional settings in which it is situated (Grant, Gardner, Kajee, Moodley, & Somaroo, 2010), I deemed it necessary to use Cultural Historical Activity Theory, herein referred to as CHAT, as a theoretical and analytical framework which I discuss below.

1.6 Theoretical framing of this study

In this study, I draw on Engeström’s (1999) second generation CHAT as a theoretical and analytical framework. This is because CHAT has a transformative agenda (Engeström, 2000) and the potential to surface contradictions and their systemic causes that may hinder the development of teachers as leaders. For Gronn (2003), schools are object orientated systems, and CHAT could be a useful/ideal theoretical framework in which to study teacher leadership development, in such an environment (Knott-Craig, 2017, p. 109). Central to CHAT are contradictions that can be defined as “historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity systems” (Engeström, 2001, p. 137), which have transformative power and a significant effect on organisational change (Engeström & Sannino, 2011). In the process of surfacing the tensions and contradictions that constrain teacher leadership development, CHAT was particularly useful. Within CHAT is the theory of expansive learning, which is defined as “a creative type of learning in which learners (in my case, the level-one teachers) join their forces to literally create something novel, essentially learning something that does not yet exist” (Sannino, Engeström, & Lemos, 2016, p. 7). This theory is presented in detail in Chapter Two.

Cultural-Historical Activity Theory has from the very beginning been an activist and interventionist approach (Sannino, 2011). I therefore, found it necessary to locate this study within a formative intervention approach, in a qualitative case study tradition.

1.7 Research orientation

This study is oriented within a formative intervention approach while taking a critical stance. A formative intervention is defined as “a purposeful action by a human agent to create change” (Engeström, 2009, p. 325). Connole (1998, p. 14) argues that an intervention approach, while sharing features of the critical stance, adds a further dimension which focuses on the potential for understandings of human actions to be changed”. My reason for using this approach is that it aligns well with CHAT, the theoretical framework of this study, due to their shared transformative agenda.

The literature defines a case study as “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances” (Stake, 1995, p. x). Rule and John (2011) further define a case study as “a systematic and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in its context in order to generate knowledge” (p. 4). I adapted a qualitative case study approach because teacher leadership development is indeed an example of a case from multiple cases in a real-life circumstance within a school context.

A range of data collection tools are used for this study. These are, document analysis, semi-structured interviews, questionnaires, observation, and Change Laboratory workshops. The purpose of using multiple methods for data collection is that the limitation and shortfall of one method may be complemented by one or more of the others. Briggs, Coleman and Morrison (2012, p. 87) argue that the use of multi-methods links to the notion of triangulation that strengthens the validity and worthwhileness of the findings. Chapter Three provides a full account of my research methodological processes.

The next section provides a structural overview of each chapter, and its role in the study towards achieving the research objectives and ultimately answering the research questions.

1.8 Thesis outline

My thesis has six chapters. In this chapter, the introduction chapter, I presented to the reader an overview of my thesis.

In Chapter Two, I review the literature around the notion of leadership with the key focus on distributed leadership and teacher leadership as the main concepts. The first section of this chapter presents the evolution of leadership theories and how they culminated into distributed leadership, which is the focal conceptual framework used to understand teacher leadership development. Thereafter, the chapter also presents teacher leadership (development) as a concept which is the main focus of the study. Here, I draw mostly on the work of Grant and Harris. Finally, I also discuss how Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) frames this study.

Chapter Three discusses the research orientation and methodological approach that guided the research process. The chapter also describes the research site, research participants, and how they were selected. I further explain to the reader how I used document analysis, questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, observation, and Change Laboratory workshops to generate data for this study. Thereafter, I discuss how I analysed the data while ensuring the validity and trustworthiness of my study. The chapter concludes with a discussion on how I gained access to the research site as well as how I maintained and upheld research ethics.

In Chapter Four, I present a detailed account of the raw data that answered my first two research questions, including conditions that promoted teacher leadership development in the school as generated from the employed tools. Themes that emerged were discussed using Grant's Model while drawing on distributed leadership theory as explained in Chapter Two.

Chapter Five presents and discusses data using the CHAT lens. Contradictions that emerged and their possible underlying systemic causes are highlighted. Moreover, data from two Change Laboratory workshops are also presented as solutions to those contradictions.

In the final chapter of my thesis, Chapter Six, I summarise the key findings in relation to the research purpose and questions as presented in Chapter Four and Five, respectively. Finally, I present the value of this study and make recommendations for practice, as well as possibilities of further research on the notion under study.

With the research structure and outline presented, my attention now turns to Chapter Two, the literature review chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of the literature pertinent to the phenomenon under study and to discuss key tenets of Cultural Historical Activity Theory which is the theoretical framework underpinning this study. The first section of this chapter commences with the discussion of the evolution of leadership theories, from the trait theory to distributed leadership. This is to understand the historical links between these theories, and how these theories have influenced the development of teachers as leaders. In the second section, the chapter examines the notion of distributed leadership and its practice in schools. The reason for examining distributed leadership is two-fold: firstly, this research is framed within a distributed leadership concept. Secondly, distributed leadership practice is currently a theory that manifests and encourages teacher leadership.

The third section reviews and discusses the concept of teacher leadership drawing from earlier research findings and other discoveries on the same notion. Moreover, Grant's (2006; 2008; 2010) 'Model of Teacher Leadership Zones' is used to help unpack the current practice of teacher leadership development within the school. In the final section, this chapter discusses how Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) will be used as a main theoretical framework for my study. This theory is chosen because it is a good fit with my research focus in that it has a transformational agenda. Against this backdrop, my attention now turns to the evolution of leadership theories.

2.2 Evolution of leadership theories: From trait to distributed leadership theory

The current school leadership practice is still in one way or another being influenced by different leadership theories, although those theories keep evolving (Christie, 2010). Therefore, there is a need to understand the history of this evolution and to what extent it influences the current leadership practices. In attempting the above, this section provides a review on the historical

background of how leadership theories developed over the years and also outlines the link between different leadership theories from the trait theory to distributed leadership theory, the current perspective of leadership. The literature indicates that leadership theories have evolved over the past 100 years and that they keep evolving as the world changes. Moreover, literature on leadership, regardless of tradition, has focused mostly on those in formal leadership positions, such as chief executive officers or principals, in the case of schools (Spillane, 2003, p. 6).

Literature reveals that trait leadership theory tended to be identified with the qualities of the individual and it implied that “leaders are not made but born” (Coleman, 2005, p. 9). Those qualities were based on personal traits such as power, charisma, confidence, intelligence and other skills (*ibid.*) that an individual portrayed. Similarly, Northouse (2007, p. 25) contributes by stating that “they were called “great man” theories because they focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political, and military leaders ... it was believed that people are born with those traits, and that only the “great” people possessed them”. Due to the central focus of individual inborn qualities, trait theory was criticised from not focusing on different angles such as training and development that play a major role in leadership to-date. Therefore, it was because of these challenges and criticisms that culminated in a pivotal point where the focus shifted from an individual focus to a situational and contingency type of leadership.

Unlike the trait theory that focused on quality or qualities within an individual, situational and contingency leadership theories focused mostly on human relations and the situation within the organisation. Although there are claims that situational and contingency leadership theories have made little contribution to the leadership literature (Graeff, 1983, p. 290), the fact remains that the two theories brought a big shift in the search for understanding leadership, from a positivist to an interpretivist perspective. In support of the above, Coleman (2005, p. 10) maintains that the leader does not operate in isolation but will be affected by his/her circumstances. Circumstances in this case involve the followers, culture, behaviour, attitudes and the social being of the organisation – the school. However, if the situation and behaviour can be modified, then the two leadership theories might be favourable for a leader to excel in any situation (Graeff, 1983). Meanwhile,

Burns (1978) noted a need for transformational leadership that focused on how people felt and how they thought. I now discuss this below.

Coleman (2005) suggests that transformational leadership should be seen in terms of its relationship with transactional leadership (p. 16). However, literature does not imply that transformational and transactional leadership are one thing per-se, but that they are interrelated. Bass (1985, p. 154) points out a distinction by saying “transformation leadership is more likely to reflect social values and to emerge in times of distress and change while transactional leadership is more likely to be observed in a well-ordered society”. Another example of transactional leadership theory, is that of Coleman (2005, p. 16), who states that it is identified as a contract between the leader and the led, in which the leader will look after the interest of the led as long as they carry out their contractual duties. This implies that the leader-follower’s relations are maintained on a series of exchanges or implicit bargaining between a leader and follower (Kwinda, 2010, p. 17).

In summary, literature on transformational and transactional leadership stresses the development of new learning opportunities within a supportive climate, where individual differences in needs is recognised, interaction with followers is personalised, tasks are delegated, awards are given and punishment and use of power is avoided, and supportive monitoring is offered (Coleman, 2005, p. 17). In a school context, transformational and transactional leadership is evident through strategic plans and missions, and other activities such as mentoring, coaching, rewards and refresher training are being used not only to transform or change schools, but also teachers themselves.

Unlike the traditional and contemporary leadership theories that are premised upon an “individual managing hierarchical systems and structure” (Zokka, 2012, p. 14), a distributed perspective of leadership focuses on shared practice, placing a greater emphasis upon teachers, support staff and students as leaders (Harris & Spillane, 2008, p. 31). This means that in a school context, distributed leadership shifts from viewing leadership of a school from the principal, to leadership as a collective practice (Coleman, 2005, p. 10). In the next section, I review literature on distributed leadership as a leadership theory and a framework for the study under review.

2.3 Towards an understanding of distributed leadership

As discussed in the conceptual framework in Chapter One of this study, the notion of leadership as a ‘distributed’ phenomenon has gained much admiration and growing empirical support in recent studies as a preferred theoretical framework that views leadership as a ‘shared’ practice (Harris, 2003, p. 1). I also concur that a distributed perspective on leadership is an ideal frame for my study on teacher leadership because it “can be used as a frame to help researchers decide what to look at when they investigate leadership” (Spillane, 2006, p. 10). Henceforth, this section draws on earlier studies and available literature on this phenomenon as a lens through which teacher leadership is viewed.

Being a school principal for the past five years, I would argue that running a school is not a one-man show, especially if we are to talk about holistic school development and performance due to the complexity of its systems. In line with this experience, I concur with Spillane (2006, p. 21) who mentions that “the school principal does not have a monopoly on school leadership; teachers, administrators and other professionals also play important leadership roles”. Therefore, a need for distributed leadership will be required in schools in order to “cross multiple types of boundaries and share ideas and insights” (Harris & Spillane, 2008, p. 31) to meet changing challenges and new demands. This notion of distributed leadership as a conceptual and theoretical framework aligns with my study which focuses on understanding teacher leadership development. Hereunder, I begin by defining distributed leadership as a concept.

2.3.1 Defining distributed leadership

Literature reveals that distributed leadership has gained popularity as the preferred (not perfect) theoretical framework and a leading concept in most recent studies on school leadership. This popularity has led to different writers viewing the concept differently and defining it according to their contexts. For example, Harris (2008, p. 173) points out that “empirical studies of distributed leadership are still in relatively short supply, there is evidence from which we can draw upon to reach some tentative conclusions about distributed leadership and organisational change”.

Nevertheless, different writers seem to agree on one point – that distributed leadership can be a shared or spread throughout the organisation (Zokka, 2012). In line with this, Spillane (2006, p. 3) defines distributed leadership as “more than shared leadership”. He continues by clarifying that distributed leadership acknowledges that there are “multiple individuals taking responsibility for leadership” (p. 3). This indicates that there is a leader ‘principal’, plus other leaders ‘teachers’ at work within the school. In relation to the point of ‘multiple individuals’ as leaders, Harris and Spillane (2008) also argue that “a distributed perspective on leadership acknowledges the work of all individuals who contribute to leadership practice, whether or not they are formally designated or defined as leaders” (p. 31). The point here is that all staff members have a role to play regardless of their position within an organisation, in this case, a school.

On the other hand, distributed leadership is defined by Lumby (2013, p. 583) as “potentially replacing previous forms of leadership that are critiqued negatively in relation to the ethics and or efficacy, such as heroic, charismatic, collegial, top-down and transactional, with a novel kind of leadership”. To cement this argument, Harris and Spillane (2008, p. 31) state that “the model of the singular, heroic leader is at last being replaced with leadership that is focused upon teams rather than individuals and places a greater emphasis upon the teacher, support staff and students as leaders”. Hence, distributed leadership calls for collective leadership as a practice.

From another angle, some writers have defined distributed leadership as having power representation (Harris and Spillane, 2008,). In support of this argument, Moos, Hargreaves, Fink and Southworth (2003) explain that distributed leadership is about making others powerful and about sharing leadership across the school. The point here is that, when leadership is distributed amongst all members of an organisation there seems to be “empirical power that can make a positive difference to the organisational development” and “it reflects current changes in leadership practice in schools” (Harris & Spillane, 2008, p. 32). I therefore believe that empowered members of an organisation have all it takes to change their organisation by working collaboratively and exercising their expertise. Relating to the issue of empowerment, Woods, Bennett, Harvey and Wise (2004, p. 449) stress that “distributed leadership is concerned with how

an organisation constrains or enables different organisational members to take initiatives and contribute to the development of practice”.

In conclusion of this section, I found these definitions of distributed leadership useful for my data analysis later in Chapter Four of this study. Finally, much discussion in this section has been centred on the definition of distributed leadership and I now turn my attention to distributed leadership as a ‘practice’.

2.3.2 Distributed leadership in practice

My study ought to invoke teacher leadership development opportunities in school. I believe leadership can only be developed when there is a distribution of leadership activities amongst individuals within their context of practice. Of late, literature reveals that distributed leadership has become the “normatively preferred leadership model in the twenty-first century, replacing collegiality as the favoured approach” (Bush, 2011, p. 88). Therefore, a distributed leadership perspective is used as a framework for this study, where teacher leadership is manifested. According to Spillane (2006, p. 10), a distributed perspective on leadership “is best thought of as a framework for thinking about and analysing leadership” and a distributed perspective on leadership “can be used as a frame to help researchers decide what to look at when they investigate leadership” (*ibid.*, p. 10). Spillane further explains that “a distributed leadership perspective is first and foremost about leadership practice” (*ibid.*, p.3). Moreover, he goes on to posit that “leadership practice typically involves more than one person – if not by design, than by default and by necessity” (*ibid.*, p. 26).

Distribution of leadership is understood in a school environment in terms of leadership activities, as being shared among teachers and administrators which occur in the form of an “interaction of school leaders, followers and aspects of their situation in the execution of particular leadership tasks” (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004, p. 10). The following figure exemplifies the interactions of distributed leadership practice over time.

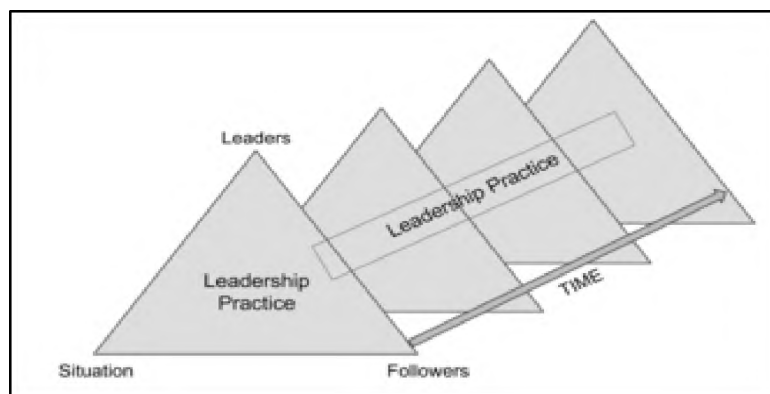


Figure 2.1: A distributed leadership practice (adapted from Spillane, 2006)

This figure shows that leadership practice is not a once-off thing, but it is an ongoing process of interaction between leaders, followers and their situation. It is further emphasised that “this distributed view of leadership shifts from school principals and other formal and informal leaders to the web of leaders, followers and their situations that gives form to leadership practice” (Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004, p. 10).

In a different dimension, literature on distributed leadership centred on ‘*how*’ leadership was *distributed* within a school. Spillane, Diamond, Sherer and Coldren (2005, p. 16), share the same sentiment by pointing out that “our distributed perspective focuses on how leadership practice is distributed among positional and informal leaders as well as their followers”. In line with this, it is believed that “distributed leadership is often normatively preferred as it is better for leadership to be shared rather than to be vested in one person” (Coleman, 2005, 10) and this can only happen in practice. I also align with this line of thinking that affirms that “we argue that the social distribution of leadership means more than acknowledging the division or duplication of labour ... although that is an important aspect ... in the enactment of leadership functions and tasks” (Spillane et al., 2005, p. 16).

Since a distributed perspective of leadership practice can be dispersed in multiple ways, Gronn (2003, p. 35) refers to “leadership practice being stretched over the school”, using this example:

when sets of two or more individuals with different skill and abilities, perhaps from across different organisational levels, pool their expertise and regularise their conduct to solve a problem, after which they may disband.

This implies that “school leaders cultivate collaborative cultures among teachers by setting tasks that involves teachers working together” (Spillane, 2006, p. 5). In this manner, distribution of leadership activities does not mean mere delegation, but it is part of the day-to-day practice that includes well defined leadership roles. However, “the exact design of roles and functions is not the priority when distributing leadership, but the attention should be given to the underlying principles of distributed expertise, mutual dependence, reciprocity of accountability and the centrality of instructional practice to the definition of leadership” (Harris, 2002, p. 5).

Another issue I find necessary for discussion is the *‘why’* leadership activities be distributed among individuals in the school. Literature discloses that the main focus of distributed views of leadership is that “there are multiple leaders” (Spillane et al., 2004) and leadership activities are “widely shared within and between organisations” (Harris, 2007). Hence, the focus here is to shift leadership from an individual to a shared practice. In this line, Storey (2004, p. 252) summarises this shift by expressing that:

the fundamental premise advanced by proponents of the concept of distributed leadership is that leadership activities should not be accreted into the hands of a sole individual but, on the contrary, they should be shared between a number of people in an organisation or team.

This summary in my view emphasises that a distributed view of leadership recognises that leading a school requires numerous leaders. Spillane also contributes to this argument by asserting that “leadership is more than what individuals in formal leadership positions do. So individually or collectively, teachers take on leadership responsibilities, including mentoring peers and providing professional development” (2006, p. 13).

As a principal, I believe that distributed leadership practice is ideal for school changes and improvement, because every member of the school collectively contributes in one way or another. In this regard, Harris and Spillane (2008, p. 31) posit that “as schools engage with complex

collaborative arrangements, distributed forms of leadership will be required to cross multiple types of boundaries and to share ideas and insights”.

From another angle, the literature also has shown some justifications for ‘*why*’ distributed leadership has become so noticeable in recent leadership studies. For example, Lumby (2013, p. 583) discerns that “first, achieving the engagement of a wider group of staff is more effective in implementing change, and secondly, the skills and experience of more diverse people are necessary to create successful leadership”. I therefore believe that when leadership is distributed, the main issue here is the creation of wider opportunities, “implying that those opportunities are open to all or even equal” (*ibid.*, p. 583).

Finally, from my experience, I believe that there is stagnation of the hierarchical traits, inherited from the colonial way of school administration, within most current leaders (principals and SMTs). Alluding to this point, Bush (2011, p. 90) argues that “there are inherent threats to the status quo in all that distributed leadership implies”. In the school environment, this implies that the seniority within the hierarchy of the ‘top-down’ system remains powerful and in that way, principals might be reluctant to distribute leadership to teachers because they “may feel threatened” (*ibid.*). Hence, a traditional way of viewing leadership is believed to be one of the inhibiting factors of distributed leadership practice. I also acknowledge that there are many other factors that inhibit distribution of leadership and I discuss these in the next section as limitations and critiques of distributed leadership practice.

2.3.3 Limitations and critiques of distributed leadership

Harris and Spillane (2008, p. 32) argue that “while the idea of distributed leadership is popular, there are some limitations that are worth highlighting”. The critique commences with the definition that “different terms are used interchangeably to refer to distributed leadership, resulting in both conceptual confusion and conceptual overlap” (*ibid.*, p. 32). Adding to this, Wright (2008, p. 1) also claims that “although distributed leadership provides a theoretically-grounded framework to examine leadership practice, the concept is relatively new, lacks a widely-accepted definition, and

has a limited empirical research base”. Hence, defining distributed leadership has been viewed as a limitation and a form of critique in the literature.

On the other hand, another limitation resides in the inherent tension between school principals and governing policies. According to Van der Mescht and Tyala (as cited in Hamatwi, 2015, p. 21), if leadership is distributed to all in the school “some school heads may strongly feel that in the end they are the ones who are accountable to the external authorities and therefore remain holding on for fear of losing control and end up failing as individuals and as a team”. Hence, the traditional managerial hierarchy could be a stumbling block to distributed leadership practice. In line with this, Gunter asserts that “at school level the current popular term among researchers is distributed leadership, but, in fact, power is being distributed upward by centralising policy over curriculum and instruction through high-stakes testing and mayoral control” (2005, p. 521).

Another notable criticism is that of Wright (2008, p. 10) who suggests that “principals can be barriers to distributing leadership by: (a) holding tightly to power and control, (b) refraining from nurturing alternate leaders, and (c) choosing to involve only those who support their agenda”. I agree with this argument that some principals are using the issue of ‘accountability’ not to distribute leadership and may also want to maintain the hierarchical status quo.

To facilitate the shift into distributed leadership practice in schools, Hatcher (2005) asserts that “predominantly, leadership is currently locked into management structures. If we are to achieve distributive leadership models, we must therefore redesign the internal architecture of schools” (p. 255). The point here is that we need to get away from the managerial hierarchy in order to create opportunities where leadership can be distributed to the body of teachers within a school, by creating a non-hierarchical network of collaborative learning alongside, and separate from, the hierarchical structure of power (*ibid.*). With this idea of distributing leadership to the body of teachers in a school in mind, I move on to the concept of teacher leadership, being the focal point of my study, which is a form of distributed leadership.

2.4 Teacher leadership as a central concept of this study

As stated earlier, distributed leadership theory advocates that schools ‘de-centre’ from a leader as an individual and subscribe to view leadership as a shared practice (Gronn, 2000). This study focuses on teacher leadership development in schools, as a way of de-centring leadership from an individual perspective to a shared practice. In achieving both holistic school and classroom improvement, teacher leadership has been shown to be centrally important (Muijs & Harris, 2003, p. 440). Additionally, Danielson (2007) stresses that all good schools have teachers whose vision extends beyond their own classrooms, even beyond their own teams or departments and they value the interactions with students and colleagues at their school and in the district.

Although the concept of teacher leadership has received much attention lately, literature reveals that more has been done internationally in this regard. This means that only a few studies on teacher leadership have been conducted locally (Hashikutuva, 2011, Nauyoma-Hamupembe, 2012, Zokka, 2012, Uiseb, 2012, Hanghuwo, 2014; Hamatwi, 2015), referring to the Namibian context. With this understanding, teacher leadership development opportunities need to be explored further, thus a need for this study. I now begin to discuss teacher leadership as a focal concept and area of this study.

2.4.1 Definition of teacher leadership

Various writers have defined the concept teacher leadership differently based on their context and interest. Thus, there exists various definitions of this complex concept. This is evidenced by the literature that indicates that teacher leadership is a broad and complex concept to define (Muijs & Harris, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004; Grant, 2005; Grant, 2006). Hence, literature reveals that there seems to be multiple definitions of teacher leadership from different writers across the globe. For example, Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 438) assert that there is “overlapping and competing definitions of the term teacher leadership”, and this may bring some conceptual misperception over the exact meaning of the term.

However, there seems to be a common focal point within those definitions, that teacher leadership is about taking up roles ‘within’ and ‘beyond’ their classrooms. For example, Grant (2008, p. 186)

highlights that teacher leadership is “a form of leadership beyond headship or formal position. It refers to teachers becoming aware and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond”. On the other hand, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p. 17) explain that “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”. From these definitions, I also agree that teacher leadership is a broad concept and there are overlapping ideas around the concept, making it confusing, if not well understood.

Grant (2008, p. 186) asserts that teacher leadership “includes teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders towards a shared and dynamic vision of their school within a culture of fairness, inclusion, mutual respect and trust”. Similarly, Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson and Hann (2002) also argue similarly and explain that “teacher leadership is about action that transforms teaching and learning in a school, ties the school and community together on behalf of learning, and advances social sustainability and quality of life for a community”. Also, teacher leadership requires that teachers become full partners in school-based planning, decision-making, and assessment (Ingram & Fessler, 1997, pp. 1-7). Arguably, teacher leadership is more than shared leadership in the way that it paves the way for school-community relationships, it builds trust among staff members and enhances a sense of ownership.

Literature highlights that teacher leadership is not about gaining a formal position, but it is about exercising expertise embedded within individuals for the development of an organisation. In line with this thinking, Lawrence suggests that “teacher leadership refers to more than positional leadership in schools ... it is about taking up formal and informal leadership roles in schools to create a more stimulating and productive work environment” (2010, p. 20). Defined as a complex phenomenon, teacher leadership involves a number of roles within the school and its community. According to York-Barr and Duke (2004), “teacher leadership is practiced through a variety of formal and informal positions, roles, and channels of communication in the daily work of schools. ... serving in formal leadership positions, such as union representatives, department heads, curriculum specialists, mentors, or members of a site-based management team” (p. 263). This is a

clear indication that teacher leadership is not about carrying out formal leadership roles, but goes beyond that.

With the idea of developing a systematic understanding within the organisation, teacher leaders should be ready to adjust and change their behaviour, for them to carry out additional leadership roles. In support of this notion, Muijs and Harris (2007, p. 112) assert that “teacher leadership is conceptualised as a set of behaviours and practices that are undertaken collectively. ... concerned with the relationships and connections among individuals within a school”. The focal point here is creating a conducive environment that promotes good interpersonal relationships within a school. Relating to this claim, Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 438) also define teacher leadership as a requisite for “school capacity building as broad-based, and skillful involvement in the work of leadership”.

Having explored the literature on the definitions of teacher leadership, I now turn my attention to teacher leadership as a practice for school development.

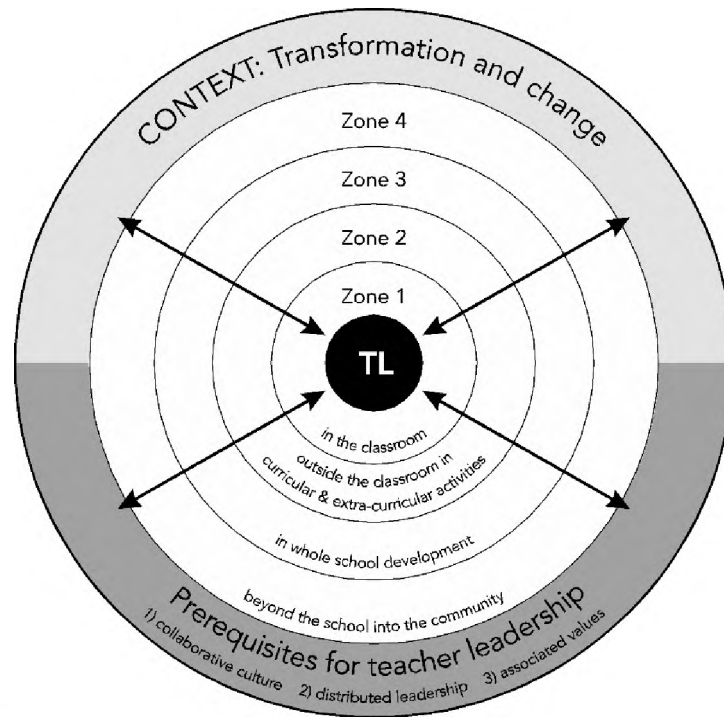
2.4.2 Teacher leadership for school development

Drawing on the array of teacher leadership definitions, this section focuses on the practice of teacher leadership, with an interest on factors that enhance teacher leadership development in a school. Some writers indicate that many programmatic efforts have been developed aimed at increasing the practice of teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). In my view, teacher leadership development is a complex issue that goes “beyond the design of new roles and efforts to develop individuals’ skills to perform them” (Smylie & Danny, 1990, p. 238). Similarly, York-Barr and Duke (2004) suggest that “the leadership practices and possibilities for teachers are numerous and varied, and as such leadership opportunities for teachers also are numerous and varied” (p. 263).

Moreover, Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 443) clarify that for teacher leadership practice to be enhanced and bring notable improvement in the school, “time needs to be set aside for teachers to meet to plan and discuss issues such as curriculum matters, developing school-wide plans, leading study groups, organising visits to other schools, and collaborating with colleagues”. In the same understanding, Angelle and De Hart (2011, p. 143) argue that “teacher leadership reflects teacher

agency, that is, the school-wide work of teachers as supported through establishing relationships, breaking down barriers, and marshalling resources throughout the organisation in an effort to improve students' educational experiences and outcomes". Henceforth, I believe that teacher leadership practice is enhanced when time and space is availed for teachers to exert their expertise within their normal schedule of load and beyond, for as long as they get support from others and administrators (SMTs).

At this point, I link my discussion to Grant's (2006; 2008; 2010) 'Model of Teacher Leadership' where the roles (leadership activities) of teacher leaders are described in relation to "four semi-distinctive areas or zones" (Grant, 2008, p. 93). The model provides a clear view of different indicators to see how teachers are involved in leadership activities across the school (Hamatwi, 2015, p. 24). This 'Model' further reveals a distributed perspective of leadership which acknowledges the work of all individuals who contribute to leadership practice, whether or not they are formally designated or defined as leaders (Harris & Spillane, 2008). Therefore, it forms a conceptual framework and an analytical tool for this study (see chapter four). Figure 2.2 below, shows Grant's 'Model of teacher leadership'.



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

Model of Teacher Leadership (Grant, 2006; Grant, 2008; Grant, 2010)

Figure 2.2: Model of teacher leadership.

Literature refers to teacher leadership as to those teachers who “lead within and beyond the classroom; identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders; influence others toward improved educational practice; and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 6). This definition serves as a summary of Grant’s ‘Model of Teacher Leadership’ which consists of four distinctive zones. Zone 1 states that “teacher leads in the classroom” (Grant, 2010, p. 57) because as professionals, teachers are “first of all competent in the classroom through the facilitation of students’ learning” (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 6). Hence, this Zone mainly focuses on Role One which aims at improving one’s own teaching continuously by carrying out a number of tasks such as: assessing learning, record keeping, designing of learning materials, classroom rules and identifying conditions that may hinder the learning process. Thus, for teacher leadership to have more of an impact, it should ideally begin in the classroom zone as expert teachers continue to teach and improve their own teaching (Grant, 2010), for them to be able to lead beyond their classroom.

In Zone 2, teachers lead beyond their classroom by working with other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities within the school. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009, p. 7) assert that “leading beyond the classroom provides an opportunity for teachers to interact with other adults in the school” and this creates a culture of collective and collaborative enterprise. This Zone consists of three significant roles within which teachers operate (Grant, 2010).

- Role Two – is about providing curriculum development knowledge within one’s own school by serving in different school committees, attending curriculum development workshops, co-planning and sharing best practices.
- Role Three – is concerned with teachers leading in-service education and assisting other teachers by mentoring others, peer coaching, team and capacity building for staff development, and other extra-mural activities such as sport and social events while building a strong interpersonal relationship among staff members within the school.
- Role Four – constitutes participating in performance evaluation of teachers by conducting peer assessment through classroom observations, moderation of assessment tasks and marking criterion, and providing feedback for improvement of other teachers in a school.

Hence, with these Roles and their indicators, I agree that there is an indication of some “devolution of power and shared decision-making in the school, particularly in the provision of curricular and co/extra-curricular development and innovation” (Grant, 2010, p. 58). In other words, teacher leaders are influential within their school as an organisation, should they be given the opportunity to exercise their expertise.

However, in Zone 3, teachers can become more involved in whole school development issues such as vision and mission setting, and internal school policy development. Here, Role Five and Six are mainly taken up by teachers in a school. Teachers take the lead in organising and leading peer reviews of school practice within Role Five; while in Role Six, they participate fully in school level decision-making (Grant, 2012). This is mostly done through activities such as: school self-evaluation (SSE), teachers’ self-evaluation (TSE), SWOT analysis for school development plan (SDP) and plan of action for academic improvement (PAAI), vision and mission statement review, and other related internal policy formulation. With this level of involvement of teachers in school matters, the SMT need to relinquish power to teachers in order to “promote a school culture of mutual trust, support, collective commitment and good communication so that teachers are able to initiate and lead in innovative ways” (Grant, 2012, p. 59).

Finally, in Zone 4, teachers lead beyond the school into the community. This means that they become involved in activities outside the school; this can either be at a cluster, circuit or regional level or sometimes even at the national level. Hence, Role Two and Three are of significance in this Zone whereby teachers are leading in external (beyond the school) curriculum development, in-service education and assisting other teachers and educational officials on school matters. For example, they liaise with parents about school matters; take part in cluster and circuit activities (workshops, result analysis, or strategic planning for performance improvement); and continuous professional development seminar and conferences (Grant, 2012).

In relation to Grant’s Model of Teacher Leadership and their indicators, literature reveals some similar arguments which may add value to this model. For example, Stone, Horejs and Lomas (1997) assert that when teachers are engaged in school wide change and school improvement,

teacher leadership roles have expanded from teacher-to-teacher assistance, classroom and department focus, and staff development, to include the more global context of school change and improvement. This emphasises the notion of teachers' leading beyond the classroom. In addition, in order to cultivate and support teacher leadership, the culture of the school has to diminish hierarchical differences, thus enabling teachers to have professional autonomy and genuine collegial involvement in decisions (Stone, Horejs, & Lomas, 1997).

In the case of teachers being part of decision-making within the school, Weiss and Cambone (2000, p. 350) argue that “when teachers share in decision-making, they become committed to the decisions that emerge. They buy into the decision; they feel a sense of ownership; therefore, they are more likely to see that decisions are actually implemented”. This means that teachers also take the lead in making sure that the goals of the decisions made are met. Therefore, it is important for the SMT to distribute leadership among teachers for collective school development. With this claim, my attention now turns to the roles of SMT (principal and Heads of Departments) towards teacher leadership development.

2.4.3 The need for school management to promote teacher leadership development

School managers and administrators have major roles to play in the development of their staff members by inspiring, exposing, coaching and mentoring, and most importantly making use of their expertise in leadership roles. Smylie and Danny (1990, p. 237) argue that “of course, teacher leadership is not something new ... its existence in the classrooms and its informal exercise within schools has long been recognised”. Therefore, Grant (2012, p. 65) argues that “engaging teachers in leadership practice does not mean that the role of the principal becomes redundant, on the contrary, the role of the principal is critical in creating opportunities for teachers to lead within a distributed practice”. In agreement with Grant's argument, I believe that principals have to “create a conducive environment that encourages teachers to initiate leadership activities and provide the moral support to encourage teachers to take risks which may be involved” (Muijs & Harris, 2007, p. 118).

Furthermore, literature points out the importance of the role that principals and the school management team play with regard to the promotion of teacher leadership (De Villiers & Pretorius, 2011). Grant (2008, p. 89) suggests that for principals and SMTs to enable teacher leadership, they need to generate chances for teachers to lead through the “creation of a culture of collaboration and by using the strengths and talents of the individual teachers”. In line with this thinking, Stone et al. (1997, p. 52) also posit that “teachers have the expertise and experience to engage in all aspects of schooling; therefore, they should be given the opportunity to engage in meaningful decisions about their schools and classrooms”. This means that teachers are experts in their own settings and if given an opportunity, they can make a meaningful contribution towards the development of the school.

Grant (2012) contends that an “SMT’s work begins with spending time, lots of it – with teachers, in and out of classrooms, engaged in conversations about teaching and learning” (p. 64). Adding to this, Harris (2013, p. 546) declares that “without the active and full support of those in formal leadership positions in schools, teacher leadership is unlikely to flourish or to be sustained”. Similarly, Hamatwi (2015, p. 31) further asserts that:

For teacher leadership to flourish at a school, a principal and SMTs need to build a team spirit among teachers, facilitate proper and smooth communication and provide support and encouragement to teachers to use alternative strategies while at the same time celebrating and recognising the success of programmes being spearheaded by teachers.

The point here is that there must be mutual respect, trust, friendly and open-door policy for communication within the school.

Moreover, the current hierarchy of leadership within schools needs to be re-addressed, in order to pave ways for teacher leadership development. This is because “leadership power resides with the leadership team, i.e. at the top of the school” (Harris, 2003, p. 319). Therefore, schools typified by hierarchical structures need to be restructured and establish participatory decision-making structures that allow all teachers and other members of the school community to take part in decision-making thereby enhancing student learning and teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

In order for teacher leadership to flourish, it is important for principals and the SMT members to conduct regular meetings with staff members. In this manner, Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 9) from their recent study in four schools in England, found that “the School Management Teams (SMT) created many opportunities for staff through certain structural arrangements” (p. 93). Moreover, it is further reported from the studies that the SMT “had regular meetings with the whole staff” (Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 93) where the school status is shared and teachers' contributions and input were considered (Zokka, 2012). I agree that regular staff meetings will create an atmosphere in which teachers can bring new ideas which may be essential for the school development. In line with this, Muijs and Muijs (2003) reiterate that “teachers need to be involved in the process of deciding what roles, if any, they wish to take on, and must then feel supported by the school’s administration in doing so” (p. 442).

It is also evident from literature that principals and SMT members need to create time for professional development of their staff. Similarly, Muijs and Muijs also argue that school “heads need to encourage teachers’ continuous learning, by providing time and resources for continuing professional development (CPD) activities, and need to support and validate the concept of teacher leadership” (2003, p. 442). Equally, Harris and Lambert (2003, p. 37) contribute by indicating that SMTs need to “set the climate for improvement and empower teachers to lead and be able to provide much needed energy for change and development” in a school through CPD activities.

In conclusion, I believe that principals and SMT members can develop teacher leadership opportunities in a number of ways, “from promoting shared decision making between teachers and administrators to teachers’ instructional support groups and teacher-led principal advisory councils” (Smylie & Danny, 1990, p. 237). Having this understanding of the roles of the SMT in developing teacher leadership, I now discuss some factors that hinder teacher leadership development in schools.

2.4.4 Factors constraining teacher leadership development opportunities

While it would appear from literature that teacher leadership can be advantageous to both the individual teacher and their school, “there are a number of barriers that need to be overcome and

preconditions that need to be met to ensure that teacher leadership operates effectively” (Muijs & Harris, 2003, p. 442). With this understanding, I discuss some of the factors that may hinder teacher leadership development in schools.

2.4.4.1 Policies and regulations as barriers to leadership development

School governing policies and regulations tend to emerge as barriers that inhibit teacher leadership development in school. Sharing similar views, Sergiovanni, Kelleher, McCarthy and Wirt (2004) as cited in Hamatwi (2015, p. 27) mention that, “sometimes constraints can be imposed externally by legal mandates, school outcome specifications and role expectations of important others ... some constraints come from within in the form of work rules, expectation of teachers, school organisational arrangements and standards operating procedures that reflect the school culture”. This means that those in formal designed positions may be reluctant to share leadership roles since they remain accountable for what happens within the school.

On the other hand, as much as leadership roles can be spread and shared among teachers, policies and regulations remain silent about extra remuneration for those teachers who are willing to take up those roles. In this regard, Hanghuwo (2014, p. 29) argues that “salaries can be regarded as resources for teacher leaders and they are highly inequitable, with those in the best-heeled districts paid considerably more and supported with better working conditions”. Besides policies and regulations as barriers to teacher leadership development, leadership structures and school culture also emerged from the literature as a barrier, as discussed hereunder.

2.4.4.2 School leadership structure and its culture

Some authors reveal that school culture is one of the emerging barriers towards teacher leadership development in schools. For example, Muijs and Harris (2003) point towards ‘top-down’ management structures in schools as “a major impediment to the development of teacher leadership, as they militate against teachers attaining autonomy and taking on leadership roles within the school” (p. 443). In line with this, Sergiovanni (as cited in Grant, 2006, p. 526) suggests that “we have traditional leadership practices, which emphasise hierarchy, rules and management protocols and rely on bureaucratic linkages to connect people to work by forcing them to respond as subordinates”. Hence, the historical background of the management system inherited during the

colonial era remains embedded within school settings, and this needs to be transformed. Therefore, schools should be prepared to adopt new changes. In line with this argument, York-Barr and Duke (2004) explain that “little attention has been paid to preparing the school as a setting for new forms of leadership ... teacher leadership development is a complex undertaking” (p. 278).

2.4.4.3 Teachers themselves as barriers towards leadership development

It is also evident from literature that, *teachers* themselves remain obstacles to teacher leadership. I believe this has to do with their behaviours, understanding and their interpersonal relationships with school administrators. Muijs and Harris (2007, p. 120) contribute to this point by mentioning that “one barrier was the unwillingness of teachers to take on leadership roles ... some teachers saw themselves only as classroom practitioners and therefore could be very reluctant to see themselves in a leadership role or indeed, to take on such a role”. This means that some teachers may feel insecure, perhaps due to lack of experience, exposure and confidence about leadership roles (*ibid.*).

Moreover, literature discloses that some teachers contend that extra roles and tasks may take up their time for preparations and other pre-designed tasks. In their contribution, Muijs and Harris (2006, p. 970) have found that “lack of time for teachers to engage in activities outside of classroom teaching and administration appears to be a key inhibitor to teacher leadership, as it is to other educational initiatives”. Hence, issues of time need to be addressed to make room for teacher leadership development to be incorporated within the normal schedules of individual teachers.

2.4.4.4 Inadequate in-service professional development for teachers

Another notable factor to hinder the development of teacher leadership in schools is a lack of inadequate leadership CPD activities in school. In line with this argument, Moonsamy (2010) asserts that if teacher training is only focused on curriculum development without incorporation of leadership development, then it will create a situation which inhibits teacher leadership. Similarly, Muijs and Harris advocate that “development of teachers should also focus on aspects specific to their leadership roles ... on skills such as leading groups, collaborative work and mentoring” (2003, p. 444).

According to Muijs and Harris (2007), “the fact is that staff lack confidence and in some cases leadership skills to carry out the roles and responsibilities”, yet that does not necessarily mean teachers are incapable, “but leadership development requires strong support and specific forms of CPD activities” (p. 130). Hence, I believe that CPD activities can enhance teacher leadership development if well-crafted because through those activities, teachers can gain confidence in themselves to innovate and take the lead.

Since teacher leadership development and distribution of leadership is likely to vary depending on the historical, cultural and institutional settings in which it is situated (Grant, Gardner, Kajee, Moodley, & Somaroo, 2010), I deemed it necessary to use Cultural Historical Activity Theory, herein referred to as CHAT, as a theoretical and analytical framework. As a holistic theory of practice, “a CHAT theoretical analysis offers the conceptual tools to investigate how the work of teachers is situated in its socio-historical context” (Grant, 2017, p. 14). Moreover, due to its transformative agenda, CHAT can help examine ‘how’ and ‘why’ teacher leadership emerges (or not) in the setting and resolve how teacher leadership can be developed through an intervention (*ibid.*). Against this backdrop, my attention now turns to CHAT as a theoretical framework for this study.

2.5 Cultural Historical Activity Theory as a theoretical framework for this study

2.5.1 Evolution of CHAT

Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) is defined by Mukute (2015, p. 25) as “a learning, and agency development theory, which encompasses intergenerational knowledge transmission, learning from those who know more and collective generation of knowledge and innovations”. Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) was founded by a Russian Jewish scholar Lev Vygotsky in the 1920s, to “describe the relationship between individuals and their social environment” (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p. 15). His work was described by Engeström, who refers to it as first generation activity theory, through its mediated action which involves an interaction between the individual and mediating artefacts/tools and signs and social others within their

environment to find new meanings (*ibid.*). In contributing to the development of CHAT, Leontiev built on Vygotsky's work by expanding his mediated action and introduced a "collective activity as a unit of analysis among multiple individuals and objects in the environment" (Sannino, 2011, p. 573). Leontiev's work is referred to as second generation CHAT (Engeström, 2001). This was later developed into a third generation activity theory by Engeström as "an applications of activity systems analysis in developmental research where the investigator often takes a participatory and interventionist role in the participants' activity to help them experience change" (Yamagata-Lynch, 2010, p. 23). However, for the purpose of this study I used second generation CHAT as a theoretical framework and analytical tool, and a detailed discussion follows below.

2.5.2 Second generation CHAT

Since this study interrogates teacher leadership development within the activity system of level-one teachers, I drew on Engeström's second generation CHAT (refer to Figure 2.2) as a theoretical and analytical framework (Engeström, 1999). This was because CHAT "addresses the foundational theoretical issue of activity as a prime unit of analysis with a theory of human activity and a productive method for its study" (Sannino, Daniels, & Gutierrez, 2009, p. 2). Yamagata-Lynch (2010, p. 13) asserts that many scholars have used a CHAT framework to investigate complex learning environments. In order to examine an activity system at the level of collective and community, Engeström expanded the original triangular representation of the activity system that was used in the first generation by adding the elements of community, rules and division of labour, while emphasising the importance of analysing their interactions with each other (Masilela, 2017). For the purpose of this study, a school is a complex environment in which teacher leadership development is practiced by individuals. Moreover, Vennebo and Ottesen (2012) suggest that leadership can be recognised as "an emergent property which is played out as a complex chain of actions, orientated by purposes that are constituted in the inter-play of hierarchical and distributed dimensions of agency and authority" (p. 267) within the school. In this way, CHAT could provide a suitable framework to "investigate leadership as emergent in historical activities and situated actions and operations" (Knott-Craig, 2017, p. 109).

As a basic unit of analysis to understand teacher leadership development, second generation activity system is concrete practice that is carried out by individuals within their context, to meet a shared objective (Mukute, 2015, p. 8). Since this study aims to transform the current practice of teacher leadership, CHAT is not only meant to analyse and explain the world and its practice, but also to generate new practices and promote change (Sannino, 2011). At the same time, CHAT emphasises the importance of internal contradictions caused by tensions which arise when conditions of an activity put the subject in contradictory situations, that can hinder the subject's participation in the activity, in trying to achieve the object (Masilela, 2017, p. 28). Moreover, second generation activity theory enabled me to surface cultural and historical background practices (including contradictions) of teacher leadership development as a central activity system within the research site (Blackler, 2009, p. 29). This helped me to understand the problematic nature of teacher leadership practice and informed the phase of Change Laboratory workshops.

The second generation CHAT 'triangle' below (Figure 2.3) provides a framework and analytical tool for understanding teacher leadership practice (see Section 5.2).

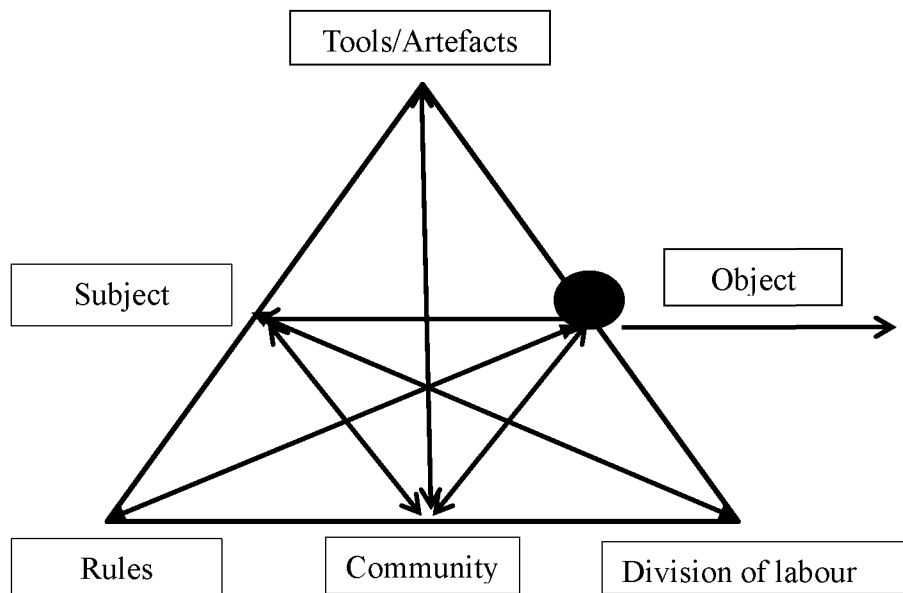


Figure 2.3: The structure of second generation CHAT (Adapted from Engeström, 1987)

2.5.3 Description of CHAT elements

In this study, subjects refer to the individual or subgroup whose position and point of view are chosen as the perspective of the analysis. These are teachers within the activity system. According to Engeström and Sannino (2010), the object in CHAT would refer “to the ‘raw material’ or ‘problem space’ at which the activity is directed” (p. 6), and it is turned into outcomes with the help of instruments, that is, tools and signs. The object for my study is teacher leadership development, while, the tools or artefacts would refer to the interaction with others (Strydom, 2017) as well as an individual’s prior knowledge, or the joint knowledge of all members who make up the object (Yamagata- Lynch, 2010). For my study, minutes of the staff and departmental meetings, TSE, an audio/video-recorder and other tools used to aid understanding of the object, would represent tools/artefacts. The community comprises the individuals and subgroups who share the same general object (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). In my study, community refers to the setting in which the action takes place, e.g. the school, as well as the level-one teachers, the SMT members, school board chairperson and all teachers who may all have the same object in mind.

In CHAT language, division of labour refers to horizontal division of tasks and responsibilities, as well as vertical division of power, status and positions (Foot & Groleau, 2011) as they have been negotiated and distributed within the members of the community. In my study, the division of labour would be the allocation of duties in different committees within the school, the activities in the school development plan (SDP) and the plan of action for academic improvement (PAAI) where members of the school perform different roles. Finally, rules refer to the historical explicit and implicit regulations, norms, conventions and standards that constrain or allow activities to occur (Engeström & Sannino, 2010), and that provide guidance on correct procedures and acceptable interactions. According to Foot (2014), rules mediate relations between the subject and object as well as between subjects and the community, while division of labour mediates relations between the subjects and the community. Having discussed the CHAT elements within an activity system, I now present CHAT principles in relation to my study.

2.5.4 CHAT principles

Central to the CHAT framework are five basic principles that can be used to describe and summarise the current state of an activity system (Engeström, 2001; Daniels, 2008). Although these principles were developed to describe the third generation activity systems, I found them necessary to describe the current practice of developing leadership in level-one teachers as a central activity system for this study. For example, the first principle according to Engeström (2001), is that of a collective, artefact-mediated and object-orientated activity system which is identified **as the prime unit of analysis**, which is viewed in its network relations to other activity systems (p. 136). In my study, this means that level-one teachers' leadership development can be understood when interpreted in relation to the cultural-historical practice of their context (Daniel, 2008).

The second principle is the **multivoicedness** of activity systems. Engeström (2001, p. 136) describes that an activity system is always a community of multiple points of view, traditions and interests. The division of labour within the school creates different positions for the participants (Daniels, 2008, p. 124). For instance, in the school, level-one teachers have the responsibility to teach, assess, and manage their classes, while interacting with other colleagues and adhering to policies. This brings “tension and innovation which demands actions of translation and negotiation” (*ibid.*) within the activity system.

Daniels (2008) describes the third principle of CHAT as **the historicity** of the system. As the shaping and transformation of activity systems are developed over time, their problems and potentials are only then understood against their own history (*ibid.*). This means to say, conditions that promote or constrain the development of level-one teachers as leaders, can only be understood against their cultural-historical daily practice.

The fourth principle is **the central role of contradictions** as sources of change and development. According to Engeström (2001), contradictions should not be seen as problems or conflicts but rather, the accumulation of historical tensions that occur within and between an activity system (Daniels, 2008, p. 125). In my study context, for example, SMTs are compelled by policy to develop teachers professionally by distributing leadership tasks, however, there are culturally and

historically based challenges that exist which continue to hinder such practice (see Chapter Five). Engeström (1987) argues that with any human activity, contradictions emerge and evolve within and between the six elements of the activity system and between networked activity systems (as shown in Figure 2.2). According to Engeström (1999), there are four levels of contradictions that can occur within and between activity systems.

- The primary contradictions which occur within one element of a single activity system.
- Secondary contradictions take place when two elements of a single activity system are in conflict with one another.
- Tertiary contradictions are contradictions that occur when the subjects face conflicting situations by adopting what is believed to be a newly advanced method for achieving the object.
- Quaternary contradictions occur when the subjects encounter changes to their activity that result in conflicts with adjacent activities.

Due to the scope of my study which focuses on a single activity system, only primary and secondary contradictions will be surfaced (see Chapter Five).

According to Daniels (2008), the fifth principle asserts that there is a *possibility of expansive transformation* in the activity systems that move through lengthy cycles of qualitative transformation (p. 125). As the contradictions of an activity system are aggravated, some individual participants begin to question and deviate from the established norms. This could “escalate into collaborative envisioning and a deliberative collective change effort” (Engeström, 2001, p. 137). My attention now turns to the expansive learning theory.

2.5.5 Expansive learning theory

The theory of expansive learning is rooted in Cultural Historical Activity Theory and Developmental Work Research (Engeström, Miettinen, & Punamäki, 1999). Expansive learning is defined as “a creative type of learning in which learners [in my case, the level-one teachers] join their forces to literally create something novel, essentially learning something that does not yet

exist” (Sannino, Engeström, & Lemos, 2016, p. 7). According to Knott-Craig (2017, p. 105), “Expansive learning involves the creation of new knowledge and new practices for a newly emerging activity – learning that is embedded and constitutive of quality transformation of the entire activity system”. For the purpose of this study, expansive learning provides a framework to understand forms of learning whereby participants learn what is not yet there; new knowledge and practices for newly emerging activities are collaboratively constructed and practiced (Engeström, 1999). To this way of learning, Mukute (2010, p. 140) points out that expansive learning aims to “expand the understanding of practitioner’s activity through experimenting and reflecting and to promote peoples’ possibilities to utilise their multiple understandings and identities”.

According to Engeström (1999a) a full cycle of expansive learning may be understood as a collective journey through the zone of proximal development of the activity (as shown in Figure 2.3). Thus, ascending from the abstract to the concrete is “achieved through specific epistemic or learning actions and together these actions form an expansive cycle or spiral” (Engeström & Sannino, 2010, p. 7). As per Engeström (1999, p. 383), an ideal typical sequence of epistemic actions in an expansive cycle may be described as follows:

The first action is when the participants start by criticising or rejecting some aspects of the accepted practice of leadership within their context. This is called **questioning**. The second action is that of **analysing the situation**. Here, participants analyse their practice and it involves mental, discursive or practical transformation of the situation in order to find out the underlying causes or explanatory mechanisms. They would evoke the ‘why’ and ‘how’ questions and explanatory principles. This is done in order to trace the historical-generic and to explain the situation by tracing its origins and evolution. Moreover, they use actual-empirical analysis to explain the situation by constructing a picture of its inner systemic relations. The third action is that of **modeling** the newly founded explanatory relationship in some publicly observable and transmittable medium, by constructing an explicit, simplified model of the new idea that explains and offers a solution to the problematic situation. The fourth action is that of **examining the model**, running, operating and experimenting on it in order to fully grasp its dynamics, potentials and limitations. The fifth action is that of **implementing the model** by means of practical applications, enrichments, and conceptual extensions. The sixth and seventh actions are those of **reflecting on and evaluating the process** and **consolidating its outcomes** into a new stable form of practice within their context.

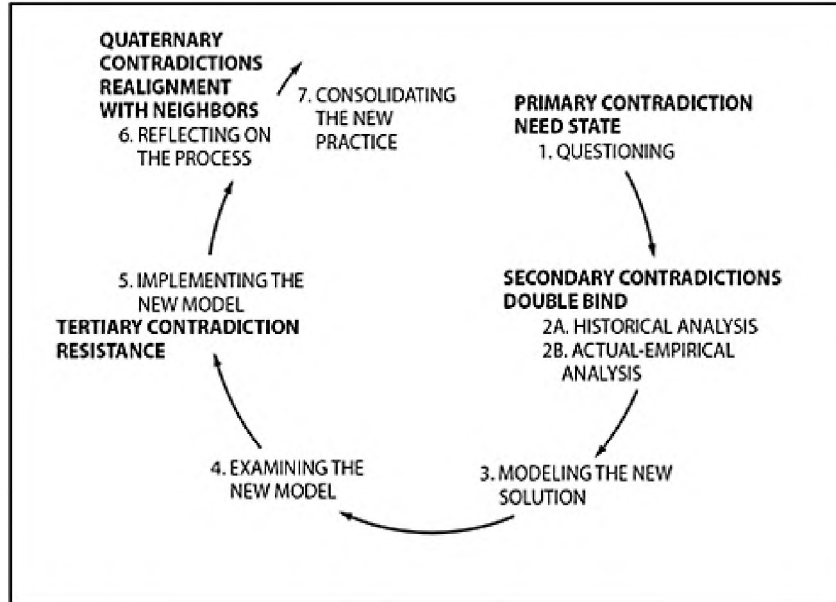


Figure 2.4: Expansive cycle of learning actions (adapted from Engeström, 2010, p. 970).

The process of expansive learning should therefore be understood as a “construction and resolution of successively evolving contradictions” (Engeström & Sannino, 2010, p. 7). This is because with transformation and change of participants’ lives and organisational practices, new forms of activity and practice that do not already exist are learned. Moreover, Daniels (2008) suggests that the “transformation may be triggered by the introduction of new technology or a set of new regulations, but not dependable on them” (p. 136). This means that participants work together collaboratively to transform their practice. With the same thoughts, Sannino, Engeström and Lemos (2016, p. 3) assert that “the collective design effort is itself the core of an expansive learning process, involving reconceptualisation and practical transformation of the object of the learners’ activity”. This form of expanded learning takes place during the Change Laboratory workshops which I will now discuss.

2.5.6 Change Laboratory as a formative intervention method

Developmental Work Research (DWR) is an interventionist methodology, using participatory approaches to apply CHAT, specifically the theory of expansive learning, in the world of work, technology and organisations (Engeström, 1999). According to Virkkunen and Newnham (2013),

a Change Laboratory is a “formative intervention method for developing work activities by the practitioners in collaboration with researcher-interventionists” (p. 15). In CHAT language, an intervention is defined as “a purposeful action by a human agent to create change” (Engeström, 2009, p. 325). It is also a tool kit for envisioning, designing, and experimenting with new forms of work and a social setting in which this can be done (*ibid.*). In my study, Change Laboratory workshops would be conducted firstly, to ‘mirror the data’ in order to trace the cultural and historical roots of the emerging contradictions, and secondly for these contradictions to be redefined in order to bring changes (Lee & Roth, 2007, p. 111) within the context of teacher leadership development. Moreover, Mukute (2010) notes that Change Laboratory workshop, as developed by Engeström is based on double stimulation and “supports the CHAT objective of research that seeks to transform and improve the conditions of the research participants” (p. 137) within their setting.

2.5.7 The Change Laboratory process

As suggested by Virkkunen and Newnham (2013), the Change Laboratory process starts with deliberations of the mirror data that reveals challenging and problematic aspects of the current activity. In here, participants observe and examine the mirrored data and relate it to their own experiences and views (1. Mirror/Present). After the observations, examinations and deliberations of the current practice, participants discuss and identify the most important problematic areas which need further investigation and possible solutions (2. Ideas/Tools/Present). Thereafter, in order to understand how the problems have emerged, the participants collect data and observations concerning changes that have taken place in the systemic structure of their activity and record them (3. Mirror/Past). The records are then analysed to identify the rate of change and to investigate the causes of and connections between the observed changes. Through this analysis, the participants can identify ways for developing solutions to the current practice within their activity system (4. Ideas/ Tool/ Past). The past form of the activity is then modelled by characterising the specific nature of the elements of the activity system at that time (5. Model/ Vision/ Past).

The model of the current activity system is then constructed by identifying elements of the activity in which major changes have taken place and those in which there has been little change. The

relationship between the changed and unchanged elements of the activity system is then analysed to identify contradictions and disturbances (6. Model/ Present). To provide solutions to the identified tensions and contradictions, a vision of a new form of activity is developed (7. Model/ Vision/ Future) and new forms of action and tools within which participants may begin to experimentally realise the vision, are decided upon (8. Ideas/ Tools/ Future). Follow-up data about the feasibility of the new tools and forms of action decided in step 8 above is then collected from the first experiments (9. Mirror/ Future) and identified problems in the data will be used as a mirror for the current activity [1. Mirror/ Present]. Those processes are presented below:

	MODEL/VISION	IDEAS/TOOLS	MIRROR
FUTURE	7. Visioning the future structure of the activity system in which the current contradictions would be overcome.	8. Modelling the new tools and ways working necessary for realising the vision. Designing first experiments with the new tools and new ways of working.	9. Follow-up data about the feasibility of the designed new tools and ways of working as well as about needs for their future development.
PRESENT	6. Modelling the most important changes taking place in the elements of the activity system as well as historically evolved inner contradictions the changes have created with the activity system.	2. Shared concerns, identified problem areas in the joint activity. Ideas for further analysis. Solutions, ideas to identified problems.	1. Samples of problem situations in the participants' daily work with the object of the joint activity – leadership (for instance disturbances and ruptures in serving followers or in central processes of the joint activity). Videos, interviews, documents.
PAST	5. Modelling the central features of the past structure of the activity. Analyzing the nature of the current phase of the transformation of the activity.	4. Identification of periods and turning points in the development of the activity (servant leadership).	3. Data concerning important historical changes in the activity system.

Figure 2.5: The stages of the Change Laboratory process (adapted from Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013. p. 18)

It would be through these processes that new concepts and knowledge could be created within teacher leadership practice.

2.5.8 Critiques of Cultural Historical Activity Theory

While opting to use CHAT as a theoretical and analytical framework for this study, I was fully aware of some criticisms and limitations around this theory. For example, one criticism is that, the triangular representation of activity is often highlighted as evidence of omission of key issues central in the works of the founders of activity theory (Sannino, 2011, p. 571). Another critique is that of Langemeyer and Roth (2006), who claim that “the contemporary, widely known version of CHAT neglects different aspects of dialectical thinking and consequently narrows its potential to a socio-critical approach to societal practice and human development” (p. 21). In other words, CHAT does not deal with the issue of power; it does not consider who the participants are in terms of their positionality within the workplace and it raises questions of who is doing the questioning and who is being silenced or prevented from participating (Masilela, 2016).

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I reviewed literature on the historical evolution of leadership theories and how those theories changed from a traditional view of leadership to the contemporary view of leadership, that advocates participation for all. Moreover, teacher leadership was discussed a central focus of this study. Thereafter, the chapter discussed Cultural Historical Activity Theory as the main theoretical framework for this study. Further to that, a brief description of expansive learning as the framework embraced in enhancing teacher leadership development was provided. Finally, the chapter concluded by highlighting some criticisms of CHAT as a theoretical framework. Having explored literature on the notion under study and discussed the theoretical perspectives which underpin this study, my attention now turns to the research methodology within which the study will be conducted.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design and methodology I employed in conducting this study. The chapter commences with the research goals and research questions that guided the study. Thereafter, the research design and methodology are discussed in detail. Finally, the chapter presents the issues of validity and trustworthiness, as well as ethical considerations employed during the research process. My attention now turns to the purpose of the study and the questions that guided the research.

3.2 Purpose of the study

As mentioned in Chapter One, this study interrogated how teacher leadership could be developed in a rural school in northern Namibia. The study also aimed at surfacing the factors that promote or constrain teacher leadership development in a school, and then sought to create opportunities for the understanding of teacher leadership development.

In order to attain these research goals, the following questions guided me throughout this study:

- (5) How is teacher leadership development understood by teachers and the school management team (SMT) members?
- (6) What leadership roles do teachers currently fulfill?
- (7) What are the conditions that promote or constrain teacher leadership in the school?
- (8) How can teacher leadership be developed through Change Laboratories?

With the purpose of the study and research questions presented, I now turn my attention to the research methodology and design as discussed hereunder.

3.3 Methodology and research design

3.3.1 Research orientation

This research interrogated how teacher leadership could be developed in a rural Senior Secondary School in northern Namibia. The roles of teacher leaders and the SMT were examined, paying particular attention to conditions that promoted or constrained teacher leadership development within the school. In search of a deeper understanding on this practice, this study was oriented within a qualitative case study blended with a formative intervention (Engeström, 2009, p. 321), while taking a critical stance. I believe that critical research and a formative intervention align well because they have a transformational agenda. The two approaches (formative intervention and a critical paradigm) focus on bringing about some kind of social change that will benefit those groups of individuals with fewer opportunities or choices open to them (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014).

In a formative intervention study, the design is driven by cultural-historically formed contradictions (Engeström & Sannino, 2011) in the participants' activities (level-one teaching), and is the result of their collective efforts to understand and face these contradictions and the problems they engender (Sannino, Engeström, & Lemos, 2016). Since reality within a critical research is seen as being shaped by social, cultural, political, economic, and other dynamics (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014), I believe that CHAT, and its formative intervention methodology, were ideal in surfacing the possible sources of tensions and contradictions that constrained the development of level-one teachers.

Furthermore, critical researchers argue that social reality has multiple layers and what we observe and experience is often merely a surface reality (Du Plooy-Cilliers, 2014, p. 33). Thus, through a formative intervention, systemic causes of tensions and contradictions could be surfaced, paving the way for the new solutions to be modeled through the Change Laboratory workshops. As highlighted in Chapter Two (Section 2.5.6), the Developmental Work Research (DWR) is an interventionist methodology, using participatory approaches (Change Laboratory workshops, in

my study) to apply CHAT, specifically the theory of expansive learning, in the world of work, technology, and organisations, such as a school (Engeström, 1999).

Although this study is oriented within the interventionist approach, some literature strongly criticises this approach. For example, Wassenaar (2006) argues that “interventions should not be experimentally applied to populations who in future would be unable to benefit from such interventions if the study were to find the intervention effective” (p. 68). However, Connole argues that an intervention approach, while sharing features of the critical stance, adds a further dimension which focuses on the potential for understandings of human actions to be changed” (1998, p. 14).

3.3.2 Case study approach

To understand how teacher leadership could be developed within the school, I adopted a case study approach, because it enabled me to surface participants’ perceptions and experiences as they practiced the phenomenon under study. Since each context is unique, the advantage of using a qualitative case study is that it enables a researcher to examine, probe, understand, and report the real-life, unfolding interactions of events, human relationships, and other factors in a unique instance (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). According to Yin (2009), a case study approach is used when researchers seek to understand complex social phenomenon, while retaining the holistic meaning of real life events. This helped to focus on one specific thing, that being teacher leadership development in the school.

Bertram and Christiansen (2014, p. 42) define a case study as “an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a particular policy, institution or system in a real-life context”. This means teacher leadership development is indeed an example of a case from multiple viewpoints, in a real-life circumstance within a school context. In this line, Stake (1995) makes a similar point, that a case study is the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances. These definitions translate to say that a case study is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (Yin, 2003, p. 13), especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. The purpose for selecting a case study

approach was that it helped me generate an in-depth understanding of teacher leadership development through its practices, in order to generate knowledge through expansive learning and changing the mind-set of teachers, professional practices, policy makers, and stakeholders. This was done through a rich data collection process where multiple tools such as interviews, questionnaires, document analysis, and Change Laboratory workshops were employed.

However, in choosing a case study as an approach for this research project, I was fully aware of the limitations and implications embedded within this approach. For example, Merriam (2001) argues that case studies generate large amounts of data, which often result in lengthy reports and extended fieldwork. In addressing this limitation, I designed a time schedule during my fieldwork which was convenient for my participants. Moreover, I used an audio and video recorder which made my transcribing and analysis work easier. The large amount of data generated was therefore not a limitation in my study; on the contrary, they have led to rich findings (Yin, 2009).

Another limitation in case study research was the issue of language and power relations (Masilela, 2017). A language barrier was not really a problem in my study, since all my participants were teachers and the school board chairperson was also a teacher from a different school, and this facilitated our communication. However, addressing the power relations, I was flexible enough as I frequently and regularly interacted with my participants, creating a friendly and conducive relationship during the research process.

3.3.3 Research site

The selected site of this study is a public, rural senior secondary school in northern Namibia. This is a state funded boarding school, offering education for senior secondary level from Grade 8 to Grade 12. Established in the late 1980s, Dandee SSS (a pseudonym), is located in the central part of Oshikoto Region. The school started operating from a nearby primary school in the afternoons, since the hostel and classrooms were not completed by that time. A number of transitions took place along the way in terms of school leadership. For example, the post of the deputy principal was abolished and two more posts for heads of departments were created, bringing the total number of HoD posts to four. To date, the school has changed completely in terms of infrastructure and physical facilities; for example, there are dining and assembly halls, an administration block,

ablution and sport facilities, and a well-equipped library, to mention just a few. The school has a clear vision and mission statement that guides the day-to-day activities.

English is used as a language of instruction in terms of teaching and learning, and for all communication within the school. This was necessitated by the fact that the school accommodates learners and staff from different ethnic groups, in and around the country. The school runs from 07h10 to 13h00, but some teachers start as early as 06h00 and may even stay up to 19h00 in the evening. Hence, a culture of hard work and individual commitment prevails amongst the school. Staff members are clustered in different committees. The heads of those committees' report to the management their proposals or progress made. This distribution of responsibilities has transformed the school into one of academic excellence, since the school has been performing at 100% pass rate for the JSC (Grade 10) and at an average of 55-60% pass for Grade 12 for the past five years. Currently, the school enrolment for learners stands at 950; they are all boarders.

Since the site school is located in a rural setting, most learners come from poor backgrounds in terms of resources. Currently, there are 32 teachers, four heads of departments (HoDs), and a principal, as well as 35 support staff. However, during the data collection period, I found out that two heads of departments were promoted and one resigned in the first trimester. This led the school management and school board to appoint level-one teachers to act in those positions, while the recruitment process was being administered at the regional level. With that, the school drew my attention because of its location and accessibility, as well as the diversity of its staff and learners. Earlier this year, I conducted a pilot research project at this school as a pre-course assignment for my Master's degree. During this pilot study, I was assisted in all possible ways to collect my data by the staff and they portrayed a willingness to participate in the main study.

3.3.4 Research participants and positionality

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011), a sample is “a representative of the total population” (p. 143). It is a useful short cut, leading to results that can be almost as accurate as those for a full census of a population being studied, but for a fraction of the cost (Gorard, 2001, p. 10). This can be done through a range of sampling methods as either probability or non-

probability sampling (Briggs & Coleman, 2007). Although I am aware of the limitations and implications a specific sampling method might have, I selected a purposive technique because I was not able to contact all staff members within the selected school, given the limited time-frame of my study.

Purposive sampling was used for this study, because it provides access to research participants' experience of their settings, incidents, events, and activities that are likely to enrich the data that is to be collected (Maree, 2007, p. 79). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 157) state that purposive sampling is used "in order to access knowledgeable people with in-depth knowledge about particular issues maybe by virtue of their professional roles, power and access to networks, expertise or experience". On the other hand, purposive sampling is also a process where a researcher hand-picks participants with particular characteristics that will satisfy the needs of the research (Hoyle, Harris, & Judd, 2002, p. 318). Thus, I used my own judgment to select six level-one teachers, three School Management Team members (two HoDs and a Principal), and the School Board Chairperson. To direct the reader, the level one teachers were selected based on their years of teaching experience at the school, while the two HoDs were selected due to their availability. This means to say, although the school have four existing HoD posts, only two posts were filled by the time of my study. All in all, I selected these particular participants deliberately because they were in positions to provide important data that I could not have gotten from any other staff members (Maxwell, 2008).

Since the study focused on teacher leadership development, I found it necessary for teachers to be the majority of the participants. This was to gain a deeper understanding of how leadership was being developed among teachers, through performing different roles within the school. The SMT members were chosen because they serve in formal leadership positions and they are accountable for the day-to-day school activities and could shed light on the phenomenon under study. Thus, their (the SMT's) participation added value to the data collected by "establishing comparisons to illuminate the reasons for differences between individual" teachers (Maxwell, 2008, p. 235). Although all the participants signed the consent letter as an agreement to participate in the study, it later emerged that one teacher and the school principal withdrew themselves from the study with

valid reasons. In terms of research ethics (see Section 3.6), participants had the right to withdraw from the study at any time and therefore I acknowledged and respected their decisions.

Since most of the research participants already knew me as the principal of a nearby school in the same circuit, I conducted myself as a researcher throughout my interactions with them, by assuring my participants of confidentiality and anonymity, in order not to influence their responses. According to Maxwell (2012, p. 100), “the relationships that the researcher creates with participants in the research are real phenomena; they shape the context within which the research is conducted and have a profound influence on the research and its results”. Larabee (as cited in Chavez, 2008) posits that the positionality of the insider researcher is that “the advantage we have in knowing the community may be weakened or strengthened based on the ways in which our various social identities may shift during interaction with participants, or based on the degree of perceived or real closeness to participants as a result of shared experience or social identities” (p. 476). In addition, due to my positionality, I was sensitive and aware of socio-historical practices and conventions, such as language and position, and behaviours between participants and myself that may have shaped the study (Janse van Rensburg, 2001). I was thus reflexive and documented my reflection in a book throughout the research process, being aware that there might be some unavoidable mutual influence of the research participants and myself on one another (Maxwell, 2008).

However, this study was a continuation of a pre-course assignment for this Master’s programme, and my relationship with the school made it easier in gaining access. As Maree (2007, p. 7) puts it, “It is generally presumed that access is more easily granted to the insider researcher and that data collection is less time-consuming. ... there is no travelling involved and greater flexibility with regard to interview times”. Thus, my positionality had little to no major negative influence on the findings. Next, I turn to the data collection tools employed in this study.

3.4 Data collection tools

A range of data collection tools were used for this study. The purpose of using multiple methods for data collection was that the limitation and shortfall of one method may be complemented by

one or more of the others (Maxwell, 2008). This strengthens the trustworthiness of the data (Maree, 2007, p. 80). Briggs, Coleman and Morrison argue that the use of multi-methods links to the notion of triangulation that strengthens the validity and worthwhileness of the findings (2012, p. 87). I made use of document analysis and questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and observation as techniques for data collection within the first two weeks of the research process. This was to build a contextual picture of the current understandings and practices of teacher leadership development. Data collected was immediately analysed qualitatively to generate themes and categories; contradictions were also surfaced, and led to the Change Laboratory workshops, where more data was collected through the interactions with level-one teachers and members of the SMT. The reason was to find out the systemic causes that constrained teacher leadership development (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013). Below is a brief discussion on how each tool was utilised.

3.4.1 Document analysis

I employed document analysis as a data-collecting tool. I aimed to examine documents related to the phenomenon under study to generate rich data (Maree, 2007). These included the *National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia*, *Set of Job Descriptions*, *Code of Conduct for Teachers in Namibia*, as well as minutes of the departmental and staff meetings, and the set of school committees' documents. The reason for analysing these documents, was to establish cultural and historical practices of the school with regard to teacher leadership development. According to Briggs, Coleman and Morrison (2012, p. 297), document analysis provides valuable data about the “context and portray cultural practices of decision-making to the researcher to draw lines between official discourse by triangulating the generated data from other methods”. In addition, analysing documents helped me as a researcher to “uncover new meanings, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant” (Bowen, 2009, p. 29) to teacher leadership development. The main advantage of document analysis is that they are stable and never change, that is to say, they always say the same thing and thus they cannot be influenced by the researcher (Bowen, 2009). Generally, most of the documents I selected contained useful data for this research and thus, I gained an understanding of how teacher leadership development was practiced in the case study school. However, I was fully aware of their limitations; documents are not designed for research purposes and sometimes they are not retrievable, and they might be outdated (*ibid.*). I tried to find the latest

documents which were available. However, some of the targeted documents were not retrievable e.g. minutes of school board and subject meetings. In the following section I discuss the questionnaires as a data generation tool.

3.4.2 Questionnaires

Questionnaires (Appendix G) were used as another tool for data collection. A questionnaire is defined as “a useful instrument for collecting data. ... being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 377). Participants (teachers and SMT members) completed the questionnaires in my absence to avoid the possible threats and pressure due to the presence of the researcher (*ibid.*). Moreover, O’Hanlon (2003, p. 82) describes a questionnaire as “an economical method of collecting data as it reaches more people and takes up less time than an interview”. The purpose of questionnaires was to generate data about the participants’ understanding of the notion of teacher leadership and their roles within their context. Moreover, the questionnaire was developed in response to the four main research questions. Thus, the questionnaire consisted of four sections; Section A generated data on participants’ personal contextual profiles, while section B required participants’ understanding and perceptions of teacher leadership as a concept. Section C examined participants’ roles and responsibilities in developing teacher leadership, and the final section (D) invoked participants’ views of factors that may promote or constrain leadership development of teachers.

I distributed these questionnaires during a staff briefing (7th June 2017) to all teachers including SMT members and simultaneously, explained their purpose and how they could be completed. The prime purpose was to “obtain factual information, attitudinal information or a mixture of both” (Fogelman & Comber, 2007, p. 127) on teacher leadership development. However, in choosing questionnaires as a data collecting tool, I was fully aware of what Leedy and Ormrod (2005) claim that “typically, the majority of people who receive questionnaires don't return them, in other words, there may be a low return rate and the people who do not return them are not necessarily representative of the originally selected sample” (p.185). In line with Leedy and Ormrod, it was indeed evident that out of 30 questionnaires distributed, I was only able to collect 23 of them (77% response rate). However, I was able to gather useful data from the returned questionnaires which

further assisted me to generate possible probing and follow-up questions for the individual interviews. Having said that, my attention now turns to interviews as a data generation tool.

3.4.3 Semi-structured interviews

Another instrument for data collection I used was semi-structured interviews (Appendix F). According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) an interview enables “participants to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live and express how they regard situations from their point of view” (p. 401). Through the interactions, knowledge is constructed and the social situatedness of the data is emphasised (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011, p. 401). The aim of using semi-structured interviews was that it allowed me as a researcher to probe further by using follow-up questions to get expanded and meaningful answers (Gilbert, 2009). Although I planned to interview ten participants, I only managed to interview five level-one teachers, two School Management Team (SMT) members and the School Board Chairperson. This was because two participants (one teacher and the principal) withdrew from the study due to other commitments. However, each participant was interviewed separately. This allowed me to re-enter into conversation with each participant at intervals to help clarify or develop concepts as they emerge, and it also allowed me to develop an understanding of each participants’ view on the phenomenon under study (Masilela, 2017).

Using open-ended questions, the purpose was to further probe the answers to the first three research questions. During the interview sessions, I used a voice recorder (with the participants’ consent) while taking notes in order to capture and store every detail of the discussion. This was because I was able to listen to the exact spoken words after the interview proceedings which I could not hold in my own memory. Besides that, in ensuring the retaining of what I had captured during the interviews, I immediately transcribed the data collected after the proceedings since technology cannot be trusted in that they can be stolen or lost at any time. Moreover, transcribed data were analysed, and the emerging themes led to the second phase of data collection, the Change Laboratory workshops.

As much as the interviews were an ideal tool for data collection for my study, I also encountered some challenges in employing it. For instance, many participants viewed me as a school principal and not as a researcher, creating power relations in the process. This could have influenced the type of information provided as participants might have been reluctant to speak honestly about their experiences and school practices (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). Moreover, due to the large amount of data gathered from the interviews, it took me longer to transcribe all conversations in a short time and in a way, it affected my second phase of data collection (Change Laboratory workshops). All in all, I gathered enough and relevant data that answered all my research questions. For data triangulation, I also used observation to collect data as discussed below.

3.4.4 Observation

Robson (2002, p. 310) says that “what people do may differ from what they say they do”. In this manner, I used observation in this study to provide a reality check of the cultural and historical practice of teacher leadership development within the context (Appendix H). This tool provided me with the actual overview of participants’ actions, concepts and behaviours in their daily practice in relation to teacher leadership development. As described by Forster (1996), observation “is a way to see the social world from an insider's point of view, the researcher often participates him/herself in that world” (p. 6). I relied mostly on the observation of meetings (one staff meeting and one briefing were observed), and two classroom observations were also conducted based on Grant’s (2008, 2010, 2012) teacher leadership model which indicates that teachers can lead in zone one-inside the classroom. In addition, I also observed Change Laboratory workshops in which ‘data were mirrored’ and teachers’ interactions, as well as involvement in the informal activities (Yin, 2009) that happened in the school such as morning assembly, commemoration of AIDS Awareness Day and the Day of the African Child. This basically means that observation complemented and strengthened my data collected from other tools and enriched my findings.



Figure 3.1: Observation of the AIDS Awareness Day

Although I generated valuable data during my series of observations, I can attest that they were potentially intrusive in that my presence might have changed the dynamics of the situation (Bertram & Christiansen, 2014). This translates to say, participants as well as other staff members might have behaved differently in some way, from their usual practices. Furthermore, I could not be at all the places where valuable events might have happened for me to capture them, which might have led to the omission of important data in the process. The next section presents the Change Laboratory workshops which constituted phase two of data collection process.

3.4.5 Change Laboratory workshops

The Developmental Work Research (DWR) is applied around a series of sessions called ‘Change Laboratory workshops’ in which the researcher and participants jointly interrogate tensions and contradictions within and between different dimensions of the activity system (Sannino, 2011). As already mentioned in Chapter Two, Section 2.5.7, Change Laboratory (CL) workshops was the last tool employed for data collecting process. The aim of the Change Laboratory workshops was that it allowed research practitioners (researcher and participants) to question the contradictions within existing practices in order to germinate new knowledge and new forms of activity which are learned as they are created (Engeström, 1999). According to Virkkunen and Newnham (2013), a

Change Laboratory workshop helps participants to transform their practices and collect information important in developing theory and knowledge. Moreover, Mukute (2010) notes that Change Laboratory workshops, as developed by Engeström is based on double stimulation which “supports the objective of research which seeks to transform and improve the conditions of the research participants” (p. 137) within their setting. This happened in the set-up as shown in the figure below.

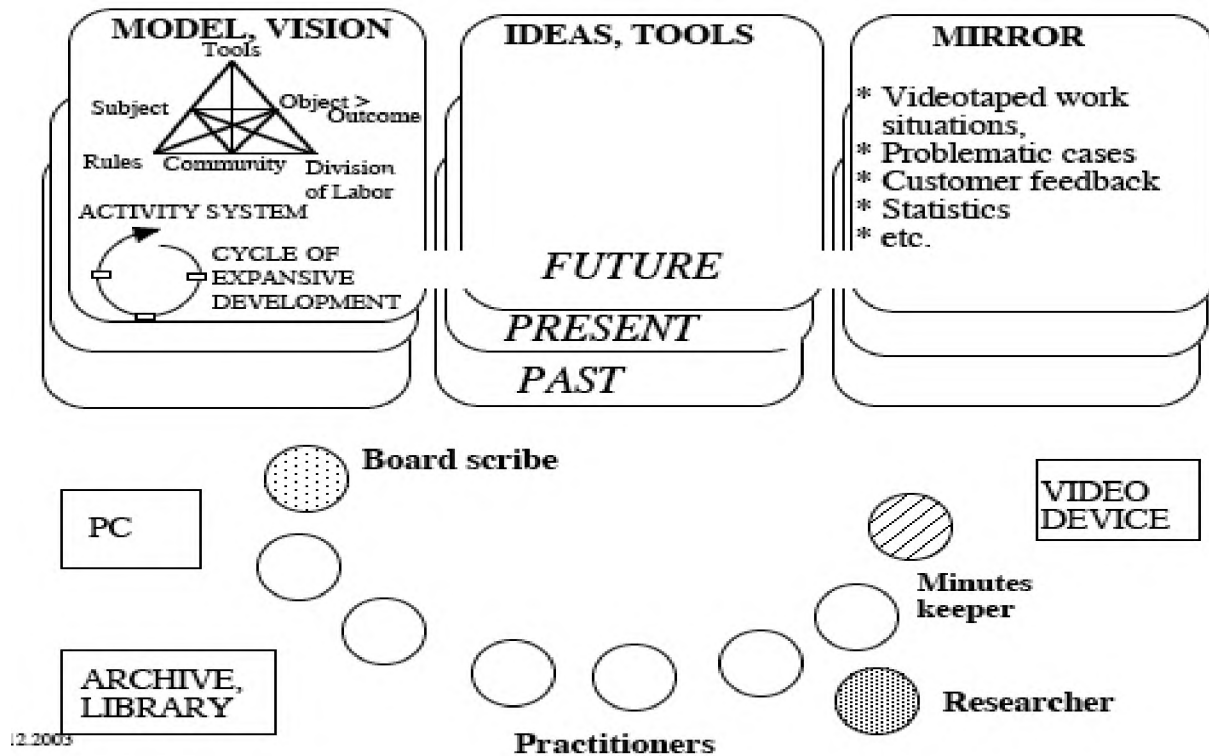


Figure 3.2: Layout of Change Laboratory workshop (Engeström, 1999)

The fundamental idea of the Change Laboratory workshop was to “find a way to overcome inner contradictions in the activity system by expanding the object” (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013, p. 231). According to Masilela (2017), the central tool of the Change Laboratory “is a set of three areas, with three overlapping surfaces, representing the past, present and future work practices” (p. 35). The mirror surfaces of the right-hand column were used to provide the practitioners with a mirror of their activity by representing concrete data, including disturbances and contradictions concerning the activity, to be jointly examined as experienced within the practice of level-one teachers. The Mirror/Present surface was further used to represent and examine experiences from

work practices, particularly problem situations and disturbances, but also novel innovative solutions (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013). Videotaped work episodes as well as photographs, stories, interviews, quotes and narrative accounts were used as sources of mirror data and the mirror of the past comprised data and observations concerning historical changes in the activity (*ibid.*).

The second area, ‘model/vision’, was reserved for theoretical tools and conceptual analysis. In this area, the triangular model of the second generation of CHAT (Figure 2.3 in Chapter Two) was used to analyse the development and interconnections of the work activities under scrutiny. Furthermore, the “systemic roots of specific but recurring problems and disturbances are traced and conceptualised as inner contradictions in the structure of the activity” (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013, p. 16). The third area in the middle was reserved for ideas and intermediate cognitive tools in analyses of the problematic situations (Engeström, 2007a). Virkkunen and Newnham (2013) also contend that the ideas/tools surfaces in the middle are “reserved for representing these as well as the insights the participants gain as they move between the experiential mirror and the theoretical model/vision surfaces” (p. 17). In addition, the expansive learning theory takes place throughout the process and enables practitioners to analyse current practices as well as learning what was not there within their activity system.

In this study, two Change Laboratory workshops were conducted (one workshop per week). The first workshop was conducted on the 18th July 2017 in the school library and it lasted for one hour thirty minutes. I invited 10 participants (seven interviewed staff members and three other non-participants), however, only the interviewed staff members attended the workshop. Moreover, I was assisted by a non-research staff member who volunteered to video-record the workshop proceedings while I played the role of a facilitator. Due to the uncondusive setting in terms of space, I did not arrange the workshop set-up as described by Virkkunen and Newnham (2013). Besides that, I used a projector to ‘mirror the data’ and I also prepared hard copies in case of a power failure. In this workshop, data collected from document analysis, questionnaires and individual interviews were ‘mirrored’ as a first stimulus that demonstrate the current practice as well as challenging the problematic aspects of the current activity (Engeström, 1999).



Figure 3.3: A first Change Laboratory workshop session

Central to this workshop, was the discussion of the empirical data about the challenges within the current practice of teacher leadership development, and the workshop provided conceptual tools for disclosing the systemic causes of the identified problems and for creating a model of the future form of the activity (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013).

The second workshop was conducted on the 01st August 2017 in the same venue as the first workshop. This happened after a few postponements due to the absence of participants. In this workshop, six participants that attended the first workshop were present and they were joined by the school principal who just returned from her leave. Meanwhile, two participants could not attend the workshop since one was transferred to another school, while the other one was attending a different workshop. Nonetheless, during the second CL workshop, we (researcher-interventionist and participants) identified the inner contradictions within the current practices of teacher leadership development (Sannino, 2011), and collaboratively developed new solutions using expansive learning (Engeström, 1999). Further to that, workshop participants were able to design partial solutions as a future model towards implementing change within teacher leadership development. In trying to cope with the problem, the actors employed artefacts that served the function of meaningful signs. These signs moved to the second stimuli where participants gain control of and transform the problematic situation (Modelling) into a new way of doing things within their practice.

During Change Laboratory workshops, I continuously observed the interactions, actions, concepts and behaviours of my participants in order to identify cultural-historical tensions within their context. After the workshops, the video recordings were played repeatedly. This helped me to generate valuable data that I later summarised and analysed further, in answering my fourth research question.

3.4.6 Data analysis

I found it necessary to start analysing my data concurrently within the data collection process. This allowed me to progressively focus on my interviews, questionnaires and observations, and to decide how to assess the emerging conclusions (Maxwell, 2008, p. 236). As Leedy and Ormrod (2010) argue, “a case study researcher often begins to analyse data during the data collection process” (p. 138). Since this was a qualitative case study underpinned by a formative intervention while taking a critical stance, I analysed my data inductively. This facilitated the process of the data being allowed to speak for itself without imposing a theoretical lens (Maxwell, 2012).

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) “qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for, and explaining the data; in short making sense of data in terms of participants’ definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities” (p. 182). At this point, I used raw data collected to develop categories and generate themes.

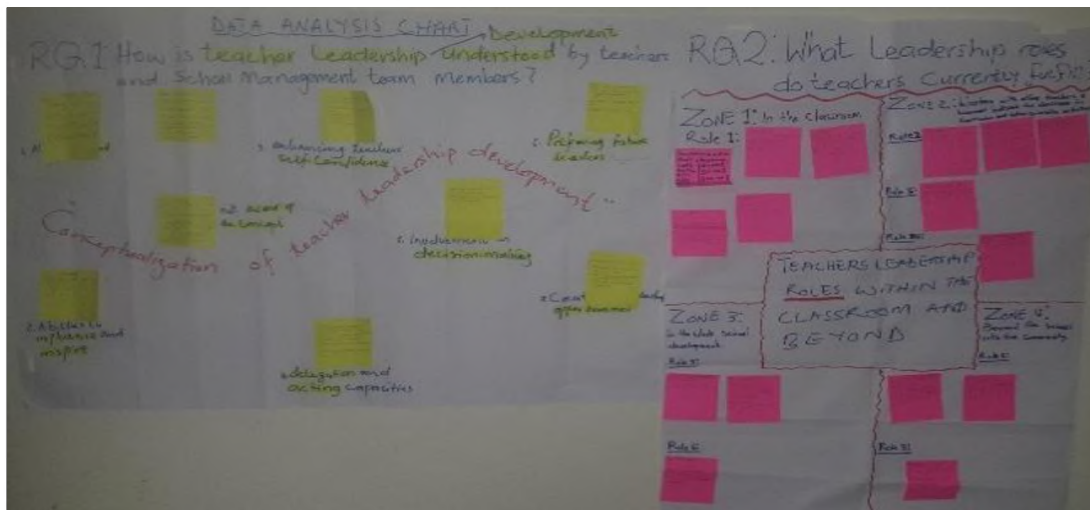


Figure 3.4: Inductive analysis process

Thereafter, I used the Zones and Roles Model of Teacher Leadership (Grant, 2006; 2008; 2012) as an analytical tool to analyse the data qualitatively by drawing patterns, themes and relationships (see the model in Section 2.4.2) to address research questions one, two and three. Moreover, I also drew on distributed leadership as a conceptual framework to understand how teacher leadership development was practiced by participants through their interaction with one another and the school environment (Spillane, 2006). Again, I used inductive analysis whereby I categorised and coded data, but this time according to the four zones of the model while using relevant literature to support or contrast.

Similarly, CHAT triangular model (see Section 5.2 in Chapter Five) was used as an analytical tool. This is because CHAT is concerned with the cultural-historical aspects of human activity. In response to the second part of my third research question, I analysed the data in order to understand how things had come to be through past events and how various elements of the activity system (rules, mediating tools, subject, object, community and division of labour) were interacting with each other to influence the development of teachers as leaders (Masilela, 2017). Thereafter, the data was mirrored in Change Laboratory workshops to search for systemic causes of tensions and contradictions within teacher leadership practice as emerging from the analysis (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013). Moreover, data collected during the Change Laboratory workshops were further analysed to address my fourth research question. However, it was also equally important to test the validity and trustworthiness of the analysed data during this process and below is a detailed discussion.

3.5 Validity and trustworthiness

To establish an acceptable authenticity and trustworthiness of my study, I cross-checked my data by triangulating primary data from the four tools I used. Bush (as cited in Briggs, Coleman & Morrison, 2012, p. 84) refers to triangulation as the use of multi-methods of collecting data in order to “determine the accuracy of information or phenomenon by cross-checking data and establishing its validity”. Moreover, triangulation reduces the “risk of chance associations and of systematic biases due to a specific method and allows a better assessment of the generality of the explanations that one develops” (Maxwell, 2008, p. 245).

I piloted my data collection tools with my supervisor, my colleagues doing the MEd course, and with some non-participant teachers at the case school (in Namibia). This was an internal validity test. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007, p. 135) argue that internal validity “seeks to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which a piece of research provides can actually be sustained by the data”. Moreover, respondent validation was used by giving feedback for participants to reconcile whether the transcribed data carried their intended meaning and understanding (Maxwell, 2008). This reduced the possibility of misinterpretation of raw data. In this way, a fairly accurate description, interpretation, reporting and presentation of raw data used as ‘mirror data’ in the Change Laboratory workshops and throughout the research process were produced to ensure the descriptive and interpretative validity (Maxwell, 1992). In addition, all interview interactions and Change Laboratory workshops were recorded, and those recordings were played over and over during the transcription to ensure that no mistakes were made. Finally, I relied on self-reflexivity as another way of validating my data. Janse van Rensburg (2001, p. 11) argues that “in critical research there is much emphasis on making explicit one’s standpoint as a researcher, however the aim is not to ‘confess’, but to explain that this ‘bias’ informs the research ... the research was undertaken from this value-laden position”.

3.6 Research ethics

The word “ethics” in research, according to Mouton (2001, p. 238), concerns “what is wrong and what is right in the conduct of research”. In addition, ethics or ethical behaviour refers to acting “in accordance with principles of conduct that are considered correct, especially those of a given profession or group” (Kumar, 2005, p. 210). Before I commenced with the data collection process, ethical clearance certificate was obtained from the university (Appendix A). Hence, my research was carried out in an ethical manner in accordance with ethical standards. I started negotiating my entrance to the research school by writing letters seeking permission to conduct my study from the Oshikoto Regional Director of Education as well as from the principals of the site school (See Appendix B & D), and subsequently the permission was granted (Appendix C). Moreover, I prepared consent letters to all participants which were signed showing willingness to participate in the study (Appendix E). The purpose of the consent letter was to assure the participants on the issue of respect and dignity, by protecting their identity while safeguarding their rights and

confidentiality (Wassenaar, 2006). At the same time, participants were assured their “right to withdraw from the study should they wish to at any time” (Kruger, Ndebele, & Horn, 2014, p. 58). This was to build trust. Creswell (2003, p. 65) mentions that the “ethical code of conduct for a researcher is to protect the privacy of the participants and to convey this protection to all individuals involved in the study to build trust”.

Although I explained the purpose of my study as well as how the study was going to benefit the participants, the school and the entire education fraternity, I also arranged a meeting with the teaching staff (7th June 2017) where I explained the research process including tools for data collection. This was important for participants to make informed decisions whether to participate or not, since participation was voluntarily (Gilbert, 2009). For accountability and professionalism, all data, individual responses and recordings were safely stored and will not be divulged to anyone (except the supervisor), nor will the reporting of findings be done in a manner that allows easy identification of participants (Briggs, Coleman, & Morrison, 2012). It was also important for me to conduct myself professionally during my research process by respecting the cultural practices of the school in terms of my actions, language and personal conduct by adhering to the code of conduct. Thus, I employed the highest level of “scientific and professional integrity”, and avoided “falsification, fraud and the abuse of participants in any way that takes advantage of power which comprises my objectivity” (Wassenaar, 2006, p. 77).

3.7 Conclusion

In this chapter I described the methodological orientation and processes employed during my research. Furthermore, I described the research site, research participants and how they were selected. Finally, I explained how I maintained and ensured that issues of validity and trustworthiness, and ethical considerations were upheld in the study.

In the next chapters (Chapter Four and Five) raw data will be presented and discussed. Chapter Four is the first of the presentation and discussion of the findings chapters. In this chapter, I will address research questions one, two and the first part of question three. Grant’s Model of Teacher

Leadership and the relevant leadership literature will also be linked to my discussion and presentation of my findings.

In Chapter Five, I will focus on the challenges hampering teacher leadership development in the school. CHAT will be used as an analytical framework to surface the contradictions within the activity system. Moreover, the intervention process through Change Laboratory workshops will also be discussed as an alternative to the surfaced challenges. This chapter will address the second part of my third research question, as well as the fourth research question respectively. I now present Chapter Four.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTERROGATING THE UNDERSTANDING OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the first chapter of data presentation and discussion, I present and discuss the data as generated from data gathering tools such as questionnaires, document analysis, interviews and observation as outlined in the preceding chapter. In this chapter, I draw on Grant’s (2006; 2008; 2010) ‘Model of Teacher Leadership’ in presenting and discussing the findings. This was because the model offers a “tool to describe the practices of teacher leadership in terms of the zones or places where teacher leaders are most likely to lead, the roles they are most likely to take up in each of the zones and the indicators attached to each of these roles” (Grant, 2012, p. 7).

I used different codes in making references to the source of raw data (this includes the tools and primary participants) in the data presentation and discussion. This was done to uphold ethical issues.

Table 4.1: Codes for data sources

PARTICIPANT	CODES
Acting principal	SMT1
Head of Department (HoD)	SMT2
Level-one teachers	LT1-5
School board chairperson	SGB
OTHER SOURCES	
Questionnaires (section) (question)	Q (A-D) (1-10)
Personal Interview	PI
Document Analysis	DA 1-5
Observation	O 1-2

This chapter is organised in response to the first three research questions. These are:

1. *How is teacher leadership development understood by teachers and the school management team (SMT) members?*
2. *What leadership roles do teachers currently fulfill?*
3. *What are the conditions that promote teacher leadership development in the school?*

In the first section, this chapter presents how participants expressed their views conceptualising the notion of teacher leadership development in response to my first research question. Following that, the chapter presents the findings on leadership roles that teachers were fulfilling in their classrooms and beyond within the research site, to answer the second research question. This was done in relation to the zones of Grant's 'Model of Teacher Leadership'. In the last section, the conditions that promoted teacher leadership development will be presented, in response to my third research question. At this point, I now turn to the conceptualisation of teacher leadership development.

4.2 Conceptualisation of teacher leadership development

This section begins by summarising the data generated from interviews as well as from the questionnaires in answering my research question: *How is teacher leadership development understood by teachers and school management team members?* This question required participants to provide their own views and understanding of the concept. From their responses as I analysed the data, I found out that their perceptions and understanding of the concept varied. This is also shown in literature that indicates that teacher leadership is a broad and complex concept to define (Muijs & Harris, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004; Grant, 2005; Grant, 2006).

It was on these grounds that I generated four sub-themes, namely: (1) Ability to lead, influence and inspire (2) Teacher leadership as a shared leadership (3) Involvement of teachers in decision-making (4) Capacity building and teachers' empowerment, to describe my participants' understanding, which will be discussed in the following sections. To me, these sub-themes are all a set of behaviours and practices amongst teachers and school management team members.

Generally, almost all participants had a basic understanding that teacher leadership development was about developing teachers' leadership skills and abilities into a professional function of teachers, whereby they could lead at various levels within the school. However, some participants (LT2, LT5, Q1, Q2, Q3 & Q4) said it was a new concept to them and they were not able to explain or define it. Hereunder, I begin to present and discuss how participants conceptualised teacher leadership development.

4.2.1 Ability to lead, influence and inspire

Most participants when interviewed, felt that teacher leadership development was about enhancing their abilities to lead, influence and inspire learners in their classrooms, as well as other teachers within the school. In support of this argument, the acting principal said that an ordinary teacher can *“lead others, including the management in a certain activity and one can do it better than the management member”* (SMT1). Adding to this, teacher LT5 said *“it is about developing teachers in leadership skills and ability for them to lead their classrooms and influencing learners and others”*. Other participants also echoed during the interview that it was about being given a position to lead their class and within several committees at different levels in the school (LT3 and SMT1). While several interviewees (LT1, LT2 & SMT2) all said that it was about leading and managing your class. One teacher (LT4) went further and said, *“Teacher leadership development is having abilities to influence and inspire your learners and other teachers”*.

Questionnaires also revealed that all participants strongly agreed or agreed that teachers lead in their classrooms and in different committees within the school. With these responses, I came to conclude that teacher leadership development is understood as a means to lead others through positive influence and inspiration. Literature also reveals that teacher leadership involves leading and influencing others. For example, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p. 17) assert that teacher leaders *“are teachers who lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teachers, learners and leaders, and influence others towards improved educational practice”*. While Grant (2008) suggests that teacher leadership development is about *“teachers becoming aware and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond”* (p. 186). So, this suggests that everyone can be a leader within the school, whether in a

formal designated position or not. This was evident when most participants from the questionnaires agreed that everyone can lead.

4.2.2 Teacher leadership as shared leadership

Since there were multiple understandings and views of teacher leadership development as a concept among my research participants, some understood it as a form of shared leadership which involved sharing roles, delegation and providing opportunities for all to lead. This understanding relates to a distributed perspective that views leadership as “more than shared leadership” and there are “multiple individuals taking responsibility for leadership” (Spillane, 2006, p. 3). For instance, the HoD stated that *“It is also about extending leadership from up-down, giving equal opportunities to everyone to experience leadership”* (SMT2, PI). Adding to this, teacher (LT2) during the interview asserted that teachers usually get an opportunity to chair meetings, take minutes and head different committees – *“to me, this is what leadership development is all about”*.

Furthermore, most participants in their interviews, contended that teacher leadership development is when they are given opportunities to act in formal positions and are delegated to perform different tasks within the school or beyond. For example, one teacher said that *“It is about acting in the leadership positions”* (LT1). While the HoD (SMT2) felt that teacher leadership development is about *“management’s willingness to delegate teachers to fulfill leadership activities within the school or outside, like attending principals’ meetings or go to workshops and later give feedback to others”*. This suggests that leadership is shared through the creation of these opportunities and space by distributing leadership where teachers learn by doing. As Harris and Lambert (2003, p. xii) put it, distributed leadership is “the process of creating the spaces, the contexts and the opportunities for expansion, enhancement and growth for all”. Adding a similar sentiment, one SMT member said, *“We also do delegate in our absentia. ... For example, I delegated two of my colleagues to lead the social science department when I was in Windhoek. ... In this way that is another way of exposure to leadership”* (SMT2). I therefore believe that when leadership is shared through delegation, the main issue here is the creation of wider opportunities and developing teachers into leaders. This in a way is “implying that those opportunities are open to all or even equal” (Lumby, 2013, p. 583).

4.2.3 Involvement of teachers in decision-making

Literature reveals that it is important to involve teachers in decision-making for them to commit to that decision with a sense of ownership. In support of this claim, Weiss and Cambone (2000, p. 350) assert that “when teachers share in decision-making, they become committed to the decisions that emerge. They buy into the decision; they feel a sense of ownership; therefore, they are more likely to see that decisions are actually implemented”. This was evident in my study since most participants (LT1, LT3, SMT1 & SMT2) from their interviews expressed that teacher leadership development was about involving teachers in school decision-making. As one participant stated, “*The way I understand it, I think it’s developing the teacher’s leadership skills, you are involving teachers in decision-making or management decisions*” (SMT1). Ingram and Fessler explain that teacher leadership requires that teachers become full partners in school-based planning, decision-making, and assessment (1997, pp. 1-7).

4.2.4 Capacity building and teacher empowerment

One of the sub-themes emerging from participants’ responses from interviews on their understanding of teacher leadership development, was capacity building and empowerment. For example, the school board chairperson (SBC) in his interview, felt that it was important to develop teachers as leaders by preparing them to “*look after the wellbeing of the school when the principal or heads of departments are not there*”. Moreover, one of the SMT members believed: “*It is our obligation and responsibility to prepare teachers for further responsibilities and careers*” (SMT2).

One teacher (LT3, PI) felt that if teachers are developed as leaders they develop a sense of confidence whereby “*one does not need to be pushed to do things... so, that is teacher leadership because it empowers us*”. In other words when teachers are empowered they become confident in their work and are “*able to initiate new things*” echoed the acting principal (SMT1, PI). Relating to the issue of empowerment, Woods, Bennett, Harvey and Wise (2004, p. 449) stress that “distributed leadership is concerned with how an organisation constrains or enables different organisational members to take initiatives and contribute to the development of practice”. This points to the notion that empowered members of an organisation have all it takes to change their

organisation by working collaboratively and exercising their expertise and bringing new initiatives.

Another teacher (LT5) interviewed, also said that in a school context a teacher leader:

is a person who is having a high standard of self-driven character... having a sense of confidence to initiate tasks and things and is free to give out his view despite being right or wrong. ... just to give his position and opinion ... that to me that person is a leader... who does not wait to be pushed but does things on his own.

Although his argument was based on teacher leader as a person, the conclusion can still be drawn that teacher leadership development can empower teachers to become self-driven as well as “*independent thinkers*” (SMT1, PI). All these responses allude to the notion that by empowering teachers through capacity building, you are generally developing them to become skillful in their work including leadership activities. Relating to this claim, Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 438) also refer to “teacher leadership for school capacity building as broad-based, and skillful involvement in the work of leadership”.

The conceptualisation of teacher leadership development by participants led me to conclude that their understanding of the concept was based mostly on the roles, attitudes and mutual trust within the school. In other words, their understanding was mostly based on their daily work and interactions. The Namibian national policy ‘Set of Job Descriptions’ (2008b) describes that the daily work of a teacher is, but not limited “to engage in class teaching, including the academic, administrative, educational and disciplinary aspects and to organise extra and co-curricular activities” (p. 1). With this understanding, literature also asserts that teacher leadership is “conceptualised as a set of behaviours and practices that are undertaken collectively. ... concerned with the relationships and connections among individuals within a school” (Muijs & Harris, 2007, p. 112). I would say all these tasks which teachers are performing in the school and beyond, including their behaviours, have in one way or another influenced their understanding of teacher leadership development as a concept. With this conclusion, I begin to present and discuss the leadership roles that teachers were fulfilling in the research site school.

4.3 Teacher leadership roles within the classroom and beyond

This section presents data generated from interviews, questionnaires, document analysis and observations to describe the roles that teacher leaders were fulfilling in the school and beyond. To remind the reader, I used Grant's Model of Four Zones, Six Roles and Forty-Three Indicators of Teacher Leadership (Grant, 2012). The model is presented in Chapter Two under Section 2.4.2. The model was used because it offers a "tool to describe the practices of teacher leadership in terms of the zones" or places where teacher leaders were most likely to lead, the "roles they are most likely to take up in each of the zones and the indicators attached to each of these roles" (Grant, 2017, p. 7). Resonating with this model, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p. 17) see teacher leaders "as teachers who lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others towards improved educational practice". In summary, the data set revealed that teachers led in all four zones though their roles differed. I now present and discuss the roles per zone.

4.3.1 Zone one: Teachers lead in the classroom

Grant's 'Model of Teacher Leadership' indicates that teachers within this first zone, are believed to be leaders while they continue teaching and improving their skills and expertise (Role One). Within this classroom zone and its role, Harris and Lambert (2003, p. 44) also identify teacher leaders as those teachers who are "expert teachers who spend most of their time in their classrooms" because as professional, teachers are "first of all competent in the classroom through the facilitation of students' learning" (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 6). This was evident across the data sets from my case study school. The data revealed that teachers led in their classrooms where they taught their subjects, set rules and instilled discipline, kept records while guiding learners and took decisions. For example, the HoD who was also the acting principal said, "*Most teachers exercise their leadership in their classroom as class register and subject teachers*" (SMT1, PI). All participants echoed this (Q). Moreover, another SMT member went further by stating that "*The role of teachers in the classroom is to teach their subject properly*" (SMT2, PI). Adding to this, the Namibian national policy 'Set of Job Descriptions' (2008b, p. 1) also echoes that teachers' role in the classroom is to "*accept responsibility for providing quality teaching*" (DA1). It is evident from the data that teachers' roles in the classroom involves, but are not limited

to, “demonstrate mastery of subject content and facts related to the subject/s being taught” (Namibia. MEC, 2006, p. 12).

While a few interviewees (LT2, LT4 & SMT1) did not speak of record keeping as one of the duties of a teacher leader, other participants indicated that it was one of their tasks. Responses from questionnaires also echoed this. I learned that the ‘Set of Job Descriptions’ compelled teachers to keep personal records, file/subject files, complete attendance registers every day and other administrative tasks (MoE, 2008b). In relation to this, the ‘National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia’ (2006, p. 77) also states that “teachers must keep attendance registers, subject files and preparation; assessment files and records; and records of classroom furniture, textbooks, stationery and other resources”. Putting this into practice, the HoD mentioned that “*One has to make sure that all learners are present, and they have done their homework*” (SMT2). So, keeping records was quite evident in my case study school, since I happened to observe teachers submitting their completed attendance registers to the principal’s office (where I was stationed) every Friday of the week (O1). The minutes of one staff meeting, 9th June 2016 (DA4i), outlined that teachers were requested to submit their subject continuous assessment records for the second trimester “*before or on the 8 July 2016*”. With this, I concluded that teachers were in line with Grant (2012) who states that teachers lead in their classrooms, by involving processes of record keeping and reflective practice. However, it also worth noting that issues of record-keeping and reflective practice are mostly linked to managerial related tasks.

Another indicator (6) that emerged from all sets of data, was that teachers’ role in the classroom was to set rules and maintain discipline. This was evident in the document ‘Set of Job Descriptions’ that compels teachers to “*establish and maintain standards of learners’ behaviour and discipline required to provide an orderly and productive learning environment in the classroom*” (DA1). On this indicator, data from questionnaires revealed that almost all participants strongly agreed or agreed that they set clear classroom rules and maintained discipline. Only four participants out of a total of 23 disagreed on this indicator. On the same note, one teacher said, “*I should deal with classroom control and management by... set up rules and instill discipline by making sure that all learners adhere to those rules and regulation*” (LT1, PI); while another participant echoed that “*I*

have to make sure that all learners are behaving and obeying the rules from the way they talk, dress, walk ... so, if there is indiscipline, I deal with it” (LT2, PI). She continued by saying *“We also help them by telling them what is right or wrong”*. Sharing the same sentiment, the HoD pointed out that apart from teaching, teacher leaders were also managers of their classrooms because they organise, supervise, control and maintain discipline in their classrooms. He said, *“These are all elements of leadership”* (SMT2, PI). My conclusion here from the data sets was that teacher leaders created a classroom environment conducive to learning and appropriate to the needs of the learners (MoE, 2008b).

According to Grant’s model (2006; 2008; 2010), when teachers lead in their classrooms, they show initiative and engage in autonomous decision-making to make changes in classrooms which facilitate effective teaching and learning processes. On this indicator, I observed how teachers made decisions in their respective classes. For example, in one class, the teacher took a decision by instructing/getting his class to do a role-play instead of a poem they prepared for AIDS Awareness Day commemoration. She said, *“Poems are for Grade 8s, you are senior learners and you’ve to take the lead by dramatising the danger of the pandemic... so you’re going to make a short drama on that ... that’s final”* (O2). The teacher did not just make a decision, but also initiated a concrete educative activity.



Figure 4.1: Grade 12B drama group

Like the above observation, the acting principal felt that when involving teachers in decision-making, you are developing their independent thoughts that they can use in making decisions without being influenced (SMT1, PI). He clarified:

Like in the classroom, it is where they have to develop that kind of leadership skills, they have to make decisions there because learners are many or when you find yourself in a situation where you are many and then you have different opinions on something and you have to make that one decision – so in a case where the teacher is a leader in a classroom they try to make the final decision.

This was evidence that the participant saw it as important for teacher leaders to act autonomously when in their classrooms, without much reliance on the SMT (Harris & Muijs, 2005). On the other hand, one interviewee stressed that it was always vital to consider the learners' interests when the decision is taken (LT3). In summary, the data showed that when teachers were taking decisions, it was an indication of authentic leadership, given the fact that being decisive is regarded as one of the strong characteristics of a leader (Hamatwi, 2015).

I conclude this section in the belief that the sets of data from my case study school have revealed that participants were involved in a range of leadership and management roles in their classrooms. I can therefore be certain that for teacher leadership to have more of an impact, it should ideally begin in the classroom zone, as expert teachers continue to teach and improve their own teaching for them to be able to lead beyond their classroom (Grant, 2010). This understanding led me to the second zone of teacher leadership, where teachers lead beyond their classroom with other teachers and learners in curricular activities, as discussed hereunder.

4.3.2 Zone two: Working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities

In this zone, teacher leadership roles have expanded outwards from the confinement of the classroom (Harris & Lambert, 2003). According to the model, teacher leaders work with other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities (Grant, 2006; 2008; 2010). Katzenmeyer and Moller (2009, p. 7) assert that “leading beyond the classroom provides an opportunity for teachers to interact with other adults in the school” and this created a culture of

collective and collaborative enterprise. The sets of data from this study have shown evidence that this zone consisted of three significant roles within which teachers were operating.

4.3.2.1 Role two: Providing curriculum development knowledge

Within this first role in Zone Two, teachers were expected to lead others by providing curriculum development through knowledge sharing. In support of this claim, the national policy document ‘Set of Job Descriptions’ (2008b, p. 3) compels principal/HoD (SMT) to “deploy and develop the staff (level-one teachers) to make most effective use of their skills, expertise and experiences. ... ensure that all staff understand their respective roles and responsibilities”. To substantiate what the policy was advocating, the acting principal stated that “*We do have subject heads and they are responsible for how the subjects are being administered. ... they are expected to visit other colleagues when they are presenting lessons and help where necessary. So that is another form of leadership*” (SMT1, PI). Similarly, three interviewees (LT1, LT3 & LT4) confirmed that they were also serving as subject heads for their respective subjects (PI). One participant further elaborated that “*I have to give support to my fellow teachers in the subject matters. So, I have to lead and engage with all teachers at the same times, monitoring teaching and learning activities*” (LT3).

All these responses were in line with the policy which outlines that teachers are expected to “guide proper subject planning and to assist and guide teachers by providing specialist assistance to the subject teachers in the subject and to conduct effective induction programs for newly appointed subject teachers” (MoE, 2008b, p. 1). In terms of this indicator, I also observed two Mathematics teachers who were setting a test together in the afternoon (O1). Similar to this observation, the minutes of the Science Department meeting also showed that teachers were expected to plan together as it reads, “*The HoD stressed that teachers teaching the same subject should plan together and give common tests and tasks ... we have to help one another*” (DA4iii). It further became evident from the response of the HoD who echoed that “*We have to make our teachers understand that teaching comes with responsibilities as outlined by the job descriptions. ... already compelling you to take leadership position, so they have to assist others in their subjects*” (SMT2, PI). To me that reflected the dimension of teacher leadership which was focused upon mutual assistance in pulling expertise together among teachers (Harris & Muijs, 2005). Similarly, Spillane (2006, p. 13) also asserts that “leadership is more than what individuals in formal leadership

positions do. So individually or collectively, teachers take on leadership responsibilities, including mentoring peers and providing professional development”.

There was also evidence that teachers in the case study school served in extra-curricular activities through different committees within the school (DA5). As stipulated in the 'Set of Job Descriptions' (2008b, p. 2), a teacher should “organise, lead and supervise learners in extra-mural activities and motivate them to participate”. With reference to this indicator, most participants responded that “*teachers lead in extra-curricular activities*” (Q, C4). During the interviews, the majority of participants echoed that they serve in extra-curricular activities such as sport, cultural festivals and Student Christian Movement (SCM). For example, the HoD (SMT2) mentioned that “*We encourage and motivate learners and colleagues to participate in social activities*”. Reinforcing what the HoD mentioned, one teacher said, “*Apart from discipline, I am also a leader for SCM ... I am the one who is directing and assisting those learners in these religious activities*” (LT1). He further stated that he was the head coach for the girls-soccer team (LT1). I was able to observe SCM rehearsals as they prepared for the school AIDS Awareness Day. One teacher (LT4) differed with others when it came to extra-curricular activities. Though he was also part of the sport and fundraising committee in the school, he felt that he was not contributing or leading there because “*the game that I like (Chess) is not in the school sport codes, so I have nothing to contribute because I am not good at soccer or volleyball*”.

I was also privileged to observe the school cultural event on 15th June 2017 as they commemorated an AIDS Awareness Day. During the morning assembly, the leading teacher (LT5) gave an overview of what was going to happen and requested all teachers and their classes to be prepared. He informed the assembly by saying, “*Also prepare your posters with educative messages on the pandemic ... we are going to march from school to the location before the programme starts in the hall*” (O2). This event reflected what was discussed in the staff briefing on the 14th June 2017 as my observation note reveals that, “*staff members discussed how the AIDS awareness day was going to be commemorated ... life skills teacher LT5 led the discussion and was vividly supported by others*” (O2). The picture below shows how teachers and learners marched from school to the location.



Figure 4.2: Teachers and learners marching during AIDS awareness campaign.

The data signalled that teachers in the case study school carried out leadership roles as mandated by the national policy ‘National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia’ (2006, p. 86) which requires teachers to “address cross-curricular issues in their planning, design, preparation and delivery of learning, and demonstrate general awareness with particular reference to HIV/AIDS”.

This data provided me with evidence from participants in the case study site that teachers were using their skills, expertise and experiences in providing curriculum development and leading others within their subject areas. In relation to Grant’s Model of Teacher Leadership (2006; 2008; 2010), especially in Zone 2, Role Two and the indicators, literature reveals some similar arguments which may add value to this model. For example, York-Barr and Duke (2004, p. 263) contend that:

Teacher leadership is practiced through a variety of formal and informal positions, roles, and channels of communication in the daily work of schools. Sometimes teachers serve in formal leadership positions, such as union representatives, department (subject) heads, curriculum specialists, mentors, or members of a site-based management team.

With this understanding, I now present Role Three within this zone.

4.3.2.2 Role three: Leading in-service education and assisting other teachers

The third role in Zone Two was mostly concerned with teachers leading in-service education and assisting other teachers by mentoring others, peer coaching, team and capacity building for staff development while building a strong interpersonal relationship among staff members within the school (Grant, 2012). The ‘Set of Job Descriptions for teachers’ (2008b, p. 3) compels teachers “to contribute to the professional development of colleagues by sharing knowledge, ideas and resources”. I observed that there was a group of teachers who were attending afternoon computer classes every Wednesday of the week (O1). The ICT teacher trained others and echoed that “*When I came here I found out that most of the colleagues were not integrating ITC in their lessons, so I came up with an ITC group and I am training them to improve their skills*” (LT2, PI). However, she raised a concern that some teachers were not interested since they were withdrawing from the programme. She indicated that “*Maybe it is because there is no qualification and they are not paying. ... when something is for free teachers are not interested, so we have to find a way to motivate teachers to join these initiatives because they are important for their development*” (LT2, PI).

Furthermore, teacher (LT1, PI) mentioned that:

Usually I am a coordinator for science project or science activity. ... here I usually guide teachers and their learners to come-up with good project especially in biology and life science, constructing a model of a certain structure which learners can use this project to go for this ... science tour things (fairs) whether at the circuit level or at regional level and sometimes some end at national level.

From the above quote, it was evident that the teacher played a mentor role towards other teachers and the learners within the school, and he subsequently capacitated them.

4.3.2.3 Role four: Participating in performance evaluation of teachers

According to Grant’s Model, this role constitutes participating in performance evaluation of teachers by conducting peer assessment through classroom observations, moderation of assessment tasks and marking criterion, and providing feedback for improvement of other teachers in a school. The ‘Set of Job Descriptions’ (2008b) requires teachers to “assist and guide other

teachers with setting and moderating of question papers and other assessment tasks”. It was evident that half of the participants in the case study school were always part of curricular development through informal peer assessment activities (Q). This showed that there were some teachers working in isolation within the school.

Data further revealed that teachers were observing others in the classroom, and moderating others’ work. For example, the acting principal pointed out that *“We have many subject heads here and they used to visit other teachers in their classrooms when presenting lessons. ... so, after that they have to give feedback to others”* (SMT1, PI). On a similar point, one teacher (LT3, PI) mentioned that:

During the end of term, after making, the HoD says subject heads have to moderate the answer scripts and when the marks are entered in the mark sheets, they are again circulated among teachers of the same department for moderation. So, this is to involve everybody and for every teacher to learn how things are done.

Though I was not able to observe peer observations, during my informal observation in the staff room, some teachers gave their tasks to others to go through (O1).

In summary, the sets of data revealed that there were indications of teacher leadership across all roles in this zone. However, the degree of leadership involvement varied from role to role (Grant, Gardner, Kajee, Moodley, & Somaroo, 2010). Although teachers at the case study school were involved in leading other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities, “the opportunities for authentic leadership and teachers’ empowerment through team work, peer support and collaboration in relation to curriculum issues were the exception rather than the norm” (Grant et al., 2010, p. 411). In essence, the degree of decision-making and holistic school development was limited in this zone. I now move to the third zone where teachers lead outside the classroom in the whole school development.

4.3.3 Zone three: Teachers leading outside the classroom in whole school development

In this third zone, teacher leaders mainly take up Role Five and Six outside their classroom, but within the whole school. Teachers took a lead in organising and leading peer reviews of the holistic school practice within Role Five; while in Role Six, they participated fully in school level decision-

making (Grant, 2012). Generally, data from this study indicated that teachers in the case study school led in all two roles within this zone. However, the data also revealed that some teachers felt left out in leadership roles within this zone.

4.3.3.1 Role five: Organising and leading peer reviews of school practice

This role was mostly evident in activities such as school self-evaluation (SSE), teachers' self-evaluation (TSE), SWOT analysis for school development plan (SDP) and plan of action for academic improvement (PAAI), vision and mission statement review, and other related internal policy formulation. This was in line with the national policy 'National Standards and Performance Indicators for Schools in Namibia' (2005, p. 9) which indicates that “the principal, management and teachers are required to do a school self-evaluation and review a school development plan annually in October”. In my study, it was evident that the majority of teachers were fully involved in the school self-evaluation (Q). Similarly, minutes of the staff meeting held on 12th October 2016 showed that staff members completed and discussed the school self-evaluation document and thereafter, they completed a SWOT analysis “*used to develop the School Development Plan and the Plan of Action for Academic Improvement*” (DA4, p. 2). It was further revealed in the document that teachers shared responsibilities and activities were presented in the SDP with specific target dates (DA6) and were further developed into the calendar of activity (DA7). Moreover, the minutes of the staff meeting held on the 5th March 2017 revealed that staff members discussed strategies for improving the academic performance (DA4vi). Besides the documents analysed and the data from questionnaires, none of the participants during the interviews mentioned this important role that teachers fulfilled in the school.

4.3.3.2 Role six: Participating in school level decision-making

According to Harris and Muijs (2005), “both school managers [SMT members] and teachers [in my study, level-one teachers] have to function as leaders and decision makers, and try to bring about fundamental changes” (2005, p. 133). Moreover, Stone et al. (1997, p. 52) also highlight that “teachers have the expertise and experience to engage in all aspects of schooling; therefore, they should be given the opportunity to engage in meaningful decisions about their schools”. In relation to this literature, data sets from my study showed that teachers in the case school served in different committees and made decisions toward the functioning of the school. This was revealed in the set

of school committees' documents in which teachers were placed in different committees (DA5). Furthermore, data from the questionnaires indicated that the majority of teachers fulfilled leadership roles within the school through different committees (Q, C3).

During the interview, the HoD (SMT2) asserted that *"We do provide numerous or various opportunities ... we have demarcated our staff into different committees and in those committees, we have assigned teachers to different positions like chairperson, it has a vice-chairperson and every member of the committee has a role to play"*. Moreover, all participants indicated that they led in different committees (PI). For example, one teacher stated that *"We are given an opportunity to lead in different school committees"* (LT5). Another teacher further said *"I serve in finance and the stock-taking committee where we make sure that school properties are accounted for and not vandalised. So as a chairperson I have to organise my group and activities ... convening meetings and so on"* (LT2). This data indicated that through a distributed perspective of leadership, committees were formal structures in which teachers exercised their leadership skills and expertise. Therefore, it was evident that those formal structures contributed to the distribution of responsibilities for leadership to be shared among teachers (Spillane, 2006).

On a different note, one participant (LT4) pointed out his disappointment by stating that some teachers' decisions or initiatives were not considered (PI). He stated that there was favouritism within the management saying, *"that is poor leadership because if you are a leader and you are biased ... only focusing on some teachers ... it creates boundaries where you lock out some staff members"* (LT4).

On the other hand, the data revealed that the set of committees in the school did not only provide opportunities for teachers to lead but also provided a room for decision-making (DA5). This was evident in the set of committee documents closing statement that read, *"Therefore, make sure that your committee is fully and actively functioning for the holistic performance and development of the school"* (DA5, p. 6). In other words, committee members (teachers and SMT members) were expected to make appropriate decisions that would benefit the whole school. For example, in the interview, one management member said, when teachers lead those committees *"They have to*

make decisions because it's up to them to decide what is to be done. ... for as long as those decisions are shared during staff briefings or meetings” (SMT1). This was evident in a staff briefing of 14th June 2017, where I observed a sports’ committee chairperson informing the staff that sport activities were to be suspended for the whole term (O2). My notes read *“We have decided to suspend all sport codes for this term to allow teachers to finish their syllabus ... learners to prepare for the coming exams”* (O2).

Though there was some disagreement from some staff members, the decision was implemented, and it showed that at a certain level, teacher leaders were also part of decision-making in the school. In solidifying the teachers’ involvement in decision-making, the HoD pointed out that *“We normally make our decisions during our staff meetings and everybody is part of the decision. So, when everyone leaves, they will leave knowing that a certain decision has been taken and you are part of it”* (SMT2). Furthermore, it was evident from the study that the school was in line with the policy document ‘National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia’ (2006, p. 77), which requires teachers to:

participate in school decision-making structures and processes. Furthermore, this area of competence addresses the leader/manager role of the teacher, rather than the formal post appointment (i.e. not as Principal or HOD). Teachers often have other involvements and life experiences which equip them with leadership skills.

Though committees were believed to be formal leadership and management structures, Hatcher, (2005, p. 255) asserts that *“predominantly, leadership is currently locked into management structures. If we are to achieve distributive leadership models, we must therefore redesign the internal architecture of schools”*. This meant that by distributing leadership through different committees, the school created a culture of collegiality and collaboration and subsequently contributed to whole school development.

Apart from leading outside the classroom in whole school development, teachers in the case study school also led beyond the school into the community in zone four (Grant, 2008; 2012), which I present hereunder.

4.3.4 Zone four: Teacher leading beyond the school into the community

According to the 'Model', Role Two and Three are of significance in this zone whereby teachers lead in external (beyond the school) curriculum development, in-service education and assisting other teachers and educational officials on school matters (Grant et al., 2010). This means that they become involved in activities outside the school such as at the cluster, circuit or regional level or even at the national level. The national policy 'National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia' (2006) compels teachers to "build relationships with parents and agencies (cluster, circuit and region) in the larger community to support learner's learning. ... engage and contribute to the professional development of other teachers and participate in a professional community" (p. 100).

4.3.4.1 Role two: Providing curriculum development knowledge

The sets of data collected in my study showed that teacher leadership existed frequently in Role Two of this zone. For instance, data from the questionnaires showed that most "*teachers in the school communicated with parents regularly*" (Q, C10). Similarly, minutes of the staff meeting (18th October 2016) also showed the schedules of the school board, staff and parents' meetings for the 2017 academic year (DA4iii). Besides the minutes of staff meetings, I was not able to trace the minutes of the parents' or school board meetings, since the secretary's computer had crashed prior to my data collection. However, some interview participants (SBC, SMT1, SMT2 & LT2) mentioned that teachers were given opportunities to take minutes and present on topics during the school board and parents' meetings. One said, "*As a school board secretary, my duties are to take minutes and give them to the school secretary for typing*" (SMT2). On the other hand, another teacher mentioned that "*sometimes we are given topics to present during parents' meetings and we have to inform them about the progress and behaviours of their kids or 'children' in the school*" (LT2). Further on this indicator, I also observed some parents coming to the school on different occasions. On the 27th June 2017, I talked to one parent that I personally knew, who stated that she came to attend a disciplinary hearing of her child (Grade 12) who was accused of stealing and subsequently to observe how her child was doing academically (O1). This data showed that teacher leadership was about actions that transform teaching and learning in a school, that ties the school and community together on behalf of learning, and that advances social sustainability and quality of life for a community (Crowther et al., 2002).

Apart from teachers liaising with parents, the data also revealed that teacher leaders were actively involved in circuit activities. This was mostly evident from the self-completed questionnaires which showed that almost all participants agreed to be serving in committees at the circuit level and some at regional level (Q, C7). Assimilating this data, the acting principal indicated that *“We sent them to attend circuit workshops or sometimes, at the region and we encourage them to give feedback to others”* (SMT1, PI). Sharing the same sentiment with the HoD, one teacher (LT3) stated that apart from serving in the examination committee, she also served in the circuit welfare committee. She further elaborated that *“After our meetings (at the circuit), I always share the information with colleagues”* (PI). It was further evident from the minutes of staff meetings (31st May 2017 & 22nd June 2016) that feedback from the circuit meetings was given, which was attended by the principal and HoD respectively (DA4ii). Besides evidence from questionnaires, interviews and documents, I also noticed the frequent absence of teachers who were attending workshops (O1). Moreover, during the staff meeting of 14th June 2017, two teachers presented feedback from a circuit workshop they attended, and my notes reads, *“Two teachers reported and gave feedback from the circuit examination meeting they attended at the circuit. ... informed others to start setting August school based examinations since it was going to start mid-July”* (O2).



Figure 4.3 Staff members during the meeting (14th June 2017)

It appeared that teachers at the case study school were not only involved in circuit or regional educational activities, but also in some community activities. In support of this claim, the HoD (SMT2) explained further that apart from school and circuit activities, he also served in regional and national activities. He stated that *“Outside the education, I am a leader for Oshikoto Youth*

Forum, responsible for Onayena constituency, there we bring the youth together and discuss issues affecting them ... that includes politics as well” (SMT2, PI). He further said, *“I am also a member of the National Heritage Council of Namibia ... there I am a chairperson of the archive committee ... so these are all leadership activities”* (PI). Expressing a similar sentiment, a teacher (LT5) said, *“Currently, I am also a regional ambassador for Be Free Movement under the office of the First Lady where we are advocating learners to be free in whatever they do and speak the language they understand”* (PI). This data showed that teachers were tied to the community in many ways. On this subject, Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson and Hann (2002) assert that “teacher leadership is about action that transforms teaching and learning in a school, that ties school and community together on behalf of learning, and that advances social sustainability and quality of life for a community” (p. xii).

Like I stated earlier for Zone 2, this role was about providing curriculum development knowledge within one’s own school by serving in different school committees, attending curriculum development workshops, co-planning and sharing best practices (Grant, 2012). It was evident that teachers in the case study school took up leadership especially in Role Two of this zone.

4.3.4.2 Role three: Leading in-service training education and assisting other teachers

According to Grant’s Model, Role Three is concerned with teachers leading in-service education and assisting other teachers by mentoring others, peer coaching, team and capacity building for staff development while building a strong interpersonal relationship with other educators. Moreover, the national policy ‘Sets of Job Description’ (2008b) compels teachers to “contribute to the professional development of colleagues (clusters, circuit or region) by sharing knowledge, ideas and resources” (p. 3).

Drawing on data sets, it was evident that teachers in the case study school lead in-service education and assist other teachers in other schools in the community, thus moving beyond their school. Affirming this claim in the interview, the acting principal pointed out that *“Most of our teachers are subject heads at the circuit level and some of them they facilitate those regional or circuit workshops because they perform well in their subjects and have to facilitate those workshops”* (SMT1). Out of the seven participants, four of them (LT1, LT3, LT4 & LT5) served as subject

heads at the circuit (PI). In support of this, participant (LT1) said that apart from being a life science and biology subject head in the circuit, he also served also as a member of the “*Examination committee in the circuit for ... helping teachers in setting and moderating ... plus also giving guidance and assisting new teachers (mentoring), who join the circuit regarding the subject matters*” (PI). In other words, he served as a subject mentor and facilitator. Sharing the same sentiment, another teacher (LT5) said, “*In the region, I am a regional trainer of trainees ... training other teachers on new programmes phasing life skills subject and counselling issues*” (PI). It emerged from data sets that teacher leadership in this zone extended from school into the community life, which means that they led teachers from other schools in the circuit and across the regions (Grant, 2012).

To conclude this section on teacher leadership roles in the classroom and beyond, it was evident from the data presented so far that “glimpses of teacher leadership were apparent across all four zones in the study, but the degree of teacher leadership varied dramatically from zone to zone” (Grant et al., 2010, p. 413). In understanding why teacher leadership varied from zone to zone, I now present data on the conditions that promoted the development of teachers as leaders in the case study school.

4.4 Conditions that promote teacher leadership development in the school

According to Woods, Bennett, Harvey and Wise (2004, p. 449), distributed leadership is concerned with “how an organisation constrains or enables different organisational members to take initiatives and contribute to the development of practice”. In response to my third research question, the findings of my study indicated that there were conditions that promoted or constrained teacher leadership development in the case study school. Hereunder, I begin to present conditions that promoted teacher leadership development in the school as emerged from the data gathered.

The sets of data indicated that the school management team (SMT) members promoted teacher leadership development by providing support and opportunities for teachers to lead within the case study school. This was in line with Muijs and Harris (2007) who assert that principals and HoDs

should “create a conducive environment that encourages teachers to initiate leadership activities and provide the moral support to encourage teachers to take risks which may be involved” (p. 118). Amongst others, the following conditions emerged as promoting the development of teachers as leaders: the role of school management team (SMT) in promoting teacher leadership development; through a supportive organisational culture; and the provision of learning support amongst staff members through the attendance of workshops.

4.4.1 The role of school management team (SMT) in promoting teacher leadership development

It was evident from the data sets that the school management members provided leadership opportunities for teachers to lead. For instance, during my document analysis, I have noted from sets of committees in the school that all the teachers’ names were placed in different committees (DA5). This indicated that the school management team created opportunities for teachers to lead and exercise their expertise through those committees. In support of this claim, the HoD said “*We have demarcated our staff into different committees and we have assigned teachers to different positions like chairperson, vice-chairperson and every member of the committee have a role to play ... so leadership is being extended from up down*” (SMT2, PI). Other participants in their interviews (SMT1, LT1, LT2, LT3 & LT4) all echoed that the management has placed all staff members in different committees. One teacher mentioned that the SMT members really promoted teacher leadership development because “*They usually give responsibilities to different teachers in different departments and different committees*” (LT1). Moreover, another participant felt that teachers were asked to join different committees and bring initiatives “*so those committees give us the opportunity to be in the forefront of leading a certain event*” (LT3). However, as much as the school management members (SMTs) created opportunities for teachers to lead through different committees, the issue of allocating them (level-one teachers) into those committees implied the tendency of a ‘top-down’ hierarchical leadership. That means to say, teachers own interest and capabilities were not fully considered.

Besides the provision of different committees, participants also mentioned that the school management team promoted leadership opportunities through delegation and decision-making. According to Harris and Muijs (2005), the principal and the HoDs should support and allow the

distribution of leadership responsibilities and the authority that comes with it at the school, through delegation. In support of this claim, the HoD who was the acting principal during my period of data collection, stated that it was their responsibilities as the management to make sure that teachers were part of decision-making in the school and were fully involved in leadership tasks. In justifying his claim, he said in his interview, *“It is our obligation and responsibility to prepare teachers for further responsibilities. So, we delegate more and assign more management/leadership tasks to these teachers and they have to carry out those tasks by using their leadership skills”* (SMT1). In addition, one participant said *“Our principal usually delegates tasks. She assigns a task to you and you have that opportunity to prove yourself and prove your leadership skills”* (LT2, PI). Similarly, teacher (LT3, PI) asserted that they are given opportunities because *“Our principal does not say I am the boss of the school, but she always delegates and motivates staff members which help us to learn”*. Similarly, the HoD also revealed that they also delegate in their absence (SMT2, PI). These responses proved that as teachers were delegated to perform additional (leadership or management) tasks, they were also expected to make decisions to accomplish their tasks well. Furthermore, what emerged from the data sets was clearly in line with the Namibian national policy, 'Sets of Job Descriptions' (2008b, p. 3) that indicates that the principal and HoDs should *“delegate appropriately and ensure that workloads are equitably distributed among the staff”*.

Participants (SMT1 & SMT2) also revealed that the management do not only delegate, but they also involved teachers in decision-making (PI). One said, *“We normally take our decisions during our staff meetings and staff briefings where everybody is present and is part of the decision”* (SMT2). In support of the HoD's response, my observation notes indicated that on the staff briefing of 14th June 2017, *“a sport committee chairperson informed the staff that sport activities were to be suspended for the whole term to allow teachers to finish their syllabus as well as to avail time for learners to prepare for the exams”* (O2). These data proved that SMT members in the case study school tried to be inclusive in decision-making which was in line with the policy document 'National Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia' (2006, p. 77) that required *“teachers to participate in school decision-making structures and processes”*.

On the other hand, the sets of data showed that the school management team provided opportunities for the teachers to act in different positions within the research site. For example, during my stay, I learned that only one of the four HoDs was permanently appointed and the rest were only acting (DA4i). Subsequently, the acting principal (SMT1) was acting as a principal since the principal was away for almost two months (O1). In line with this, one teacher revealed that they were not only delegated to perform tasks, but they also acted in various capacities (PI). She further said, *“I was also given a chance to act in the school as an HoD and as a principal for a week when my principal was away ... so I have to lead and engage with all teachers at the same time, monitor teaching and learning activities”* (LT3, PI). Correspondingly, another participant also indicated that *“sometimes you are given the opportunity to act as a principal for a week...so you have to be accountable for what is happening in the school during the time you were acting, and you have to give feedback to the principal”* (LT2, PI). These responses showed that leadership opportunities were available at the school, and it was a matter of willingness from teachers to take up the challenge. Moreover, Grant (2006, p. 527) asserts that for teacher leadership development to occur, “not only do principals need to distribute authority, but teachers also need to understand and take up their agency role”. To that end, it was evident that the SMT members were in line with Lambert and Harris (2003), who contend that head teachers (SMT members) have key roles in developing teacher leadership in the schools. I now move to present how the school culture promoted teacher leadership development.

4.4.2 Leadership development through a supportive organisational culture

As discussed earlier in Chapter Two, Crowther et al. (2002) state that “teacher leadership occurs most readily in supportive organisational environments” (p. 11). In support of this literature, data sets revealed that there was a culture of mutual support and collaboration amongst the staff members at the case study school. This was evident in the minutes of the staff meeting (21. 04. 2016) where the principal encouraged staff members to participate fully and respect others’ opinion (D4ii). To support this claim further, the HoDs (SMT1 & SMT2) mentioned that they support teachers by encouraging and motivating them to participate fully in school activities for them to learn (PI). Supporting this claim, the HoD said, *“So you can see that on a daily basis mostly the principal and HoDs always give motivation ... we educate them to say it’s not that the principal*

or HoD do not want to do the work, but s/he wants me to learn” (SMT2). Sharing the same sentiment was another teacher who asserted that “*SMT members always encourage and motivate teachers to change their mindset and say that it not a punishment to be part of extra-curricular activities but the opportunity to learn because tomorrow you are the principal or HoD in the future*” (LT2, PI). These responses were in correlation with the ‘Set of the Job Description’ (2008b, p. 3) which describe that “principal/HoD should ensure that all staff understand their roles and responsibilities. ... and sustain staff motivation”. In line with this, I observed how the principal and some SMT members motivated and encouraged staff members during the staff meeting on 14th June 2017. My observation notes read: “*The principal kept on reminding the staff that the SMTs cannot run the school alone, but every staff members collective input and ideas were needed in running the school*” (O2). Adding to this, the HoD said, “*Mostly our job is to assist the principal in the management of the school*” (SMT2). This data showed that the school leaders cultivated “a collaborative culture among teachers by setting tasks that involves teachers working together” (Spillane, 2006, p. 5) which promotes a form of collective school leadership.

Participants in the case study school also felt that their school culture was driven by mutual trust, respect and collegiality (Lowe, 2010). Affirming this claim, data from the questionnaires indicated that the majority of teachers in the case study school strongly agreed that “*the school culture is conducive for teacher leadership development*” (Q, C8). In support of this evidence from the questionnaires, one participant (LT3) noted that:

In the administration of our school, I think everybody is free to bring initiatives and everybody is given equal opportunity to say ... for example, when we have meetings, everybody is given a chance to chair or to take minutes. ... when we have events, we suggest who is going to lead and organise ... who is going to be the MC (master of ceremony) and so on.

On a similar note, another teacher pointed out that there was a culture whereby “*One could be tasked to lead learners on a certain activity in school or outside the school ... you can even be given a task to organise a certain function*” (LT1). Furthermore, the acting principal solidified this by stating that “*Usually in the meetings and briefings, we give teachers opportunities to chair and take minutes ... choose their classes and initiate their activities for the year*” (SMT1). In relation to these responses, the available minutes of the departmental and staff meetings, and their agendas

showed that various teachers chaired and took minutes of those meetings (DA4). Moreover, I also observed teachers chairing school gatherings at different events e.g. a staff meeting held on 14th June 2017, AIDS Awareness Day commemoration held on the 15th June 2017 and the commemoration of the Day of African Child on the 16th June respectively (O1). These data sets revealed that there was a culture of mutual respect, trust, friendliness, and an open-door policy for communication within the school, where teacher leaders flourished. According to Hamatwi (2015, p. 31), for teacher leadership to flourish at a school:

the principal and SMT members need to build a team spirit among teachers, facilitate proper and smooth communication and provide support and encouragement to teachers to use alternative strategies while at the same time celebrating and recognising the success of programs being spearheaded by teachers.

A conclusion can be drawn that when the organisational culture is conducive, it may lead to capacity building among staff members as presented below.

4.4.3 Provision of learning support amongst staff members through the attendance of workshops

According to the national policy document ‘Sets of Job Descriptions’ (2008b), one of the duties and responsibilities of the SMT members (principal and HoD) was to co-ordinate and provide staff development activities (D1). Data collected showed that the case study school provided an ongoing professional development for teachers through various ways. For example, the data from the questionnaires showed that almost all participants strongly agreed that they usually attend curricular development activities and there was a link with other teachers from other school for sharing best practices (Q). Adding to this, one HoD mentioned that *“We encourage them to attend workshops and subject related meetings. ... also encourage them to study further for professional growth to become experts in their subjects”* (SMT1). Similarly, another SMT member asserted that *“We do have the CPD committee where we discuss different issues but normally, every teacher attends workshops in his/her subject just to learn new things”* (SMT2). On the same note, one teacher reiterated that *“Sometimes you are given a task to go and attend a certain workshop/meeting in your subject or to represent the principal or HoD at a workshop/meeting and you have to come and give feedback to others”* (LT2). My observation proved that indeed, teachers were involved in professional development activities through workshops and meetings. This was

evident when I had to reschedule my interview sessions more than four times, due to the absence of participants who were attending different workshops (O1). Literally, the data shows that SMT members created time for professional development of their staff. According to Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 442), “school heads need to encourage teachers’ continuous learning, by providing time and resources for continuing professional development (CPD) activities, and need to support and validate the concept of teacher leadership”.

As much as participants revealed some conditions they viewed as promoting teacher leadership development, conditions that constrained teacher leadership development also emerged as contradictions to the practice of leadership development within the case study school which will be discussed in the next chapter.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented data and discussed the findings on how teacher leadership was understood and practiced in the case study school. It emerged from various sets of data that the conceptualisation of teacher leadership development, was that teacher leadership development took place both within and outside the classroom, based on the roles, attitudes and mutual trust. Moreover, it was evident from the data presented so far that glimpses of teacher leadership development were apparent across all four zones in the study, but the degree of teacher leadership varied dramatically from zone to zone (Grant et al., 2010). Furthermore, I presented and discussed some conditions such as the role of the school management team (SMT) in promoting leadership development, leadership development through a supportive organisational culture, and provision of learning support amongst staff members through the attendance of workshops, that emerged as promoting teacher leadership development.

On the other hand, participants also revealed some conditions that constrained teacher leadership development which also emerged as challenges and contradictions that led to the intervention process. In one way or another some of these factors might be promoting or constraining the development of teachers as leaders. However, the focus within the general factors are different, and it is therefore important for the reader to bear this in mind when reading the next chapter. For

example, the SMT in this chapter is seen as a factor promoting leadership development, with the focus being on the provision of opportunities through the establishment of school committees where teachers can exercise their leadership skills. While in the next chapter, SMT is seen as a constraining factor with the focus being on the inherent authoritarian style of leadership. In the next chapter my attention turns to these factors which are: inherent authoritarian 'top-down' leadership practice as barriers to leadership development; teachers' unwillingness and negative attitudes toward leadership roles; teachers limited time and work-overload; limited continuous professional development; and the lack of extra-remuneration, as barriers to leadership development.

CHAPTER FIVE

SURFACING THE CHALLENGES IN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT THROUGH A CHAT LENS FOR TRANSFORMATION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the second chapter of my data presentation and discussion, I present the data generated from various data sets to answer the second part of my third research question and fourth research question respectively. To remind the reader, the research questions this chapter attempts to address are: (1) *What are the conditions that constrain teacher leadership development in the school?* (2) *How can teacher leadership be developed through Change Laboratories?* I used the second generation of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) as an analytical framework which enabled me to surface cultural and historical tensions and contradictions that occurred within the practice of teacher leadership development. To guide the reader, this chapter commences with a presentation focusing on the relevance of CHAT as analytical framework for my study as described in Chapter Two (see Section 2.5). Thereafter, I move to the discussion of challenges discovered from the study that are constraining teacher leadership development in the case study school. At this point, contradictions and their possible underlying systemic causes will be discussed extensively, making a vivid rote to the intervention phase – the Change Laboratory workshops. Thereafter, I present the summary of the Change Laboratory workshops as a response to the surfaced contradictions. The methodology embraced as described in Chapter Three falls within a critical paradigm with a strong focus on transformation through an intervention approach. By surfacing these contradictions, the possibility of transformation exists. My attention now turns to the relevance of CHAT for this study.

5.2 Relevance of CHAT as an analytical framework

As discussed earlier in chapter two (section 2.5), a second generation CHAT was used as a theoretical and analytical framework because it enabled me to surface cultural and historical

background practices (including tensions and contradictions) of level-one teachers as a central activity system within the research site (Blackler, 2009, p. 29). Moreover, it is also worth mentioning that a fundamental analytical concept of CHAT is the notion of “cultural-historical contradictions and tensions, which occur within an activity and/or between multiple interrelated activities and promote dialectical transformation” (Karanasios, Riisla, & Simeonova, 2017, p. 1). To remind the reader, contradictions can be defined as “historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity systems” (Engeström, 2001, p. 137), which have transformative power and a significant effect on organisational change (Engeström & Sannino, 2011). Thus, I found it relevant in that CHAT helped me to understand the systemic causes and problematic aspects that constrained teacher leadership development within the participants daily practice. This then informed the intervention phase through the change laboratory workshops. The 2nd generation CHAT ‘triangle’ below provides a framework and analytical tool for understanding teacher leadership practice (Figure 5.1).

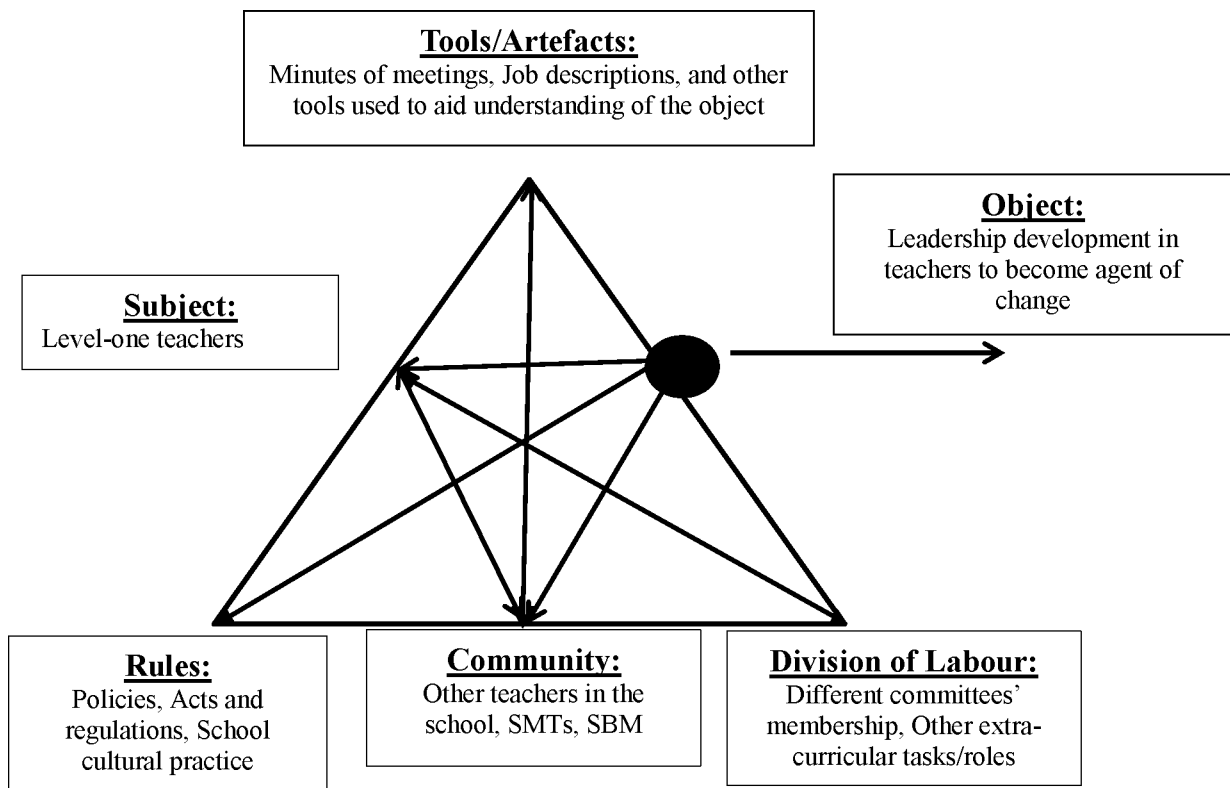


Figure 5.1: The structure of second generation CHAT (Adapted from Engeström, 1987)

With CHAT as an analytical framework for understanding teacher leadership practice within the research site discussed, my attention now turns to the challenges hampering the development of teachers as leaders as emerged from the sets of data.

5.3 Challenges hampering teacher leadership development in the school

While it appears from literature that teacher leadership could be advantageous to both the individual teacher and their school, “there are many barriers that need to be overcome and preconditions that need to be met to ensure that teacher leadership operates effectively” (Muijs & Harris, 2003, p. 442). This section therefore presents the data collected in response to my third research question, paying attention to conditions that constrained teacher leadership development in the case study school. In CHAT language, some of these constraining conditions or challenges also emerged as *contradictions* within and between the elements and subsequently prevented the attainment of the activity system goal (teacher leadership development). In this study, I discovered primary contradictions that arose (within the single element e.g. subject – level one teachers) and secondary contradictions between different elements (e.g. rules – policies, and community – SMT) of the activity system which prevented participants (subject) in attaining the goal of the activity system (teacher leadership development). These included: inherent authoritarian ‘top-down’ leadership practice as barrier to leadership development; teachers’ unwillingness and negative attitudes toward leadership roles; teachers limited time and work-overload; limited continuous professional development opportunities; and a lack of extra-remuneration, as barriers. In the next section, I begin by discussing inherent authoritarian ‘top-down’ leadership practice as a challenge to leadership development.

5.3.1 Inherent top-down authoritarian leadership style as barrier to leadership development

The various sets of data revealed that the inherent authoritarian ‘top-down’ leadership practice in the school was one of the emerging barriers that constrained teacher leadership development in the case study school. According to Grant (2006, p. 526), some schools “have traditional leadership practices, which emphasise hierarchy, rules and management protocols and rely on bureaucratic linkages to connect people to work by forcing them to respond as subordinates”. It was evident in

one staff meeting that the principal kept on reminding her staff that she was accountable for all that happens in the school. My observation notes indicated that: *“The principal reminded the teachers that she was the accountable officer for what was happening in the school, therefore teachers should learn to comply with what the management has decided”* (O2). Affirming this observation, the HoD asserted in the interview that *“The success of your subordinates is your success and their failure is our failure as a leader. So, delegation does not replace accountability ... as a principal or HoD you remain accountable for whatever happens in the school, whether it’s good or bad”* (SMT2). There was a secondary contradiction between the rules (apartheid **history** of bureaucratic leadership) and level-one teachers (subject). This was because there was a manifestation of **bureaucratic linkage** that compelled teachers to work and view themselves as subordinates as opposed to level-one teachers being active role-players in school leadership. In the school environment, this implies that the seniority within the **hierarchy of ‘top-down’ system** remains powerful and in that way, principals (SMT) might be reluctant to distribute leadership to teachers because they “may feel threatened” (Bush, 2011, p. 91). Adding to this, the school board chairperson explained that *“although the principal is accountable for what is going on in the school, sometimes she is bulldozing teachers ... that is why many teachers are not free to take initiatives and make decisions”* (SBC, PI). In other words, the surfaced contradictions here might be linked to the **abuse of power and authority** by school management team members (principal and HoDs). Historically, school managers are used to **hierarchical leadership practice** associated with the headship of one person (**top-down**) and therefore find it difficult to entertain the possibility that leadership can be shared with teachers at the school (Uiseb, 2012).

Moreover, data from the questionnaires further indicated that the majority of teachers strongly agreed that the SMT members (principal and HoDs) were barriers to new initiatives from teachers in the school (Q). Similarly, participants also felt that the decision-making was confined to the SMT members. For example, one teacher revealed that they were not really involved since *“the principal and management members mostly make decisions ... it is a ... top-down thing in that hierarchy”* (LT2). While another participant mentioned that *“in our school, decision-making is common to those in the management because now and then, they are always given those specific opportunities to lead and make decisions in most cases, you will realise that ordinary teachers are*

just undermined” (LT4). It was further stated that *“the type of leadership that exists in the school can constrain leadership development, so sometimes our supervisor is autocratic ... power centred, because sometimes she denies us opportunity to make decisions simply because we are not accountable”* (LT3).

On the other hand, these responses revealed the inherent tension between school principals (community) and governing policies (rules) resulting in a secondary contradiction. Meaning, **school leadership was historically vested in principals** with all the authority that led them to **hold tightly to power and control**, and refraining from nurturing alternate leaders (in my case, teacher leaders). This trend in a way was **viewed as a normal practice** in that principals (SMT) sometimes regard teacher leaders as a threat and they feared that they will **lose control and decision-making power over the school** (Uiseb, 2012). According to Hamatwi (2015, p. 21), “some school heads may strongly feel that in the end they are the ones who are **accountable** [my emphasis] to the **external authorities** [my emphasis] and therefore remain holding on for fear of losing control and end up failing as individuals and as a team”.

However, further in the interviews, the management members believed that perhaps the factors that were causing the management not to promote leadership to a greater extent, might depend on *“us as individual members of the management, how we distribute the responsibilities to the teachers”* (SMT1). He further elaborated that *“when we delegate, sometimes we just focus on those who are more capable”* (SMT1). From this response, I feel that there was a **tendency of favouritism** among the SMT members in distributing leadership. Here, primary contradictions existed within and between the school management members (community). In support of this, one teacher felt that there was a tendency of **one person being provided and exposed to opportunities repeatedly** and the opportunities were not given to the next person. He mentioned that *“as a result it creates a room for withdrawal in some teacher ... ok, these activities are only meant for this person ... so my input is not needed, and when the person withdraws it becomes a problem”* (LT5).

In addition, participants (LT1 & LT4) revealed that **SMT members feared** that some teachers may not perform those tasks better than others and were afraid to take that risk of giving leadership roles to someone who was likely to fail (PI). One participant argued further by saying “*When you only focus on some individual teacher, you are being a biased leader ... that is favouritism and favouritism creates boundaries where you lock out some staff members*” (LT4). Thus, the contradictions arising here might have resulted in **mistrust, preferences** (amongst SMT members) **and individualism**. These responses showed that the case study school was typified by **hierarchical structures of non-equal participation** in decision-making that could not allow teacher leadership development (Kambonde, 2008; York-Barr & Duke, 2004, as cited in Hanghuwo, 2014). Below, I present teachers’ unwillingness as barrier to leadership development.

5.3.2 Teachers’ unwillingness and negative attitudes toward leadership roles

Muijs and Harris (2007, p. 120) emphasise that one barrier to teacher leadership development is “the unwillingness of teachers to take on leadership roles ... some teachers saw themselves only as classroom practitioners and therefore could be very reluctant to see themselves in a leadership role or indeed, to take on such a role”. In line with this literature, the data collected evidently proved that teachers themselves remained obstacles and constrained their leadership development in the research site. For example, data from questionnaires indicated that most teachers strongly agreed that teachers in the case study school “*resisted leadership roles*” (Q, D8). Moreover, the questionnaires also revealed that teachers were not ready to volunteer themselves toward leadership roles (Q). This was evident in that there was a **culture of hesitation** that prevailed amongst teachers in taking up leadership roles (Hamatwi, 2015) at the case study school. In other words, if teachers (subject) were **hesitant** to take up leadership roles, it would be difficult for them to be developed (object) as leaders. This resulted in secondary contradictions, in that teacher leadership development can only take place in the event where teachers themselves take a lead by availing themselves to given opportunities. In this way, the goal of developing teacher as leaders (object) might be compromised since teachers might **lack self-motivation or feel insecure** and they might not be willing to take on new responsibilities. As Harris and Muijs (2005) explain that a “teacher’s perceived **lack of status** [my emphasis] within the school and the **absence of formal authority** [my emphasis] hindered their ability to lead” (p. 43). All these might have happened

due to the fact that teachers viewed themselves as **subordinates and submissive to their principals** and that leadership roles are responsibilities of school management team members.

Moreover, it was evident from the SMT members during the interviews that teachers themselves were barriers to leadership development. The acting principal affirmed this claim by saying *“Mostly, teachers themselves are not willing to learn and take up those challenges ... some have negative attitudes and lower self-esteem ... thinking that they are not eligible to carry out such tasks and they are undermining themselves”* (SMT1). He further revealed that some colleagues had negative attitudes in such a way that *“you cannot approach them to do something which is not really within their job descriptions ... they will tell you that is not my job ... it is for management”* (SMT1). Interestingly, teachers themselves (prime participants) all mentioned that teachers were not willing to take-up leadership roles besides provisions made by SMT members. One teacher pointed out that *“Some teachers they look down upon themselves ... so that if a teacher happens to be given a responsibility to do, that teacher seems not to take the responsibility with the reason that he/she is not the right person to do that”* (LT1). Likewise, one teacher echoed that, *“I think it is teachers themselves because in most cases they are not willing”* (LT2). These responses show secondary contradictions between the subject (level-one teachers) and the community (SMT members) in that opportunities were given to teachers, but they (level-one teachers) were not willing to take-up the challenge. Moreover, it was an indication that some teachers felt insecure, perhaps due to **lack of experience, exposure and self-confidence** in carrying out leadership roles. Subsequently, I surfaced primary contradictions that exists within level-one teachers (subject). It appeared that teachers were reluctant and unwilling to take up leadership roles, as most teachers saw themselves as a **classroom practitioner**. At this point, one can relate to the **culture of managerial structures** that typified the school leadership in which the principal and those in formal positions were **regarded as superior** to level-one teachers. Furthermore, the surfaced tensions and contradictions in here might have also occurred due to **limited training** of teachers. As one participant explained: *“We were not trained in leadership aspects at the college, we only learned how to manage our classrooms and were not taught how to lead the whole school. So, it was a different thing here in the school and no further training (in-service) was provided”* (LT2).

According to Troen and Boles (1994, p. 41), “teachers are concerned with issues of teaching and most fascinated in life in the classroom ... are unwilling to consider themselves as leaders and look with some uneasiness on the thought of taking up quasi-administrative or expanded teaching functions”. In agreement with this quote, one teacher leader stated that “*Some teachers do not see themselves as leaders ... saying please, my duties are to teach my subjects and not to perform other things*” (LT4). The school board chairperson also indicated that some teachers were not willing and do not want to take part in the activities that are happening in the school, except teaching their lessons (PI); while another teacher said, “*You will find some teachers who are so reluctant to perform leadership roles outside their classroom, should I give it a try or not ... I can’t do that, can I handle the pressure ... the issue of low self-esteem, I can’t do that, or I don’t want to be blamed*” (LT5). One participant (LT2) admitted that, “*I don’t think I can take the responsibility of managing everybody and the whole school plus the learners and problems of parents, so I rather teach my lesson and that is it*”. It was acknowledged by the acting principal who also mentioned that, “*it is low self-esteem in that teachers are not willing ... because most teachers think that they cannot perform better in leadership roles*” (SMT1).

According to the ‘Set of Job Descriptions’ (2008b), teachers are expected to “perform any other duties or responsibilities that might be reasonably requested by the principal”. However, it was evident from the data sets that teacher leadership development in the case study school was unlikely to prosper because of their unwillingness and negative attitudes toward leadership roles. This caused tension in level-one teachers (primary contradictions) in that they resisted leadership roles from others. This might have occurred because they (teachers) saw themselves as **classroom practitioners** and were ineligible to perform other duties (leadership/managerial roles). One of the systemic causes of these contradictions here is **limited training on leadership aspects**, since only school principals were exposed to leadership and management training (personal experience as a principal). As Muijs and Harris (2007) contend that some teachers were unwilling to take on leadership roles or offer feedback when consulted, because some teachers intimidate others. Besides the above, teachers’ unwillingness, time and workload also emerged as another constraining factor, as presented hereunder.

5.3.3 Teachers limited time and workload as challenges to leadership development

Across the data sets, limited time and workload emerged as one of the barriers toward teacher leadership development in the case study school. Leblanc and Shelton (1997) maintain that “the major barrier to teacher leadership, as reported in the literature is time and lack thereof. Teachers are unable to carry out their regular load and to assume new leadership roles” (p. 34). During my data collection period, I observed informally that some teachers started teaching as early as 6 am although the school started at 7h10 am and some would arrange evening lessons showing that they were pre-occupied (O). Additionally, data from the questionnaires also showed that most teachers from the study strongly agreed that “*teachers do not have enough time to fulfill leadership roles*” (Q, D6). In support of this observation, the school board chairperson (SBC) reiterated that:

Teachers just do not have time or maybe they are overloaded with work. You see ... like now, we have three teachers who resigned so teachers have to take-up their subjects and they become overloaded and they may not be willing to take part in leadership activity because they do not have sufficient time to carry out those additional leadership roles.

Similarly, the acting principal also explained that a lack of time and workload could be a reason that constrained teacher leadership development. He said, “*Lack of time could be one of the reasons because sometimes teachers are having more lessons, the class groups are too big, the workload is too much, and they have to mark a number of exercise books and give feedback on time*” (SMT1). Sharing the same sentiment was another teacher (LT2) who enlightened that “*We don’t have time ... it involves a lot of work and commitments and teachers are already overloaded and overworked because they have planning to do, subject administration and marking, so they just don’t have time*”. Participant (LT4) also echoed this. During the staff meeting (14th June 2017), teachers opted to suspend some extra-mural activities such as sport, for them to avail time to complete their syllabus since the end of term examination was close (O2).

Since teachers did not have adequate time to fulfil leadership roles, secondary contradictions thus surfaced between **subject** and **division of labour**, subsequently preventing them from being developed as leaders (object). As indicated by participants, issues such as **large class groups**, **prescribed number of lessons**, **other administrative work** within their subject lines and classrooms, as well as meeting set targets in terms of **curriculum delivery**, **might** have led to

inadequate time for teachers. It was understandable that the issue of **shortage of schools** and that of **teachers in the country** has a greater impact in this regard. Again, teachers complained that they did not have time for other initiatives outside their classrooms, because they were involved with classroom responsibilities like **teaching, preparing lessons, assessing learners** and many more other tasks (Zokka, 2012). So, it was up to the teachers to sacrifice their personal time in order to meet the set targets and with that limited time, leadership roles were compromised. As one participant felt that although time would never be available, teachers were expected to sacrifice their family and leisure time to pave ways for additional responsibilities in the school (LT3). About re-organising their busy schedules to incorporate time, I interviewed two teachers at their houses because they did not get time at school. In their contribution towards time as a barrier, Muijs and Harris (2006) highlight that “lack of time for teachers to engage in activities outside of classroom teaching and administration appears to be a key inhibitor to teacher leadership, as it is to other educational initiatives” (p. 970).

Apart from time and workload as constraining factors, limited opportunities for continuous professional development was also revealed from data as one of the constraining conditions to teacher leadership development.

5.3.4 Limited continuous professional development (CPD) opportunities

Both pre-service and in-service professional development of leadership is central to the empowerment of teachers to take up leadership roles (Uiseb, 2012). However, the sets of data showed that there were limited continuous professional development activities in the case study school. For example, data from questionnaires revealed that the majority of teachers strongly disagreed that they were “*regularly developed through CPD activities initiated by the school management team (SMT) members*” (Q, D3). It was further noted that the majority of participants agreed that CPD activities provided only focused on curriculum development but not on leadership and personal development of teachers (Q, D3).

Agreeing with this data, the national policy ‘Namibia Professional Standards for Teachers in Namibia’ (2006, p. 106) also asserts that “there is provision for pre-service, and continuing

professional development, but no state structures to support this". When SMT members were asked if there were structured programmes for teacher leadership development, they responded that besides the CPD committee in school, there was no structured programme (PI). One SMT member said, *"I don't think we have such programmes to develop or to promote the development of leadership of teachers, but we do have the CPD committee"* (SMT1). In her response, teacher (LT2) deduced that the CPD committee was not active *"but we need to be developed or trained in leadership because at the college we were only taught how to manage our classroom and not taught how to lead the whole school"*.

One could conclude that lack of or limited continuous professional development activities and subsequently, leadership training in **both in-service and pre-service teacher training**, was a barrier to teacher leadership development. In other words, the limited continuous professional development activities caused secondary tensions in that teachers (subjects) were not professionally developed into leaders as required by policy and regulations (rules). It appeared that teacher leadership development was **not prioritised by those in authority** leaving teachers untrained in leadership aspects. Further, it may also have appeared that the continuous professional development given to teachers were **subject (classroom) based**, rather than holistic development that would allow teachers to lead beyond their classrooms. In essence, if teacher **training was only focused on curriculum development** (subject matters) without the integration of leadership development, it will **create a situation** which constrains teacher leadership development (Moonsamy, 2010). Subsequently, primary contradictions also emerged within the rules (as indicated by the policy that although there were **provisions for pre-service and continuous professional development**, there were **not state structures to support these provisions**. Again, this might have resulted in **policy translation and formulation** in that most of the current educational policies **drew from the apartheid policies** used before independence.

Although I observed teachers attending workshops at different occasions, most workshops focused on the subject content and not necessarily on professional development of teachers and leadership development in particular. Adding to this observation, Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 444) advocate

that “continuous professional development of teachers should also focus on aspects specific to their leadership roles. ... on skills such as leading groups, collaborative work and mentoring”.

5.3.5 Lack of extra-remuneration as a barrier

As much as leadership roles can be spread and shared among teachers, policy and regulations remain silent about extra remuneration for those teachers who were willing to take up those roles. Arguing in this line, Harris (2003) asserts that “there are financial barriers as formal leadership positions in schools carry additional increments, to secure informal leadership in schools requires heads to use other incentives and seek ways of remunerating the staff who take on leadership responsibilities” (p. 319). In support of this literature, the school board chairperson (SBC) explained that:

You see, previously if I go back to those eras, if a person was appointed to be a senior teacher ... his salary will also be increased ... or given allowance for that, but nowadays ... teachers are not given those allowances for being senior teachers, so they only called senior teachers verbally but no allowance. That is already a constraint so teachers will not be willing to take part in leadership roles because they are not given anything ... so money is also a constraint here.

In relation to the explanation of the school board chairperson, participants (SMT1, LT1, LT3 & LT4) all affirmed that lack of extra remuneration was a barrier to teacher leadership development (PI). For instance, one of them said, *“If there is no remuneration, some colleagues say that ... I am not going to do that job because I am not going to get paid for that”* (SMT1). While another interviewee reiterated that *“sometimes they (SMT) take advantage of us ordinary teachers but they know we are not paid for that extra work. So, the management members should do their work because they are paid for that”* (LT4). Data from questionnaires also revealed that teachers in the case study school linked additional leadership roles to remuneration and incentives (Q, D2). This caused challenges and subsequently tensions between the subject (level-one teachers) and artefacts/tools (understanding and individual knowledge toward teacher leadership development). In a way, it may appear that teachers’ **limited knowledge** of leadership development as well as **misunderstanding of job descriptions**, might cause teachers to link leadership roles to incentives. Moreover, limited knowledge might have led some teachers to conclude that leadership roles were an extra workload which they were not compensated for, but principals and Heads of Departments

were rightly compensated for performing such tasks, hence they alone should alone those roles (Hamatwi, 2015).

It also appeared that there was a major challenge between teacher leaders (subject) and policy (rules) in that policy and regulations remained silent about extra-remuneration and incentive for teachers who were ready to perform leadership roles, although they (policies) compel teachers to perform any other duties assigned to them. Yet again, school management team members and teacher training institutions need to educate teachers about the treasury policies vis-à-vis the job descriptions, in order to avoid such tendencies amongst teachers.

Across the sets of data, it was evident that teacher leaders in the case study school viewed a lack of extra-remuneration and incentives for additional tasks carried out at the school, as a barrier to teacher leadership development, as they felt strongly that they would not do the work if they were not being paid for it. With this conclusion, I begin to present the findings that answer my fourth research question on how teacher leadership could be developed through Change Laboratory workshops.

5.4 How can teacher leadership be developed: The way forward

In response to what could be done to develop teachers as leaders in the case study school, the acting principal said, *“I think we just need to strengthen or to delegate more and assign more management or leadership tasks to our teachers so that they practice and learn from those leadership skills”* (SMT1, PI). Sharing the same sentiment, the HoD (SMT2, PI) highlighted that:

We need to boost their self-esteem by exposing them to leadership roles. Give them more leadership opportunities through different committees, as well as delegating them more and give the motivation for them to understand that teaching comes with more responsibilities beyond the classroom. Create an environment of inclusivity in decision-making.

In other words, responses from the SMT members implied that there was a need of continuous professional development of teachers, as well as exposure to different roles that teachers needed to take up as a means to develop them into leaders. Alluding to this conclusion, one teacher argued that *“The only way to develop us teachers as leaders is to be given that exposure ... being exposed*

to documents in the office so that by the time I join or are given a role e.g. HoD, I am already aware of what it is expected ... so exposure is very important for leadership development” (LT4, PI). According to the national policy ‘Sets of Job Description’ (2008b, p. 3), “principal/HoD should take full responsibility for professional staff development. ... ensure proper induction, coaching and mentoring staff members, and encourage and motivate teachers”.

On the other hand, teacher leaders in the study stated that the school management needed to expose teachers and provide leadership training and workshops. Affirming this prerogative, one participant said, *“The best way is for the principal to encourage all the teachers to volunteer themselves to act or serve in committees or in a specific position ... so that in the end of the day, all teachers in the school will be exposed to those positions”* (LT1, PI). Other participants (LT2, LT3 & LT5) all echoed the need for leadership training and workshops as a means to teacher leadership development (PI). Similarly, the school board chairperson felt that *“the ministry, colleges and the school management should start to train teachers in overall leadership skills and not only on classroom management”* (SBC, PI). Moreover, another teacher further asserted *“teacher needs to be developed or trained in leadership because at the college we only learn how to manage your classroom and not taught how to lead the whole school”* (LT2, PI).

Besides leadership training and workshops, participants (level-one teachers) also felt that the school management members should avail leadership opportunities to all. For example, one teacher argued that *“they (SMT) should promote leadership of teachers by giving equal opportunities to teachers to perform leadership tasks in the form of rotation in those committees”* (TL1, PI). The school board chairperson noted that *“there is a need for rotating teachers in management”*. Making his contribution, one participant mentioned that *“the principal must be concerned about who can lead tomorrow by developing them and giving responsibilities and tasks to these people and you will be surprised with some qualities that you have never seen before”* (LT4, PI). On a similar note, the national policy (MoE, 2006, p. 106) affirms that indeed:

there is a provision for pre-service, and continuous professional development, but no structures to support this ... there is a need to look more closely at in-service training, and the need to take a broad view beyond subject matter and pedagogic concerns, to include the development of a rounded professional as part of the professional community.

Drawing on data presented in this section, it was evident that teachers at the research school expected members of the school management to avail leadership opportunities to all through continuous professional development activities. Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 442) contribute towards this claim by asserting that “school heads (SMT and educational administrators) need to encourage teachers’ continuous learning, by providing time and resources for continuing professional development (CPD) activities, and need to support and validate the concept of teacher leadership”.

5.4.1 Change Laboratory workshops

In this section, I present the data generated during the Change Laboratory (CL) workshops that I conducted during the data collection process, in order to answer my fourth research question. To remind my reader, a Change Laboratory is described fully in Section 2.5.6 and 3.4.5 respectively. Since this is an interventionist study, data presented here reflects the expansion of learning processes evidenced during the Change Laboratory workshops, toward the teacher leadership development practice within the research site. The section starts by giving a brief overview of Change Laboratory workshops. Following that, I present the data from the two Change Laboratory workshops that I conducted.

5.4.2 A summary of Change Laboratory workshops

As was discussed earlier in Chapter Three (see Section 3.4.5), I conducted two Change Laboratory workshops in the interval of two weeks. The aim of Change Laboratory workshops is that it allows research practitioners (researcher and participants) to question the contradictions within the existing practices of teacher leadership development in order to germinate new knowledge and new forms of activity, which are learned as they are created (Engeström, 1999). In addition, Change Laboratory workshops also help participants to transform their practices, collecting information important in developing theory and knowledge about teacher leadership development within their context.

5.4.3 First Change Laboratory workshop

In Chapter Three, I indicated that Change Laboratory workshops would constitute phase two of my data collection process. To remind the reader, the first workshop was conducted on the 18th July 2017 in the school library, in the case study school. All seven research participants (five level-one teachers and two SMT members) were present at this workshop. Moreover, a non-participant teacher volunteered to help with video recording and taking of pictures. I began the workshop by welcoming the participants, introduced myself as a researcher and subsequently, requested participants to introduce themselves, although they knew each other. At this point, I further invited participants to set workshop rules that would guide our deliberations.

I explained my research focus which is an interrogation of teacher leadership development through a formative intervention – a case study in a rural secondary school in northern Namibia. Thereafter, I provided a brief overview of the purpose of my study, explaining that it was aimed at surfacing the underlying systemic causes that promote or constrain teacher leadership development in the school; and, that the study sought to create opportunities for understanding teacher leadership development for a holistic school development through Change Laboratory workshops.

I started by explaining the purpose of the workshop which was to analyse the current practice of teacher leadership development within the school and to map out the possible ways to improve their practice. At this point, I also explained the Change Laboratory processes (referring to Engeström's layout of Change Laboratory workshop diagram; see Section 3.4.5) and how the workshop was going to help us (researcher and participants) in identifying challenges and problematic aspects within the current practice.

To give a clear picture of what I was talking about, I began to 'mirror the data' of the current practice of teacher leadership as a way of sensitising and arousing my participants' interest toward the workshop. Thereafter, I presented some of the conditions that constrained teacher leadership development, as disturbances and contradictions that emerged from the data collected in phase one of the study. This was the first stage of the Change Laboratory process. According to Virkkunen and Newnham (2013), the Change Laboratory process starts with deliberations of the mirror data that revealed challenging and problematic aspects of the current practice.



Figure 5.2: Presenting the ‘mirror data’

To direct my reader again, the mirror data presented were summarised as follows:

- Teachers limited knowledge of teacher leadership development concept;
- Teachers unwillingness and negative attitudes towards leadership roles;
- Time limit and work overload;
- Lack of continuous professional development activities and leadership training;
- Unequal opportunities given to teachers (favouritism);
- Labelling of teachers;
- Teachers’ low self-esteem;
- Relating leadership to position and remuneration.

After witnessing the mirror data, participants discussed and deliberated carefully on each aspect that emerged as contradictions within their daily practice of teacher leadership development (stage 1; mirror/present). This was done in relation to their historical and underlying systemic causes. The discussion was guided by questions such as: What might have been the root cause of those constraining conditions within the school and what could be done to develop teachers as leaders?

The reason for these two questions was to help and guide participants to trace and conceptualise the systemic roots of specific but recurring problems and disturbances as contradictions (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013) in the practice of teacher leadership development.



Figure 5.3: Participants discussing the mirror data

Moreover, as participants discussed and deliberated on the mirror data, they also criticised and rejected some aspects of the current practice of teacher leadership development within their context. This was the questioning stage of expansive learning action (Engeström, 2010).

Thereafter, participants identified (stage 2; ideas/tools/present) ‘lack of continuous professional development activities and leadership training’ as the most problematic area that needed further investigation. As one participant said, *“Well for me, all these constraining factors or contradictions are just a result of lack of continuous professional development ... if teachers are trained and given workshops on leadership aspects, there would be no low self-esteem or unwillingness in them”* (LT5). He further suggested that *“I think it is time to explore those factors and find a way of helping one another as to what can be done”*. Another teacher mentioned that *“I think the reason why some of us could not explain teacher leadership is because ... we were never trained in those area, so I agree with Mr LT5 that CDP could be the answer to all those problems ... you get empowered through those workshops”* (LT2). Making his contribution, the acting principal (SMT1) said teachers’ limited knowledge of the concept can be linked to limited training and workshops. He further said, *“Even myself, since I was appointed as HoD, I have not attended a*

leadership training ... so we really need to look at CPD activity very seriously and I think this workshop (Change Laboratory workshop) came at the right time for us to see some of these things”.

These responses showed how participants qualified the limited continuous professional development and leadership training as a major shared concern. Moreover, they also discussed some historical root causes of the emerged contradictions, e.g. lack of leadership training amongst teachers (stage 3: mirror/past). Their conclusion was further supported by the national policy (MoE, 2006, p. 106) which states that:

There is a provision for pre-service, and continuous professional development, but no structures to support this ... there is a need to look more closely at in-service training, and the need to take a broad view beyond subject matter and pedagogic concerns, to include the development of a rounded professional as part of the professional community.

At this point, participants used an actual-empirical analysis to explain the situation by constructing a picture of its inner systemic relations (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). This was the second action of the expansive cycle of learning. Though some participants mentioned attending workshops, they felt that what they learned was basically subjected to the content and therefore needed workshop on leadership aspects. Here, participants identified the historical gap of absence of leadership development training (stage 4; ideas/tool/past) while emphasizing the need of such training through continuous professional development activities (state 5; model/vision/past).

Moreover, participants recognized that, due to their limited continuous professional development and leadership training, they did not know if teachers were in a way being developed as leaders. So, they ought to consider leadership training through continuous professional development activities as an answer to their plight (phase 6: model/present). As one participant stressed: *“now that we all agree that all these challenges came due to lack of training especially in leadership, I think we can start by revising our school CPD committee and use our own experts to train us in leadership issues. ... Maybe we can start by ... what about the members of this committee and ... the roles. These things are really putting us back as a school, it’s good that the management members are here to help us out”* (LT5). The acting principal also indicated that *“I think we over*

looked some of this committee (CPD) and always waiting for people from outside and forget our own experts. So, let start by redefining these roles and also, maybe we can come-up with ways making sure that the committee is functional ... like sustainable ways ... what about aligning committees to different department” (SMT1). On the same debate, one teacher said, *“Why don’t we just study this set of committees, because we can’t change it alone, since we are talking of everyone’s involvement here ... we can come together in the middle of the week and discuss so that next Tuesday we can report back ... and Mr Iyambo (researcher) can help us where necessary”* (LT3). Another participant felt that *“I think this whole thing is about changing the mind-set of our colleagues, so by revising the CPD committee and finding sustainable measures could be a good starting point ... we can develop ourselves through this committee ... let us get started”* (LT2). Teacher (LT3) concluded the discussion by stating that *“For now, can the acting principal make copies for us to study this committee and then we can meet on Thursday to discuss our findings ... so that we present that in the next workshop”*.

These responses above show the discussion of participants on how they could improve current practices of teacher leadership development [surface 7: Vision/ Model/ Future]. Moreover, participants discussed the new forms of action and tools which they could employ to realise the vision they had decided upon (phase 8: ideas/tools/future). They (participants) agreed to study and review the set of school committees’ document as well as redefine the roles, and responsibilities, including drawing up plans for evaluating the performance of different school committees. At this point, participants were involved in the third and fourth actions of the expansive learning cycle respectively. Next, I present the summary of the second Change Laboratory workshop.

5.4.4 The second Change Laboratory workshop

The second change laboratory workshop was conducted on the 1st August 2017 in the case study school’s library. Unlike the first workshop where all participants were present, only five of the eight participants were present since one participant (LT3) was transferred to another school and another participant (LT2) was attending a workshop. However, the workshop was graced with the presence of the school principal who had just returned from her leave of absence. Again, I was also assisted by a non-participant teacher in recording the workshop proceedings. Similar to the first

workshop, I started by welcoming everyone, especially the principal for availing herself to attend the workshop. Furthermore, I re-emphasised the purpose of the workshop, including the Change Laboratory processes and requested them to participate fully during the discussion.

To refresh my participants' memories, I presented the mirror data which was comprised of data gathered from the interviews, observations and document analysis as a summary of the first Change Laboratory workshop. Thereafter, I presented the resolutions taken in the first workshop as mirror data, as shown hereunder:

- Revising the Continuous Professional Development (CPD) committee and its roles;
- Redefine the roles;
- Crafting of the sustainability measures (each committee reporting to a different department per month/trimester);
- Re-look at other committees (members and roles review).

After the recap and reflection on the previous workshop, participants started with the deliberations of the mirror data that revealed challenges and problematic aspects within the current practice (Virkkunen & Newnham, 2013). At this point, they (participants) acknowledged that the continuous professional development activities (leadership training and workshops) was an ideal tool with which teacher leadership development could be enhanced. To that, participants discussed how to make use of the expertise within their school (CPD committee members) as a starting point toward leadership training. As the acting principal indicated: *“Like we discussed in the previous workshop, we have reviewed all the committees and their responsibilities, and we have created different leadership positions within those committees ... so the CDP committee is given an extra role to educate staff members on various issues”* (SMT1). One teacher added that *“Mr (SMT1) just forgot to mention that we also met the CPD committee members and we presented our views from this workshop to them”* (LT4). He further said, *“For leadership to be well distributed, we agreed that all committees are going to draw up their calendars of activities and the CPD committee members will be evaluating the performance of those committees”* (LT4). These extracts from the discussion revealed that participants agreed to activate their Continuous

Professional Development committee within the school as a first step toward teacher leadership development. Furthermore, they also resolved that for leadership to be equally distributed, “*we have proposed the rotational system within top positions and portfolios of each committee member e.g. chairmanship, and so on*” (SMT2).



Figure 5.4: Some teacher leaders reviewing the set of school committee documents

It was also agreed upon that end of year function events will be turned into a continuous professional development activity, where external experts will be called in to train teachers on various issues (including leadership). As one participant remarked, “*On top of the experts we have in the school, I think we can also bring in experts like Mr Iyambo (researcher) to come and train us on leadership aspects during our end year function*” (LT1). Although discourse such as ‘we need to be trained’ from experts dominated the discussion, participants showed that they trusted each other, by suggesting that they ought to utilise experts from within and share ideas. However, the workshop participants concluded by agreeing to table their suggestions and plan, in the next staff meeting to be conducted on the 4th September 2017 due to the end of term examination that was to due start on the 2nd August 2017.

Finally, as a researcher, I confirm that I did not observe the last three stages of the expansive learning cycle. This was because the proposed leadership training initiated by participants was to take place in September 2017, and by then I would have returned to Grahamstown.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented data that answered the second part of my third research question, as well as question four respectively. The challenges and conditions that constrained teacher leadership development which also emerged as contradictions were discussed, paying particular attention to their cultural-historical occurrences. These were the inherent authoritarian ‘top-down’ leadership practices as a barrier to leadership development, teachers’ unwillingness and negative attitudes toward leadership roles, teachers’ limited time and workload, limited continuous professional development opportunities and a lack of extra-remuneration as barriers. It appeared that limited leadership training and an inherent ‘top-down’ hierarchical style of leadership were the main underlying systemic causes that constrained teacher leadership development within the research site.

Moreover, I also presented data from the two Change Laboratory workshops as a response to the emergent challenges and contradictions that constrained the development of level-one teachers as leaders. It became evident that through the Change Laboratory workshops, participants were able to analyse their own practices, identify contradictions and their root causes, and come up with new ways of doing things with regards to teacher leadership development.

Next, I present Chapter Six (the concluding chapter) in which I summarise the findings of the study as generated in Chapter Four and Five respectively. Moreover, recommendations for practice and the possibilities for further research will also be highlighted.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

As mentioned earlier in Chapter One, this study interrogated *how* teacher leadership could be developed in a rural school in northern Namibia through an intervention approach. Moreover, the study aimed at surfacing the underlying causes that promoted or constrained teacher leadership development in the school, and then sought to create opportunities for the understanding of teacher leadership development for school development. In attaining these research goals, the following questions guided me throughout this study:

- How teacher leadership development is understood by teachers and the school management team (SMT) members?
- What leadership roles do teachers currently fulfill?
- What are the conditions that promote or constrain teacher leadership in the school?
- How can teacher leadership be developed through Change Laboratories?

In this chapter, the concluding chapter and a destination of my thesis, I summarise the main findings of the study as generated in Chapter Four and Five respectively. To direct the reader, the summary of the findings is organised in the order of the research questions that guided this study. Moreover, the value of the study and recommendations for good practice and the possibilities for further research are highlighted in this chapter. Since this was a formative intervention study, I found it necessary to discuss the significance of using Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) as a framework for this study. Thereafter, I discuss the systemic limitations of the study, followed by my research experience. The chapter ends with a brief conclusion.

6.2 Summary of the main findings

In this section, I present the summary of the main findings as generated during data presentation in the previous two chapters (Chapter Four and Five) of this study. To remind the reader, I used

Grant's (2006; 2008; 2010) Model of Four Zones, Six Roles and Indicators of Teacher Leadership to summarise the findings generated in response to the first two research questions. Following that, I discuss the main findings in response to the third research question that focused on the factors that promoted or constrained the development of teachers as leaders. Thereafter, I provide a brief summary of the underlying systemic causes that gave rise to the contradictions surfaced from the findings. My attention now turns to the conceptualisation of the teacher leadership concept.

6.2.1 Conceptualisation of teacher leadership development

The findings indicated that generally, participants had a wide range of understanding that teacher leadership development was about developing teachers' leadership skills and abilities into a professional function of teachers, whereby they could lead at various levels within the school. Therefore, participants' conceptualisation of teacher leadership development was based mostly on the roles, attitudes and mutual trust within their setting. This was also evident in the literature that asserts that teacher leadership is "conceptualised as a set of behaviours and practices that are undertaken collectively. ... concerned with the relationships and connections among individuals within a school" (Muijs & Harris, 2007, p. 112). As such, the findings point out that all these tasks which teachers were performing in the school and beyond, including their behaviour and daily practices, have in one way or another influenced their understanding of the notion of teacher leadership development.

6.2.2 Teacher leadership: Teacher roles within the classrooms and beyond

In summary, the research findings revealed that teachers in the case study school were leading in all four zones although their roles differed. For example, in *Zone 1*, the findings showed that teacher leadership was strongly evident in this zone, where teachers led in their classrooms as experts and they continued to teach and improve their own teaching (Grant, 2010). According to the findings, teachers in this first zone were involved in a range of leadership and management roles within their classrooms, which included subject teaching, setting classroom rules, instilling discipline, and keeping records while guiding learners and decision-making. In other words, teacher leadership was intensified by managerial structures of planning, organising, supervising, controlling and instructing learners while maintaining discipline in their classrooms.

In *Zone 2*, teacher leadership roles have expanded outwards from the confinement of the classroom (Harris & Lambert, 2003), and teacher leaders work with other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities (Grant, 2008; 2012). The findings showed evidence that participants in the case study site were using their skills, expertise and experiences in providing curriculum development and also led others within their subject areas. These included, but were not limited to, co-planning, peer coaching and mentoring, peer review as well as subject heads, and providing feedback on workshops attended. Moreover, it was also evident that teacher leaders served as coaches and organisers of extra-curricular activities such as sport, cultural festivals and the Student Christian Movement (SCM).

Generally, my findings indicated that teacher leadership development in the case study school was evident within *Zone 3*. In this zone, the study indicated that teachers took a lead in organising and leading peer reviews of holistic school practice and they participated in school level decision-making (Grant, 2012). According to the findings, teacher leaders were involved in activities such as school self-evaluation (SSE), teachers' self-evaluation (TSE), SWOT analysis for the school development plan (SDP), plan of action for academic improvement (PAAI), and other related internal policy formulation. In addition, the findings also revealed that teachers served in different committees, where they made decisions toward the functioning of those committees for school development. However, some studies on teacher leadership conducted in South Africa indicate that there is little scope for authentic participation in school-wide decision-making and little space for taking initiative in this area (Grant, 2017).

In *Zone 4*, the findings revealed that teacher leaders became involved in activities outside the school into the community such as at the cluster, circuit or regional level or even at the national level. I found that teachers were attending curriculum development workshops, co-planning and sharing best practices, liaising with parents, as well as serving in committees at the circuit level and some at regional level. The findings thus showed strong evidence of teacher leadership development in this zone in my case study school, as opposed to the findings in the studies of Nauyoma-Hamupembe (2012), Uiseb (2012) and Hamatwi (2015), which revealed little involvement of teachers in this zone. When compared to some studies in South Africa for example,

my findings concur with Grant (2017, p. 9) who reveals in her recent study that “teacher leaders met (within and beyond the school borders) on a regular basis not only to discuss, plan and implement their work, but also to critique their practice and confront unjust, stereotypical and discriminatory ways of being, in the interests of a more equitable and equal society”.

6.2.3 Conditions that promoted or constrained teacher leadership development

In response to my third research question, the findings indicated that there were conditions that promoted or hampered teacher leadership development in the case study school. It appeared from the findings that conditions such as the role of school management team (SMT) members in promoting teacher leadership development, a supportive organisational culture, and provision of learning support amongst staff members through workshop attendance, emerged as promoting the development of teachers as leaders. This translates to say, teacher leaders were given an opportunity to act through delegation. They were motivated and encouraged, headed school committees, chaired meetings and took minutes, as well as attending workshops.

On the other hand, the study findings indicated that the inherent authoritarian ‘top-down’ leadership practice in the school, teachers’ unwillingness and negative attitudes toward leadership roles, time limitation and workload, inadequate continuous professional development activities and lack of extra remuneration were identified as challenges to teacher leadership development. The data further revealed that there was a culture of hesitation, low self-esteem, insecurity and fear of accentuality, and limited knowledge of leadership development within the members of the activity system. Thus, contradictions were surfaced within and between different elements of the activity system.

6.2.4 Sources of tensions and contradictions within the activity system

The use of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) was to help surface the tensions and contradictions that hampered the development of teacher as leaders within their setting. Thus, it appeared from the findings that limited leadership training and an inherent ‘top-down’ hierarchical style of leadership were the main systematic causes of tensions and contradictions that constrained teachers (subject) to be developed as leaders (object). These were all systemic structurally located

and they were cultural and historical manifestations of Apartheid trends that continue to influence the current school practice in terms of leadership. This notion of inherent ‘top-down’ school management structures creates a major impediment to the development of teacher leadership and is not only unique in Namibian schools, but is present in the teacher leadership literature as captured in South Africa (Grant, 2017). However, the study was not able to resolve the surfaced underlying causes of the surfaced contradictions, because they were systemic and would take time to be overcome. In this regard, the study took an intervention approach through Change Laboratory workshops as discussed below.

6.2.5 Change Laboratory workshops as an answer to surfaced leadership challenges

In answering my fourth research question on how teacher leadership can be promoted, the data indicated that teachers at the research school, expected members of the school management to avail leadership opportunities to all through continuous professional development activities. Thus, through the Change Laboratory workshops, participants were able to analyse their own practices, identify contradictions and their root causes, and come up with new ways of doing things within their practice. Furthermore, during the Change Laboratory workshops, practitioners were enabled to break away from a traditional, patriarchal frame of leadership action and take the initiative to transform it collectively (Sannino, Engeström, & Lemos, 2016, p. 7). This meant that participants reviewed their school committees and their roles, crafted a calendar of activities which included dates for CPD activities and leadership retreat workshops. All these were achieved through a collaborative and collective practice, the new way of doing things within the research school.

6.3 Value of this study

Research findings, whether small or big, can make meaning and contribute to the body of knowledge within the discipline under which the study was conducted and beyond (Kelly, 2011). Thus, the findings of this study are of significant value, in that teacher leadership development was more than positional or formal roles, and if promoted, teachers (level-one) can be empowered. Although many studies on teacher leadership have been conducted in Namibia (Nauyoma-Hamupembe, 2011; Hashikutuva, 2011; Uiseb, 2012; Zokka, 2012; Hanghuwo, 2014; Hamatwi, 2015), all these studies were interpretive and sought to raise awareness of the concept. Again, most

of the South African teacher leadership studies were also descriptive accounts which typically do not explain “why relations between means and ends are likely to exist” (Smylie, 1995, p. 4). Most were superficial investigations, guided implicitly or explicitly by a policy logic (Grant, 2017, p. 12), whilst my study interrogated ‘how’ teacher leadership could be developed and took an intervention approach where participants created new knowledge and new ways of changing their practice. I believe that teacher leadership studies, designed as formative interventions and informed by the concepts of expansive learning and transformative agency, are likely to advance the field, both theoretically and practically (Grant, 2017, p. 14). This is because through a formative intervention, participants collectively design solutions to the existing problematic situation, which is itself the core of an expansive learning process, involving reconceptualisation and practical transformation of the object of their activity (Sannino et al., 2016). Therefore, the findings of this study are valuable to policy-makers, supportive stakeholders in education and institutions of higher learning whose interests are in leadership development. In addition, these findings can be shared in other schools for them to improve their own practice.

6.4 Recommendations for good practice

The findings of this study revealed that there was no singular and explicit definition of teacher leadership (development) as a concept. However, the general conceptualisation of the concept in this study as a set of behaviours and practices that are undertaken collectively by practitioners, could be used as a starting point toward a singular definition. Thus, this study recommends that teachers need to change their negative attitudes and mindset of individualistic practices toward leadership roles and subscribe to a collaborative and collective school practice through teamwork. The findings of this study further indicated that the inherent ‘top-down’ hierarchy style of leadership within those in formal positions (principal and HoDs) have typified the research school. This study would therefore recommend that school management team (SMTs) members need to ‘de-centre’ from a traditional way of leadership and subscribe to a distributed way of leadership practice. Moreover, they (SMTs) need to create opportunities for teachers to lead through the culture of collaboration, using their strengths and talents, while establishing participatory decision-making for all.

Besides the findings revealing that teachers attended workshops to enhance their subject knowledge, this study recommends that leadership aspects should be constituted in pre-and in-service professional development training and it should be an ongoing practice (in-service with a focus on leadership as well). In addition, the study recommends that teachers and SMTs need to make use of their own expertise within their school, to engage in school's internal continuous professional development activities, while using field experts for advanced topics on leadership and management.

6.5 The value of using CHAT in this study

This study drew on Engeström's (1987) second generation of Cultural Historical Activity Theory (herein referred to as CHAT) as a necessary theoretical and analytical framework (see Chapter Two, Section 2.5) to interrogate leadership as emergent in cultural-historical activities and situated actions and operations (Knott-Craig, 2017, p. 109). CHAT is a developmental theory that seeks to explain and influence qualitative changes in human practices over time (Engeström, 1999). According to Grant (2017, p. 15), "CHAT is but one of a number of innovative social theories which bridges the theory/practice divide and which moves beyond superficial investigations of teacher leadership". Thus, I found this theory relevant in that it helped me to understand the underlying systemic causes and problematic aspects (including contradictions) that constrained teacher leadership development within the participants daily practice. This then informed the intervention phase through the Change Laboratory workshops where research practitioners joined forces to literally create something novel, essentially learning something that was not yet there.

I therefore recommend future researchers in the Educational Leadership and Management (ELM) field to consider using CHAT, because it has a transformative agenda. Although this study was located in a single activity system, the intervention methodology of CHAT helped my research practitioners use their practical experiences to propose new ways of doing things. With my experience as a researcher-interventionist, I would recommend that future scholars, undertake similar intervention studies over longer periods of time, in order to conduct as many Change Laboratory workshops as necessary. Moreover, this study also recommends that future researchers in this field use the third and fourth generation of CHAT, to interrogate leadership within multiple

activity systems. This is because a large-scale study has the potential to reveal more information about leadership practices.

Though the second generation CHAT usage was evidenced to be useful and fruitful for this study, its limitation was that it did not address questions of diversity and dialogue between different traditions (Masilela, 2017). In my case, most participants in the research site school were newly appointed or transferred into the school (from other schools), thus possessing limited knowledge of how things had been happening in the past (school culture and history). Another notable limitation was that CHAT does not deal with the issue of power; it does not consider who the participants are in terms of their positionality within the workplace, raising questions of who is doing the questioning and who is being silenced or prevented from participating (Masilela, 2017).

6.6 Limitations of the study

My focus for this research has been on how teacher leadership can be developed in the school. In response to my research focus, the study generated valuable findings on teacher leadership development with the potential value of changing the current practice. These findings, however, were generated from a smaller unique qualitative case (one school out of 278 in the Oshikoto region) and therefore cannot be generalised. Moreover, only eight out of 35 staff members in the case study school participated in the research. Thus, the value of qualitative research is often questioned because you cannot make generalisations from results, when the sample is statistically not representative of the whole population in question (Falk & Guenther, 2006). However, it was not my intention to generalise these findings, but to get a deeper understanding of this phenomenon in a particular context.

Another notable limitation, was that my research participants knew me (researcher) as a principal of a neighbouring school within the same cluster. Therefore, my positionality may in one way or another have influenced the responses of the participants, which raises the issue of power relations. However, I was aware of such possibilities and conducted myself as a researcher, rather than a school principal. Furthermore, I kept reminding my participants on the issue of voluntarily participation and the right to withdraw, as well as upholding the issue of confidentiality, while re-

emphasising the purpose of my study. Thus, the ethical protocol guided my conduct throughout the study.

Although time is a social phenomenon beyond my capacity as a researcher, I have to acknowledge that it was another limitation toward my study in many ways. For example, my permission letter from the regional director compelled me to conduct my research study after normal teaching hours so that I would not interfere with the teaching and learning processes. Although I managed to generate valuable data, I needed a longer period in the field in order to capture all the cultural-historical practices of teacher leadership development. Moreover, a longer research duration could have allowed me to dig deeper into other possible underlying systemic causes that hampered the development of teachers as leaders, and with participants possibly, we could have made some major transformations.

6.7 Final thoughts on this research journey

It is believed that ‘a journey of a thousand miles always begins with a single step’ (anonymous), and this was no exception in my research journey. Generally, the journey throughout this study was challenging, yet every step was a learning experience. I have read widely on the field of ELM, as well as on different theories that would suit my study in different contexts. After a careful reading, I opted to use CHAT as a theoretical and analytical framework to interrogate teacher leadership development within a secondary school context, because of its transformatory nature. Through seminar presentations and discussions with my fellow classmates and supervisors, I learned how to analyse issues, and argue academically.

As a researcher-interventionist, I invoked, probed and facilitated the Change Laboratory workshop where practitioners shared ideas about their state of leadership development practice, by mirroring the data. This led to the formation of new knowledge and creation of new roles, and year plans within their school committees. According to Sannino et al. (2017), when researcher-interventionists are part of the process, their role is to intervene by provoking and supporting the process, led and owned by the participants (p. 600). Thus, I was indeed an *agent of change* within their setting.

Doing a research study of this magnitude with a transformational agenda within a period of one year was demanding. However, I have to acknowledge the support of my supervisor and her co-supervisors, as well as my fellow students on the programme (team no sleep). As of now, I would position myself as a researcher, and an academic knowledge creator, as well as an agent of change. This is because this study has unlocked my potential and desire to enter the world of researchers and writers. Thus, this research is the roadmap to my next destination, which hopefully is a PhD. I anticipate using a third generation CHAT framework to investigate complex activity systems, should I get the opportunity.

6.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented the main research findings in response to the research questions as highlighted earlier on. In that regard, it appeared that teacher leadership development was understood in relation to teachers' daily roles, attitudes and abilities, and the willingness to create leadership opportunities by the SMT and mutual trust within the school. Moreover, the summary indicated that there was strong evidence of 'distributed leadership' practice as teachers led within all four zones of Grant's Model, although their roles differed from zone to zone. As much as the study revealed the factors that promoted the development of teachers as leaders in the case study school, the factors that hampered this practice overshadowed that. Moreover, the summary indicated that these constraining factors were systemic, located in the cultural-historical trend of the Apartheid past which continues to hinder leadership development of teachers. In response to this, the study calls for more formative intervention research studies on the notion of teacher leadership development and the use of CHAT due to its transformative powers.

With literature on the notion of teacher leadership development, the question now is *“Did we put our pieces together”* (Grant, 2008a) in order to transform and develop teachers as leaders? If not, I believe that it is time to *“awaken the sleeping giant”* in that teachers possess skills, expertise and experiences which are advantageous for the holistic school improvement (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Otherwise, the transformation of Namibian schools into “professional learning communities will remain a pipedream” (Grant, 2017, p. 6).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Rhodes University ethical clearance letter



RHODES UNIVERSITY

Grahamstown • 6140 • South Africa

EDUCATION FACULTY • PO Box 94, Grahamstown, 6140
Tel: (046) 603 8385 / (046) 603 8393 • Fax: (046) 622 8028 • e-mail: d.wilmot@ru.ac.za

PROPOSAL AND ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL

Ethical clearance number 2017.06.02.10

The minute of the EHDC meeting of 1 June 2017 reflect the following:

**2017.06.02 CLASS B RESTRICTED MATTERS
MASTER OF EDUCATION RESEARCH PROPOSALS (FULL)**

To consider the following research proposal for the degree of Master of Education in the Faculty of Education:

David Kandiwapa Iyambo (09I6419)

Topic: An exploration of teacher leadership development: A case study in a rural Secondary School in northern Namibia

*Supervisors: Professor H van der Mescht
Professor C Grant
Ms F Kajee*

Decision: Approved

This letter confirms the approval of the above proposal at a meeting of the Faculty of Education Higher Degrees' Committee on the 1 June 2017.

The proposal demonstrates an awareness of ethical responsibilities and a commitment to ethical research processes. The approval of the proposal by the committee thus constitutes ethical clearance.

Sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'MS', written over a horizontal line.

Prof Marc Schäfer
Chair of the EHDC, Rhodes University
8 June 2017

APPENDIX B: Permission seeking letter to the Regional Director for authorisation

Inquire: *David K. Iyambo*
Cell: +264 811 241664/+2764 3035873
Email: dkiyambo61@gmail.com

16 Bartholomew Street
Grahamstown
South Africa
24 May 2017

To: The Regional Director
Oshikoto Education Directorate
Private Bag 2028
Ondangwa, Namibia

Dear Mr Kafidi

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY AT [REDACTED] SSS

I am **David Kandiwapa Iyambo**, a full-time Master of Education student in the field of Educational Leadership and Management at Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa. In fulfilment of this degree, I am required to carry out a research study in Namibia. The research study is scheduled to be conducted during June and July 2017 respectively. Bearing the title: “Interrogating teacher leadership development through a formative intervention: A case study in a rural secondary school in northern Namibia”, the study aims to explore how teacher leadership can be developed in the school. Moreover, the study seeks at surfacing the underlying cultural-historical conditions that may promote or constrain teacher leadership development, and identify ways of creating opportunities for changes within the mindset of participants through change laboratory workshops.

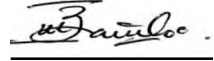
It is with the aforesaid background that I selected [REDACTED] SSS due to its accessibility to me as a researcher and its diversity of learners and staff. However, my interest is not in any-way to assess the school’s performance academically but to understand how leadership is being practiced and distributed as well as creating ways of developing teachers as leaders. Thus, I will need to collect data through administering questionnaires to all teachers; interviewing selected teachers (six), three SMT members and a School Board Chairperson. Furthermore, I would need to analyse some educational documents and I will also conduct three change laboratory workshops (one workshop per week) for the intervention and expansive learning purpose.

I vow to adhere to the ethical standard of the Ministry of Education and that of the school as I am required by the university and my research will not intervene with the teaching and learning processes. With the above said, I am humbly requesting your good office to grant me a written permission to conduct this important study in the said selected school.

Should there be questions, please feel free to contact me any time at; +264 811241 664/+27643035873 or by email: dkiyambo61@gmail.com. Attached is a proof of registration from my supervisors and their contact details.

Thanking you in anticipation that this letter will receive your best consideration.

Yours in Education

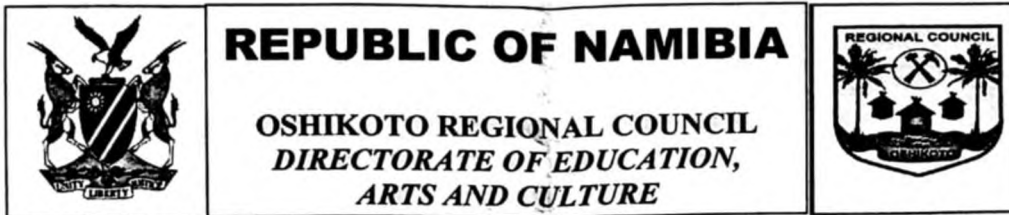


David K. Iyambo (Researcher)

Student No. 09i6419

Cc: The Inspector of Education
 *Circuit*

APPENDIX C: Permission letter from the director



Tel (065) 281900
Fax (065) 240315
Enq: Ms H Tende

Private Bag 2028
ONDANGWA
07 June 2017

Ref: 12/3/10/1

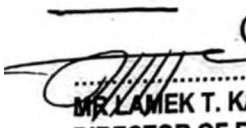
Mr David K. Iyambo
Cell: 0811241664
E-mail: dkiyambo61@gmail.com

Dear Mr Iyambo

PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY AT [REDACTED] SSS

1. We acknowledge receipt of letter which was received by our office on the 06 June 2017, seeking for approval from the office of the Director to conduct a research study at [REDACTED] SSS, Oshikoto Region.
2. The writing of this letter therefore serves to inform you that permission has been granted to you to conduct research during the period of June/July at the afore mentioned school on the following condition:
 - You have to consult the school principal well in advance to ensure a proper co-ordination of other school activities.
 - The research should not interfere with the normal teaching and learning process at school.
 - Participation in the research should be on a voluntary basis.
 - And the information to be gathered should be treated as confidential and only for research purposes.
3. With that in mind, it is my wish that your research study will yield satisfactory results, towards the completion of your qualification.

Yours Faithfully


MR LAMEK T. KAFIDI
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
OSHIKOTO REGIONAL COUNCIL
DIRECTORATE OF EDUCATION, ARTS AND CULTURE
PRIVATE BAG 2028
ONDANGWA
07 JUN 2017

CC: Principal, [REDACTED] SSS

APPENDIX D: Permission seeking letter to the school principal for authorisation

Inquire: David K. Iyambo
Cell: +264 811 241664/+2764 3035873
Email: dkiyambo61@gmail.com

16 Bartholomew Street
Grahamstown
South Africa
24 May 2017

To: The School Principal
██████ SSS
Private Bag ██████
Ondangwa, Namibia

Dear ██████

SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A RESEARCH STUDY AT ██████ SSS

I am **David Kandiwapa Iyambo**, a full-time Master of Education student in the field of Educational Leadership and Management at Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa. In fulfilment of this degree, I am required to carry out a research study in Namibia. The research study is scheduled to be conducted during June and July 2017 respectively. Bearing the title; “Interrogating teacher leadership development through a formative intervention: A case study in a rural secondary school in northern Namibia”, the study aims to explore how teacher leadership can be developed in the school. Moreover, the study seeks at surfacing the underlying cultural-historical conditions that may promote or constrain teacher leadership development, and identify ways of creating opportunities for changes within the mindset of participants through change laboratory workshops.

While at your school, I intend to do the following:

- Meet all teaching staff including you for me to explain the purpose of this study and its processes.
- I would need to study some documents such as: Minute of meetings, schedule of activities, TSE, NPST, PDP, and any other relevant document that contain some cultural and historical practices of teacher leadership development.
- I will conduct interviews with you as a school principal, two head of departments, six teachers and a school board chairperson.
- I would also administer questionnaires to all teaching staff including you.
- I will need to observe the six teachers (main participants) in their classrooms and around the school as they fulfill leadership roles.
- Attend one staff meeting, staff briefing meeting and a departmental/subject meeting where possible.
- Run three change laboratory workshops (one workshop per week) with six teachers and three SMT members including you.
- Where possible, I would be available to assist the school in any event.

However, my stay at your school is not to evaluate the performance in terms of teaching and learning or your school governance, but to understand how leadership could be developed among level-one teachers.

Participation in this study is voluntarily and therefore participants have the right to withdraw at any time without any consequences. Thus, it is important that all research participants sign a consent form. On the other hand, I am assuring you that all information to be collected will be treated in a confidential manner and the participants' identity will be protected by upholding the issue of anonymity as part of research ethics.

With the above said, I am humbly requesting your good office to grant me a permission to conduct this important study in your school. Should there be questions, please feel free to contact me any time at; +264 811241 664/+27643035873 or by email: dkiyambo61@gmail.com. Attached is a proof of registration from my supervisors and their contact details.

Thanking you in anticipation that this permission seeking letter will receive your best consideration.

Yours in Education



David K. Iyambo (Researcher)
Student No. 09i6419

APPENDIX E: Invitation letter for participating in the research

Inquire: David K. Iyambo
Cell: +264 811 241664/+2764 3035873
Email: dkiyambo61@gmail.com

16 Bartholomew Street
Grahamstown
South Africa
24 May 2017

Dear
Mr/Ms.....


SUBJECT: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH STUDY

I am **David Kandiwapa Iyambo**, a full-time Master of Education student in the field of Educational Leadership and Management at Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa. In fulfilment of this degree, I am required to carry out a research study in Namibia. The research study is scheduled to be conducted during June and July 2017 respectively. Bearing the title; “Interrogating teacher leadership development through a formative intervention: A case study in a rural secondary school in northern Namibia”, the study aims to explore how teacher leadership can be developed in the school. Moreover, the study seeks at surfacing the underlying cultural-historical conditions that may promote or constrain teacher leadership development, and identify ways of creating opportunities for changes within the mindset of participants through change laboratory workshops.

It is with the given background that I am inviting you to participate in this important study in your school. Please be assured that this study is not aiming to evaluate your performance in terms of teaching and learning or other competences, but to understand how leadership could be developed among level-one teachers.

Participation in this study is voluntarily and therefore you have the right to withdraw at any time without any consequences. Thus, it is important that you need to sign a consent form should you choose to partake in this study. On the other hand, I am assuring you that all information to be collected will be treated in a confidential manner and your identity will be protected by upholding the issue of anonymity as part of research ethics.

Should you have any question or query, please feel free to contact me any time for more information.

Yours sincerely


David K. Iyambo
Researcher
Student No: 09I6419

DECLARATION

I (full names of the participant) hereby attest that I understand the content and nature of this research study and I am willing to participate in the research project. I also understand that I reserve the right to withdraw from this research study at any time.

.....
Signature of participant

.....
Date

APPENDIX F: Interview schedules

“Interrogating teacher leadership development through a formative intervention: A case study in a rural Secondary School in northern Namibia”.

A. Teachers Schedule

General Information:

Teachers Identification	P		HoD		LT/ET	
Age	< 30		31 < 40		51 <	
Qualifications	Grade 12		3 years Diploma		4 years Degree +	
Years of experience	< 3		4 ≤ 7	8 ≤ 11	12 ≤ 15	16 ≤ +
Nature of employment	Permanent		Temporary		Contract	

1. How long have you been teaching?
 - 1.1. In your own view, what is your understanding of teacher leadership development as a concept?
 - 1.2. Who would you view as a teacher leader/Do you view yourself as a teacher leader?
2. What leadership role(s) do you currently fulfill in ¹your classroom, ²the School and ³beyond? How do you do that perhaps?
 - 2.1. Have you ever made a major decision or initiated an activity in the school? How was it received?
 - 2.2. Are there leadership opportunities for teachers to lead in the school? Please explain.
3. In what way do the SMT members promote teacher leadership opportunities? Are those opportunities leading to leadership development?
 - 3.1. What would you consider as factors or conditions that are constraining teacher leadership in the school? May you give examples?
 - 3.2. Do you think it is important for teachers to be developed as leader? May you explain why?
4. In your view, what could be the best way to develop teachers as leader?

Thank you.

B. School Management Team members' schedule

1. How long have you served in the School Management Team?
2. What is your understanding of teacher leadership development as a concept?
3. What leadership roles do teachers currently fulfill? (for example: where, when and how)
4. What leadership opportunities do your team provide for teacher leadership development?
5. Do you view teacher leadership development as an important aspect in the school? May you elaborate?
6. How do you promote the development of teacher as leaders in the school? Example...
7. Are teachers willing to take up leadership roles? Please explain why?
8. In your view, what are the constraining factors in developing teacher as leaders?
9. What could be done to promote teacher leadership development?

Thank you very much.

C. School Board Chairperson schedule

1. What leadership development opportunities does the school provide for teachers?
2. In your view, is it important to develop teachers as leader? State the reason for your answer.
3. How often do teachers make decisions and how does the SBC receive/treat those decisions?
4. Do you think the SMT members are promoting the development of teachers as leaders?
How?
5. Are teachers willing to take up leadership roles in the school? How...why?
6. What conditions do you view as constraining teacher leadership development?
7. What could be done to develop teacher as leaders?

Thank you very much.

APPENDIX G: Questionnaires for teachers

“Interrogating teacher leadership development through a formative intervention: A case study in a rural Secondary School in northern Namibia”.

Instructions for Questionnaires

- This questionnaire is to be answered by teachers as well as SMT members.
- DO NOT write your name on the questionnaire.
- Use either a BLUE or a BLACK ink pen. DO NOT use a pencil.
- For sections A to D, respond to the statements by placing a cross in the column that better represent your views.

Section A: To build your personal profile, please place a cross in the column that best represent your information and experiences.

1	Age group	≤ 25	26 ≤ 35	36 ≤ 45	46 +
2	Professional Qualifications	Grade 12 + ≤ 3years	Grade 12 + 4years	Grade 12 + 4 ≤	Grade 12 + Other
3	Nature of employment	Permanent	Temporary	Contract	Relief
4	Employer	GRN	NGO	School	Volunteer
5	Years of teaching experience	≤ 5	6 ≤ 10	11 ≤ 15	16 +
6	Leadership training received	Yes		None	

Section B: Place a cross in the column that best represents your knowledge and understanding of teacher leadership as a concept.

	Knowledge and understanding of teacher leadership development as a concept	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I am aware of the concept				
2	I understand the concept and can explain it to others				
3	I believe teacher leadership development is important for every teacher				
4	I believe it will strengthen teamwork, collaboration and participation for all teachers.				
5	I believe teacher leadership development will contributes to the holistic development of the school.				
6	I believe everyone can lead				

Section C: Place a cross in the column that better represents your views of leadership roles teachers fulfill in the classrooms, school, and beyond.

	Leadership Roles	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Every teacher is a leader of his/her subject and classroom				
2	The SMT members provide opportunities for teachers to lead				
3	Teachers fulfill leadership roles within the school through different committees				
4	Most teachers lead extra-curricular activities				
5	Teachers in my school serve in circuit committees, and some at regional and national activities				
6	Distribution of leadership roles among teachers does not mean delegation				
7	Teachers are fully involved in the school self-evaluation				
8	Teachers are always part of the curricular development				
9	Teachers serves in the circuit activities				
10	Teachers communicate with parents regularly				

Section D: Please place a cross in the column that better explains in your view, the conditions (factors) that are either promoting or constraining teacher leadership development.

	Promoting or constraining conditions (factors)	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Teachers are regularly involved in decision-making within the school				
2	Teachers do not link leadership roles to remunerations and incentives				
3	Teachers are regularly developed through CPD activity initiated by SMT members				
4	Teachers are always ready to volunteer towards leadership roles				
5	Teachers views, and initiatives are always considered and highly valued				
6	There is a culture of team work in the school				

7	National policies documents and internal school policies create a conducive environment for teacher leadership development				
8	The school culture is conducive for teacher leadership development				
9	Teachers attend regional and national curricular development activities				
10	Teachers have created a link with teachers from other school for sharing best practices				

Any other comment you wish to share with regards to teacher leadership development in your school.

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Thank you.

APPENDIX H: Observation schedule

“Interrogating teacher leadership development through a formative intervention: A case study in a rural Secondary School in northern Namibia”.

Observation Date:/...../.....

The schedule drew from Grant’s Model of Teacher Leadership and will be used to observe events within these zones. However, any other observable event will be recorded as other.

	Leadership role/s within the zone	Indicators	Action(s) taken
1	Teacher leading in the classroom	-subject management - Set classroom rules -keep records (attendance, CASS) -make decision -maintain discipline	
2	Teachers leading beyond the classrooms – Building relationships with other teachers	-Collaboration -Co-planning -Subject meeting -Mentoring -Break time interactions -Teacher-student-parent interaction	
3	Teachers leading in whole school development issues – Building vision, culture, image and pride	-Morning assembly -Staff development -Extra-curricular (sport, cultural festival) -Discipline enforcement -Staff meetings/briefing	
4	Teachers leading beyond the school – in community, cluster, circuit or regional networking	-Cross-school interactions -Workshop Attendance/ facilitation -Moderation and Setting exams -Cluster meetings -Circuit meetings if any	
5	Informal events		