

**TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP ROLES AT A PUBLIC RURAL SCHOOL
IN THE OHANGWENA REGION, NAMIBIA**

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ABSTRACT

The changing global and local circumstances and shift for democracy posed particular problems for school administration and leadership and made it difficult for principals to fulfil leadership responsibilities in schools alone. Hence principals require the assistance of all stakeholders in the school, and teachers in particular, to work together as a team and share the diverse leadership load for the improvement of schools. Thus, leadership in schools needs to be shared and distributed in a collaborative manner among teachers and principals working as a group to accomplish the primary objective of their schools, which is to improve learners' achievement. For this idea to be embraced, I suggest it may require an urgent need for advanced knowledge and understanding of teacher leadership in schools, among teachers and principals, if schools are to thrive.

This research studied the phenomenon of teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Oshana region of Namibia. It explored the teachers' experiences of their leadership roles, and specifically the challenges inherent within the practice of teacher leadership in a school. A qualitative interpretive case study was conducted, employing document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations to produce data with regard to teachers' experiences of their leadership roles, challenges inherent within its practice and possible strategies to promote teacher leadership.

The analysis and the triangulation across the data sets suggested that teacher leadership existed in the case study school where it appeared in four different areas of leadership practice. These areas of leadership practices (Grant, 2008, p. 93) were, for example, in the classroom, outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities, in school-wide leadership development and between other neighbouring schools in the community.

The school had a view of teacher leadership which was strongly located within the classroom and outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities where teachers worked and interacted with their colleagues and learners. Teacher leadership was severely limited in the area of whole school development and almost non-existent in the area outside the school between teachers across neighbouring schools, at circuit or district level and in the community.

The study suggested that the nature of teacher leadership in the case study school was a restricted form of teacher leadership (Harris and Muijs, 2005) due to a range of factors which impeded its practice. The factors were, for example, a lack of involvement of all teachers in whole school leadership and school-wide decision-making. Other factors were limited time for teachers in the school, a lack of leadership development amongst the principal and teachers as well as resistance for teachers to leadership in the case study school.

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This study is dedicated to my family:

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To my parents Julia Taleinawa Ngenokesho and Theophilus Ndungula Hamupembe, I am proud of you for passing-on your intelligence on me.

DECLARATION

I, Ladipaleni Ndadiinina Nauyoma, 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)

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(Date)

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to understand the phenomenon of teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. This chapter discusses the context where the research on teacher leadership arose, the rationale for the study, the potential value of the research and explains why research on teacher leadership in Namibia is necessary. The chapter also outlines my topic, research goals and questions that I investigated. It moves on with a brief note on the research approach and the methods the study adopted as well as the tools I have used. The chapter then explains the steps taken to make the research process work. Finally, the chapter provides an outline of how the thesis is structured.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

In pre-independence in Namibia, i.e. before 1990, the education system was characterized by a 'top-down' authoritarian, non-democratic and non-participatory leadership and management style. The education system was characterized by acute disparities, inequalities, tensions, differential allocation of resources to different racial groups for which Whites were the most privileged and the majority of Blacks were disadvantaged (Namibia. Ministry of Basic Education and Culture [MBEC], 1993, p. 19). The education for Black Namibians was "justified in terms of its vocational utility ... to prepare people for the specific jobs that German then South African rule required" (Namibia. MBEC, 1993, P. 2). Leadership and management in schools were solely vested in the principal and senior administrators while teachers were mostly confined to the leadership and management of the classrooms.

In post-independent Namibia, after 21 March 1990, the democratic government introduced different initiatives to redress the features of the apartheid legacy. Among these was the policy entitled *Towards Education for All* (Namibia. MBEC, 1993) which was introduced in

1993 and the Education Act, Act no. 16 of 2001. *Towards Education for All* which is a “policy document which translates the Namibian philosophy on education into concrete and implementable government policies” (Namibia. MBEC, 1993, p. i). *Towards Education for All* together with the Education Act expected the broad participation of all stakeholders in the decision-making processes of the school. Thus, teachers have the right to participate in school-wide leadership and in the decision-making processes of the school. In this way, *Towards Education for All* and the *Education Act*, expect schools to practise participative leadership.

The policy, *Towards Education for All* (Namibia. MBEC, 1993) through decentralization, paved the way for the practise of distributed leadership in schools through which teacher leadership can emerge. It is clearly stipulated in the *Towards Education for All* (Namibia. MBEC, 1993) that leadership in schools has to be shared between teachers and principals. *Towards Education for All* had a view that responsibilities and authority in school require to be decentralized in order for all the stakeholders in education especially teachers to have access and authority in school-wide leadership and decision-making processes in schools (Namibia. MBEC, 1993, p. 186).

In the field of educational leadership and management (ELM) today, there is an urgent need for advanced knowledge and understanding of teachers’ leadership roles in schools among teachers and principals globally. This is due to the many changes in the world, such as the “changes in the economy, changes in the governments and public life as well as demographic shifts” (Lieberman & Miller, 2004, p. 2) which impact on schooling and hence require the attention of teachers, principals and parents. In Namibia, these changes affect schools and principals in a variety of ways. Nowadays, schools are working with learners from different family structures of different religions, languages and cultural backgrounds. They also work with learners who are heading households because their parents are dead, especially due to HIV/AIDS and other related diseases. These changing circumstances pose particular problems for schools administration and leadership.

In addition to the social challenges, changes in the economy require heightened “production, application and dissemination of knowledge” (Lieberman & Miller, 2004, p. 3) which require highly skilled and knowledgeable workers (Lieberman & Miller, 2004).

Similarly, the *Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme (ETSIP)* (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2005) points out that:

One of the key impediments to productivity growth is the shortage of skilled workers of various levels and types. Employers note the shortage of qualified artisans and technicians as a critical constraint on increasing their productivity. At high levels, there is a shortage of managers, engineers, medical doctors, researchers, and others required to provide technical leadership in the country's quest to intensify the creation and application of knowledge to improve productivity (p. 5).

This implies that, since these workers are obviously the products of schools, schools in Namibia are increasingly expected to provide quality education to prepare and produce learners who will form up a knowledge-based society and help to prepare responsible citizens for the future. The excerpt also suggests that schools in Namibia are also expected to provide high quality education to develop "the human capital required for knowledge based economy" (Namibia. MoE, 2005, P. 23). *ETSIP* is a fifteen year strategic plan that represents the education and training sector's response to the call of the *Vision 2030*. *Vision 2030* is Namibia's national vision statement that sets a very ambitious target that by 2030; Namibia should join the ranks of high income countries that afford all their citizens the quality of life that is comparable to that of the developed world (Namibia. MoE, 2005, p. 5).

The dramatic shift to democratizing the education system in Namibia has put school leadership in the spotlight (Kapapero, 2007). An obvious response to this increased pressure is to develop a system of broad participation in decision-making and clear accountability of all stakeholders in education, one in which teachers act as "creators and managers" (Namibia. MBEC, 1993, P. 42) not only of the teaching and learning processes but also to ensure the overall well-being of the school (Namibia. MBEC, 1993). The principal, while still managing the school as its 'CEO', also needs to be at the centre of activities which facilitate and encourage all members of the school community to participate in leadership (Namibia. MBEC, 1993). This notion of delegated and shared responsibility is a worldwide trend, and has been at the heart of school reform in South Africa since 1994 (South Africa. DoE, 1996).

It is thus commonly accepted, especially at the level of policy and research, that principals can no longer fulfill leadership responsibilities in the schools alone. Principals who concentrate on administrative tasks neglect instructional duties and vice-versa (Namibia. MBEC, 1993; Kapapero, 2007; Danielson, 2007). Hence principals need the assistance of all

the stakeholders in the school community (teachers, non-educator staff members, learners, parents and members of the community) so that they can work together as a team and share the load of these diverse responsibilities for the improvement of the school (Educational Commission of the States (ECS), 2010). It is for these reasons that contemporary literature argues that leadership in schools has to be shared and distributed collectively in a collaborative manner (Earley & Weindling, 2004; Harris & Muijs, 2005; ECS, 2010). Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 28) assert that “distributed leadership is characterized as a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working together”. Similarly, Earley and Weindling (2004) stress that:

leadership is not perceived as simply as a trait of an individual – and more on the sharing of leadership throughout the organization. It is an inclusive leadership and one that is distributed throughout the school. ... that leadership is to distribute or disperse responsibility and to empower others to give of their best (pp. 14-15).

Leadership is said to be ‘shared’ and ‘distributed’ in a collaborative manner when the leadership roles are divided and spread (dispersed) among the group of people working together to accomplish the objectives of their organization which in schools is to improve learners’ achievement (Earley & Weindling, 2004, pp. 14-15; Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 28). When this idea is embraced, it invites and empowers the teachers to take up leadership roles in the schools and as a result, ‘teacher leadership’ can emerge. This study seeks to explore how leadership among teachers manifests itself in a rural school in Namibia.

Teacher leadership falls under the category of contemporary theories of leadership since it focuses on the relationships among individuals within the organization (York-Barr & Duke, 2004 and Hong Kong Institute of Educational Research (HKIER), 2006). Teacher leadership has been defined as a form of leadership within and beyond the classroom by the Education Commission of the States [ECS] (2010, p. 1) when they assert: “teacher leaders are teachers who aspire to stretch beyond their classrooms to engage in leadership roles that take many shapes and forms, both “informal” and “formal”.

This definition suggests the view of teachers taking both formal and informal leadership roles outside the classroom either in the school-wide leadership or outside the school at circuit and regional levels. The formal leadership roles for teachers refer to the “titles and job descriptions” Gunter (2011, p. 118) or “designated responsibilities” (Harrison & Killion,

2007, p. 2) of teachers. Thus the formal leadership roles can be understood as full-time roles or responsibilities that teachers perform in their settings (classrooms or staff-rooms), while informal leadership roles are “exercises of leadership by teachers regardless of positions or designation” (Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 21). These are leadership roles that teachers practise outside of their classrooms, and even beyond the school.

Recent studies reveal some of the challenges that are prevalent in the practice of teacher leadership roles in schools today. One is that school principals do not want to share their authority with teachers and other stakeholders in the school (Danielson, 2007). Often teachers are reluctant to leave their classrooms to extend their leadership roles. There is also lack of role definition of teacher leadership (Greenlee, 2004; HKIER, 2006 and McCauley, 2009). This might be due to the “resistance to change” among teachers and principals from the traditional authoritarian leadership to the non-traditional democratic leadership thinking.

1.3 THE RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Drawing on my **personal experience** as a teacher for ten years in a Namibian school, I failed to understand what my leadership roles in the school were and I believe the need for teachers to occupy leadership roles is not well understood by most of the teachers or principals. Hence I developed an interest in teacher leadership in order to understand it better and in this way I may bring about change in the education sectors such as schools. My study is of **potential value** in the sense that it will be useful to the Ministry of Education, state policymakers, teachers, principals, and other researchers who are interested in leadership in education, particularly the notion of shared or distributed leadership. The study of teacher leadership in Namibia is of utmost importance in the sense that little, if any, research has been done in this area. Bearing the literature in mind, teacher leadership plays a significant role in schools where it is allowed and supported. For this reason, it is worth conducting the research on teacher leadership in the Namibian schools’ context.

1.4 RESEARCH GOAL

If public rural schools in Namibia are to thrive, teacher leadership needs to become entrenched in the system. Research shows that schools can encourage teacher leadership to emerge by empowering teachers to participate in school leadership (Harris & Muijs, 2005). However, this can only happen if teacher leadership is well understood by teachers and principals, and if the appropriate structures are set in place and if the culture of the school is enabling. The study aims to investigate this phenomenon of teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. The ultimate goal of the study is:

- ❖ To explore teachers' experiences of their leadership roles, and specifically
- ❖ to find out the challenges inherent within its practice, and

To achieve this goal, the study endeavoured to answer the following research questions:

- What leadership roles do teachers currently exercise at the school?
- What are the teachers' experiences of their leadership roles at schools? What are the challenges?
- What is formal leadership's attitude to teacher leadership?
- To what extent do stakeholders understand the need for a supportive culture and structure for the emergence of teacher leadership?

1.5 THE RESEARCH APPROACH

The study employed a case study methodology in the interpretive paradigm since it investigated the phenomenon of teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. It explored teachers' experiences of their leadership roles, and specifically found out the challenges inherent within its practice, and the strategies to promote teacher leadership in schools.

Nisbet and Watt (1994) in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007, p. 253) argue that "a case study is a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle". This implies that a case study enables the researcher to develop a broader understanding of

a particular phenomenon through interacting with people in such a particular case. It also means that the researcher can study the actions of a particular case that can represent the results of many cases. For instance, my case was one school out of many schools in the Ohangwena region and my research sample was four teachers out of a total of 25 teachers in the school. To understand the phenomenon under study, I got in touch with the staff at my case study school and engaged with the research participants in the school to listen to what they were saying and to observe what they were doing in relation to teacher leadership. In doing this, I used document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations as my data collection methods. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter Three section 3.3 of the thesis. In this case, the research participants produced the raw data from which I was able to draw together my findings.

1.6 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

Chapter one discusses the context of the research, its potential value and why teacher leadership is necessary. It outlines the research goals and questions and provides a brief note on the research approach, methods and the tools used in the study.

Chapter two presents a review of the literature on teacher leadership, theoretical framing of the concept of leadership in general, participative and distributed leadership in particular. It informs the reader on what teacher leadership actually means, what it 'looks like' in practice, its roots (origins), how can schools encourage and 'grow' teacher leadership approach as well as the challenges inherent within its practice.

Chapter three discusses the research approach in which the study was conducted. It provides the description and defense of the research approach and the methods that the study worked adopted. The chapter also discusses the research case and research participants. It provides the outline of the data gathering tools, namely document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations the study employed. The chapter also provides a brief discussion of the data analysis process as well as ethical implications that the study addressed. It also outlines the limitations and the validity of the study.

Chapter four presents the data collected from document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations. It provides a brief overview of the research site, the profile of the research participants and the presentation of the data in categories as they emerged from the data analysis.

Chapter five discusses the main findings and the key threads that have been uncovered in the light of the research goals and questions as well as the relevant literature.

Chapter six summarizes the main findings, recommendations and provides comments based on the findings. It concludes the thesis with the discussion of the limitations and the potential value of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Within every school there is a sleeping giant of teacher leadership that can be a strong catalyst for making changes to improve student learning. By using the energy of teacher leaders as agents of school change, public education will stand a better chance of ensuring that every child has a high quality teacher. (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009, p. 2)

The metaphor of a sleeping giant by Katzenmeyer and Moller illustrates the current dormant status of teachers and also the difference and benefits teacher leadership might bring into schools when allowed to grow and to emerge.

My study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Oshana region of Namibia. Therefore this Chapter is a review of literature and it also provides a theoretical framing for teacher leadership. The Chapter is divided into five main sections namely, traditional leadership, participative leadership, distributed leadership, teacher leadership and conclusion. I employed the traditional leadership theories: an individual perspective to provide the historical background of participative leadership, distributed leadership and, more importantly, to teacher leadership which is the main focus of this study. The aim is to provide the lens for the emergence or the roots of teacher leadership as the phenomenon under study.

The theories of participative leadership and distributed leadership are adopted to analyze my data in Chapter Four and to provide a conceptual framework for the description and interpretation of my data in Chapter Five of this thesis. This is due to the fact that participative and distributed leadership suggest the view that leadership in the school does not reside in the principal alone, who is high up in the traditional hierarchy, but is shared among a group of people in the school (Day & Harris, 2002; Burniske & Barlow, 2003; Spillane, 2006; Anderson, 2007; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Wales, 2009; Doyle & Smith, 2011; Cherry, 2011). These authors share a common vision of leadership as a group endeavour that involves the principal, teachers, parents, learners and other people in the school

community leading the school as a collaborative team, sharing the same purpose and a common goal (Day & Harris, 2002; Burniske & Barlow, 2003; Spillane, 2006; Anderson, 2007; Harris & Spillane, 2008; Wales, 2009; Doyle & Smith, 2011; Cherry, 2011). Participative leadership provides the view that teachers are required to participate in the decision-making processes in the school (Day & Harris, 2002; Muijs & Harris, 2003; Somech, 2005; HKIER, 2006). In addition, distributed leadership suggests that within the school there are multiple leaders and what are important are the leadership practices and the interactions between the leaders, followers and their situations (Spillane, 2006).

2.2 TRADITIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES: AN INDIVIDUAL PERSPECTIVE

This section offers a review of literature on the evolution of leadership from traditional leadership to non-traditional leadership. It presents a review of selected literature of the roots or historical background of leadership theories. This historical framework is important as one is then able to locate participative leadership, distributed leadership and, in particular, teacher leadership in the broader field. There are many definitions of leadership, depending on whose and when. For many authors, leadership has been defined as an act or the process of influencing other people to change their behaviour in order to accomplish the goal of their organization (Wales, 2009; Bush, 2010; Kelley, 2011). However in the past, “leadership was understood in terms of individual traits, behaviour, influence over other people, interaction patterns, role relationships, etc.” (Hong Kong Institute of Educational Research [HKIER], 2006, p. 2).

The literature has evidenced that there has been a move in the leadership trends worldwide over the past decades especially in business sectors, governments, education and other industries and this has been a move from traditional leadership thinking to non-traditional leadership theories (Van der Mescht, 1996; Earley & Weindling, 2004; Wales, 2009; Cherry, 2011). This move is estimated to have been initiated by trends culminating in the publication of Burns’ book entitled *Leadership* (1987) but leading up to this more drastic paradigm shift there was a general movement within the transactional leadership framework which spanned the period between 1900’s to 1978 (ibid). This can be called the

“first move”; within the transactional leadership theory there was a change, over time, through what can be seen as three types of traditional leadership.

Within this first move, the first type of traditional leadership there was a, trait thinking, also known as the “Great-man” or Aristotle theory suggests that some individuals are born with certain personality traits which enabled them to lead (Earley & Weindling, 2004; Wales, 2009; Cherry, 2011). For example in the school, students may respect and obey the tallest and fattest teacher more than the thinner or shortest teachers just because of the characteristics and appearances of teachers. In reality, it may not be like that, a thinner teacher can be a more successful teacher than the fatter one. From trait thinking, the leadership approach moved on the second type of traditional leadership, situational leadership theory, which has the view that a person can be a follower or a leader, depending on the circumstances and also that different situations require different types of leadership (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). For instance, a successful principal at one school may not be a successful chief commander of the police. From here, the generally accepted traditional leadership theories moved on from situational theory to contingency theory, the third type, which works from the premise that the success of the leader depends on the situation or the nature of the environment. In other words, leadership is determined by the behaviour of the followers, for example, a successful principal at one school might not be a successful principal at another school because schools have different cultures that play a major role in shaping the behaviour of the person. In some schools, it is often the teachers who shape the leadership of the principal, depending on the shared values and beliefs of the school culture.

Thus it can be seen that in traditional leadership thinking, the focus is on the task and person tension, exchange of services between leaders and followers and applied a directive form of leadership. Hence the (HKIER) (2006, P. 2), asserts that “in the past leadership was understood in terms of individual traits, behaviour, influence over other people, interaction patterns, role relationships, etc”. The assertion indicates that leadership for the past decades was vested in one person (the administrator) at the uppermost level of authority.

The so-called second move occurred after the 1978. From contingency theory, the thinking moved on to the transformational (non-traditional) leadership theories which view

leadership as a group activity rather than an individual activity. The move from contingency leadership theory to transformational theory was identified as the second move which is estimated to have taken place between the 1978 and 1990s (Van der Mescht, 1996; Earley & Weindling, 2004; Wales, 2009; Cherry, 2011).

In the next section I discuss the theory of participative leadership as an example of leadership as a group activity.

2.3 PARTICIPATIVE LEADERSHIP

In this section I present the theory of participative leadership to provide a theoretical framework to the discussion and assist with the interpretation of my data in Chapter Five of this thesis. However, since participative leadership is relevant to the section of teachers' participation and involvement in the decision-making processes for my data, I present it only in terms of its relevance to participants' participation in the decision-making processes in the organization.

The leadership thinking worldwide today favours democracy in such a way that leadership has to be shared among the group of people rather than be vested in one person when it comes to the decision-making processes in the organization (Day & Harris, 2002; Somech, 2005; Muijs & Harris, 2003; HKIER, 2006). This means that all people in the organization need to participate in the decision-making process since it concerns their own affairs. This resulted in participative leadership as a viable leadership approach for schools in the twenty-first century. I suggest this is how the notion of participative leadership was introduced and momentum in the contemporary literature. Thus, there is a shift in the leadership trends globally from individual leadership to democratic leadership also known as participative leadership (Somech, 2005; Wales, 2009; Cherry, 2011). In Educational Leadership and Management (ELM) in general and school leadership in particular, it is suggested that "principals can no longer do it alone or themselves" (Day & Harris, 2002; Danielson, 2007). This is because of the "increasingly complex contexts of accountability" (Day & Harris, 2002, p. 957) and diverse responsibilities that face most of the schools today

therefore, they need assistance from all stakeholders in the school community, and teachers in particular, to share the workload if schools are to thrive or develop.

The core idea behind the shift in leadership trends is to instill democracy and equity where participation of all stakeholders, such as teachers and other people in the school community, in decision-making processes is allowed and encouraged (Wales, 2009; Cherry, 2011; Doyle & Smith, 2011). This breaks away from the task-person tension towards a leadership based more on relationships among individuals within the organization, and also a more holistic and inspirational leadership approach where the principal becomes a moral agent and a team leader (Shields, 2004). Thus leadership has moved beyond the person to the group, to reach even broader social goals.

Participative leadership has been referred to by Wales (2009, p. 8) as a democratic leadership style that “favors decision-making by the group. Such as a leader gives instructions after consulting the group”. The idea of participative leadership as a form of democratic leadership that supports decision-making processes of the group is also a view of Cherry (2011, p. 1) when she argues that “participative leadership theories suggest that the ideal leadership style is one that takes the input of others into account”. This suggests that, in participative leadership, the group leader accepts other people’s opinion and takes them into consideration.

In the context of empowering, inviting and motivating other people in the group to participate in the decision-making process, Cherry (2011, p. 1) further alleges that “these leaders encourage participation and contributions from group members and help group members feel more relevant and committed to the decision-making process. In participative theories, however, the leader retains the right to allow the input of others”. This implies a view of leadership where the principal as a group leader involves and encourages teachers as a group to participate in the school-wide decision-making process. In such away, teachers or group members develop a sense of ownership and willingness to participate more and bring in new ideas in the decision-making process in the school because they feel valued and respected as members of the school community. They realize that the school belongs to them and that they are also part of the school. The role of the principal is to “offer guidance to group members, but they also participate in the group” (Cherry, 2011, p. 1). This

approach expects principals to act as facilitators and ‘captains’ for teachers and learners and other people in the school towards the decision-making processes and other school development activities.

A participative decision-making process of the group allows individuals to make decisions and reach consensus. Participation in the decision-making process of the group arouses and promotes a high level of engagement and involvement of staff in the developmental work of the school (Harris, 2003; Harris & Muijs, 2005). Therefore, teachers might develop high self-esteem, come up with different initiatives and willingness to implement the change that they themselves made which can lead to the development of the school (Bush, 2010).

In Namibia, the policy entitled *Towards Education for all* (Namibia. Ministry of Basic Education and Culture [MBEC], 1993) on democracy expects participation of all stakeholders in education in the decision-making processes. It encourages and promotes participatory leadership in which all the people in the school have to play a prominent role in the decision-making regarding education. It is through this policy and *Education Act*, Act no. 16 of 2001 under amendment no. 15 of 2004 (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2004) that teachers have the right to participate in the overall leadership of the school. *Towards Education for all* is a policy document that translates the Namibian philosophy of education into a concrete and implementable plan (Namibia. [MBEC], 1993). It consists of the four major goals for education namely: access, equity, equality and democracy. The major goals aim to redress the imbalances of past inequalities of hierarchical structures and authority which prevented the participation of all stakeholders in the decision-making of their own affairs (Namibia. [MBEC], 1993).

In summary, this section discussed the theory of participative leadership in terms of its relevance to my research and, in particular, of my participants’ participation in the decision-making processes of the case study school. In the next section I present the theory of distributed leadership which takes the idea of participatory leadership a step further and it is of particular relevance in my study because, as Grant (2010) argues, teacher leadership is one of the manifestations of distributed leadership.

2.4 DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP

This section presents the theory of distributed leadership in relevance to the phenomenon of teacher leadership under study. I also adopted the theory of distributed leadership to provide a conceptual framework to my data in Chapter Five of this thesis. This section is divided into two sub-sections namely, definitions of distributed leadership, and the characteristics of distributed leadership. The sections are discussed as they appear in their respective order.

As with participative leadership, distributed leadership perspective is also necessary to overcome a number of challenges that are facing schools today (Burniske & Barlow, 2003; Somech, 2005; Anderson, 2007; Harris & Spillane, 2008). For instance, challenge number one is to ensure that learners receive a high quality education and achieve to the best of their potential (Burniske & Barlow, 2003, p. 1; Anderson, 2007, p. 1). Challenge number two involves the need for distributed leadership because the “expansion of leadership tasks and responsibilities requires multiple leaders” (Harris & Spillane, 2008, p. 31). To achieve this, leadership has to be “dispersed” (Harris & Spillane, 2008, p. 31) among the teachers in the school in order to create the “conditions through which instructional practices are continually improved” (Anderson, 2007, p. 1). Thus, distributed leadership is relevant to an understanding of teacher leadership, the focus of my research. It provides a view of leadership as dispersed among the teachers in the school for teachers to have access to leadership, because teachers have knowledge and experience when it comes to the learners and other areas of teaching and learning that concern the development of the school.

2.4.1 Definitions of distributed leadership

Distributed leadership has been understood and defined differently by various authors; however, the central concept reflected in most of the definitions is a dispersal of leadership among the stakeholders like teachers, learners, parents and other people in the school community (Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson & Hann, 2002; Harris & Muijs, 2005; Harris & Spillane, 2008).

Distributed leadership has been defined by Harris and Spillane (2008, p. 31) as “an idea that is growing in popularity. 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”. The idea here suggests the view of leadership in the twenty-first century which focuses on democracy that all people in the school, irrespective of their formal or informal leadership positions, can demonstrate leadership. However, Anderson (2007, p. 1) has a view that the distributed perspective is not a type of leadership but rather a framework or a yardstick to view a leadership practice when he argues that “the distributed perspective is not a type of leadership but a framework to understand all types of leadership and management. It is an analytic tool for studying leadership and a diagnostic tool for practitioners and those who seek to intervene inside schools”. This idea is a reinforcement of Spillane’s (2006) view that:

A distributed perspective on leadership is best thought of as a framework for thinking about and analyzing leadership. It is a tool for helping us think about leadership in a new and unfamiliar ways. It can be used as a framework to help researchers decide what to look at when they investigate leadership (p. 10).

I agree with Anderson and Spillane that a distributed perspective is a way of thinking about and analyzing or studying school leadership. Therefore, I employed Spillane’s (2006, pp. 2-4) model entitled *A Distributed Perspective on Leadership: Essential Elements* (Figure 1) as a further theoretical frame to describe and interpret the nature of teacher leadership in terms of practice, joint interactions of school leaders, followers and aspects of their situation within the case study school. I found it a useful tool to present my data in Chapter Five of this thesis. In his model, Spillane identifies three elements of leadership practice, namely, leadership practice, interactions of leaders, followers and their situations (Spillane, 2006, pp. 2-4).

Spillane (2006, p. 3) suggests that within the school, there are multiple individual leaders such as a leader plus leader and they take responsibility for leadership activities in the school. From a distributed perspective, Spillane (2006, p. 4) alleges that, “it is the collective interactions among leaders, followers and their situation that are paramount”. This means that the relationship between the principal, teachers and learners, principal and teachers, teachers and colleagues as well as teachers and learners is important in the school.

In the context of my study, the view of a leader plus leader at work in the school, suggests the principal as a leader in the school and plus leaders suggests teachers serving as HODs, committee heads, designated or registered class teachers, team or group leaders, teachers leading various initiatives and programmes in the school such as 'Window of hope' and so forth. In each of these situations, there are followers namely teachers, learners and other people in the school community falling under the leadership, either of the principal or other teachers who are serving as leaders in different positions in the school. For example, the followers under the leadership of the principal can all be teachers, learners and other workers in the school, while followers under the leadership of HODs are teachers within a particular department, like a Mathematics and Science department. The followers under the leadership of committee head are the teachers who are members of that specific committee, for example sport committee members. The followers of the registered class teacher are the learners within the class and so on. This implies that leadership in schools requires leadership practices of many individual teachers serving as leaders, and their interactions with their followers in their situations rather than vested in one individual like the principal and his or her roles, position and actions (Spillane, 2006, p. 1). Figure 1 illustrates Spillane's (2006, p. 3) model on leadership practice from a distributed perspective:

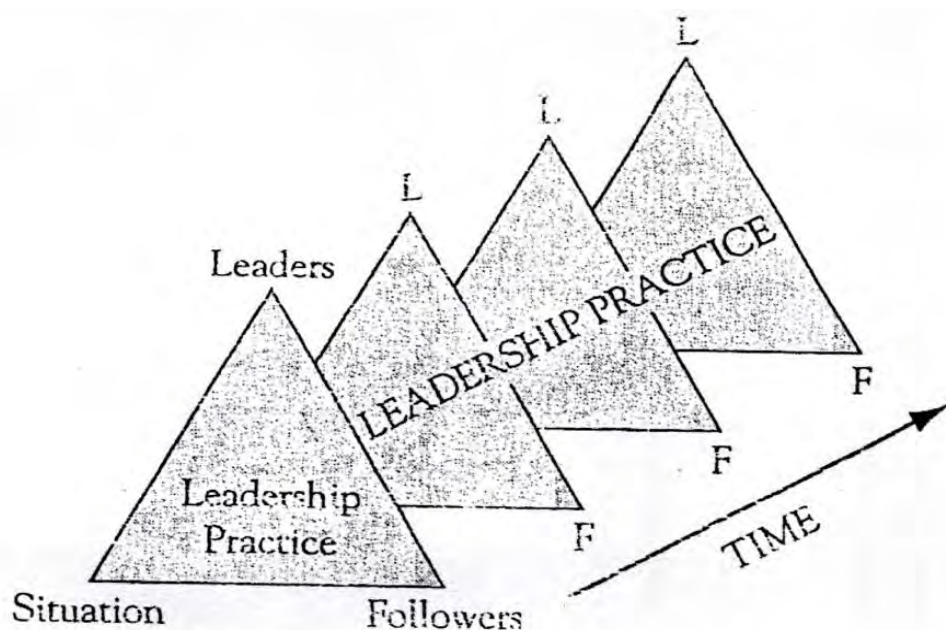


Figure 1.1. Leadership Practice from a Distributed Perspective. 7

FIGURE: 1

This section presented the definitions of distributed leadership as particularly defined by Spillane (2006) and Anderson (2007). It also presented Spillane' (2006, p. 3) model on leadership practice from a distributed perspective which also formed part of the definition of distributed leadership. In the next section, I discuss Gunter's (2005, pp. 51-57) three characterizations of distributed leadership.

2.4.2 Characterizations of distributed leadership

Distributed leadership has been characterized differently by different authors. However, in this section I present Gunter's (2005, pp. 51-57) characterizations of distributed leadership namely, authorized, dispersed and democratic as they also provide a frame for discussion and interpretation of my data in Chapter Five of this thesis.

Distributed leadership is characterized by Gunter (2005, p. 51) as "authorized" and also known as "delegated" by Grant (2010, p. 66) in such a way that work is distributed from the head teacher to others. For example the principal authorizes teachers to serve either as committee heads, study supervision group leaders or to lead different initiatives in the school and so on. Gunter (2005, p. 51) alleges that "this distribution is usually accepted because it is regarded as legitimate through the complex operation of both hierarchy in the form of subordination and through attribution in the form of giving status to a person to determine activity and take actions". Since teachers are delegated leadership by the principal who has authority in the traditional hierarchy, they ought to accept the responsibilities. Though teachers are authorized to serve in a particular position by the principal, to a certain extent the principal is influencing, empowering and exposing teachers to leadership roles in the school.

With distributed leadership as dispersed, Gunter (2005, p. 52) indicates a view of leadership that is circulated throughout in the school. She asserts that:

distributed leadership as dispersed is where much of the work goes on in organizations without the formal working of a hierarchy. It is accepted because of

the legitimacy of different knowledge and skills of those who do the work. It is more bottom-up through interactions of the group (p. 52).

This suggests a view of leadership where teachers are allowed to come up with different ideas and initiatives and they are accepted because they contribute to the development of the school and also improve the teaching and learning process. It incorporates the notion of emergent leadership.

The democratic and dispersed leadership have similar characteristics but democratic leadership extends or goes beyond the expectations (Gunter, 2005, p. 56). For instance, they are both inclusive, value autonomy, respect human capacity and so forth but democratic leadership is more extended in these characteristics beyond the expectations (Gunter, 2005, p. 56). Democratic leadership is also about leadership which questions the status quo and which brings about inclusion and social justice (Grant, 2010).

In Namibia, the policy entitled *Towards Education for All* (Namibia. MBEC, 1993) through decentralization, paved the way for all forms of distributed leadership. It is clearly stipulated in this policy that leadership in schools has to be shared between teachers and principals. Here follows the excerpt from the *Towards Education for All* policy (Namibia. MBEC, 1993):

It is our teachers, along with learners and their parents, who make our schools and other education programmes what they are. To improve our education system and to upgrade the quality of our schools requires a good deal of work in our schools and communities. To achieve that, and to maximize the local contributions to our education system, we shall need to decentralize both responsibility and authority (p.168).

It is also documented in the policy that decentralization in Namibia is “concerned with the relocation of authority and responsibility from the centre to regional and local levels” (Namibia. MBEC, 1993, p. 168). This also applies to schools in that principals should de-centre the authority and give autonomy to the teachers in school-wide leadership of the institution. Through this policy, schools in Namibia are expected to apply distributed leadership in a way that leadership should not be located only in the principal but rather let it circulate across or throughout the school.

This section presented the theory of distributed leadership in terms of its relevance to teacher leadership. The theory of distributed leadership provided a lens to describe and

interpret my data in Chapter Five of this thesis. In the next section, I present literature on teacher leadership, the main focus of my study.

2.5 TEACHER LEADERSHIP

This section is a review of the literature on teacher leadership. It is divided into three sub-sections. Sub-section one gives a brief review of the literature that examines what teacher leadership actually means. Sub-section two is about Grant's (2008) Zones and Roles model of teacher leadership in the context of South Africa. Sub-section three is an overview of literature on how organizations (schools) can encourage and 'grow' teacher leadership. The challenges inherent within teacher leadership form the fourth sub-section of this literature, which is followed by a conclusion which is the final sub-section of this main section. This literature on teacher leadership has later relevance when I discuss my findings in Chapter Five of this thesis.

2.5.1 What teacher leadership actually means?

In this section, I present the definitions of teacher leadership as defined by various authors in the literature.

Teacher leadership is not a new concept in the literature; it has its roots in the education reform initiatives of the 1980s, particularly in the United States of America, the United Kingdom and other developed countries. The literature on teacher leadership started to gain momentum in the history of South Africa by the studies conducted by Grant (2005; 2006; 2008 & 2009; Singh, 2007; Molefe, 2010; Nene, 2010; Xulu, 2010; Gumede, 2011). The literature on teacher leadership in the context of Namibia is almost non-existent.

According to the literature, teacher leadership is a broad and a complicated concept to define (Grant, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Researchers do not agree on one common and uniform definition of teacher leadership. Greenlee (2004, p. 2) asserts that "there is a lack of consensus around a clear definition of teacher leadership". Therefore, when trying to define teacher leadership, some authors end up giving its importance or describing its forms rather than defining the concept coherently (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). The lack of a clear

definition of teacher leadership has resulted in the concept being understood differently in different contexts depending on the nature of the phenomenon under study.

Grant (2008) defines teacher leadership as follows:

a form of leadership beyond headship or formal position. It refers to teachers becoming aware of and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond. It includes teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders towards a shared and dynamic vision of their school within a culture of fairness, inclusion, mutual respect and trust (p.186).

The view of teachers becoming aware of and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond (Grant, 2008), was also a view of the Education Commission of the States [ECS] (2010, p. 1) when they asserted that “teacher leaders are teachers who aspire to stretch beyond their classrooms to engage in leadership roles that take many shapes and forms, both “informal” and “formal””. They further define teacher leadership as “the process by which teachers, individually or collectively, influence their colleagues, principals, and other members of the school community to improve teaching and learning practices with the aim of increased student learning and achievement (ECS, 2010, P. 2).

Teachers leading within and beyond the classroom and influencing other people in the school community was also a view of Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001, p. 5) who write that “teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identify and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence other towards improved educational practice”.

The definitions indicate teacher leadership as a form of leadership that is practised by teachers through formal and informal roles where they influence one another, work together in groups and with other people in the school community in order to develop the school and to improve learners’ performance. By formal roles, I mean positional roles with designation, while informal roles are leadership roles of teachers regardless of their positions or designation (Harris & Muijs, 2005; Kelley, 2011).

Informal roles that are likely to apply in the Namibian context are, for example, the school clustering system where teachers can take the lead in a variety of ways like facilitating and conducting workshops for others in subject related matters, serving as resource teachers to

help their colleagues with instructional knowledge as well as “to get together to discuss and interpret syllabuses, and draw up common schemes of work” (Namibia. Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture [MBESC], 2002, p. 11). The policy on the school cluster system is a framework for quality education and it was introduced in Namibia in 1996 “to improve teaching by sharing resources, experience and expertise among staff and to facilitate administration to pool resources from several small schools” (Namibia. MBESC, 2002, p. 1).

This section discussed the definition of teacher leadership as it has been defined by various authors. In the next section I present Grant’s (2008) model of teacher leadership which suggests, in the South African context, Four Zones in which teachers can enact Six Roles of leadership in a school.

2.5.2 Zones and Roles of teacher leadership

In the international literature, teacher leadership is exercised by teachers at different levels of practice namely at instructional level, organizational level and at the levels beyond instructional and organizational such as in the community and circuit or regional level (York-Barr & Duke, 2004; Institute for Educational Leadership [IEL], 2008) however, I am not going to present these levels.

Instead, the focus of this section is to present Grant’s (2008) model of teacher leadership entitled “Towards a model of understanding of teacher leadership in South Africa”. In this model, Grant indicates that teachers exert “Six Roles” of leadership in “four semi-distinct areas or ‘zones’” (Grant, 2008, p. 93). I adopted this model as a tool of analysis for my study and also as a conceptual tool to describe and interpret the nature of teachers’ leadership roles, as discussed in Chapter Five. I suggest this is a useful and suitable tool to understand teacher leadership in the context of Namibia because Namibia and South Africa share much in common in terms of their history, their education systems and the notion of educational leadership inherited from apartheid, in particular.

In her model, Grant identified Four Zones that she referred to as first level of analysis and Six Roles which she referred to as the second level of analysis (Grant, 2008, p. 93). The model illustrates that Zone One refers to teacher leadership in the classroom where

teachers exert Role One which is continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching. Zone Two refers to teacher leadership in the context of teachers working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities. In this Zone, there are three Roles for teachers namely, Role Two: providing curriculum development knowledge, Role Three: Leading in-service education and assisting other teachers and Role Four: participating in performance evaluation of teachers. Zone Three is about teacher leadership outside the classroom in the area of whole school development where teachers exercise Role Five and Role Six. Role Five has to do with organizing and leading peer reviews of school practice and Role Six is about teachers participating in school level decision-making. Zone Four refers to teacher leadership between neighbouring schools in the community. Zone Four consists of Role Two and Role Three as Zone Two but here the roles indicate the enactment of teacher leadership between neighbouring schools in the community (Grant, 2008, p. 93). Figure 2 illustrates the model

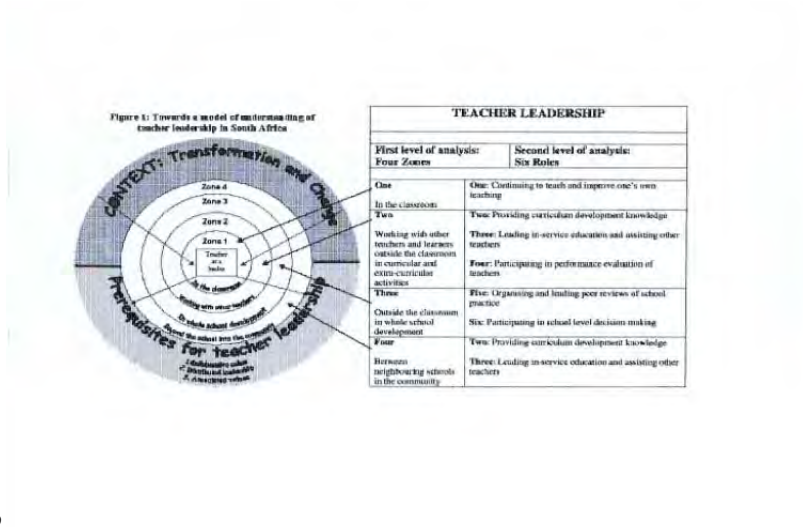


FIGURE: 2

I found Grant's (2008) model useful to describe and explain teacher leadership in the context of Namibia and the Roles and Zones in this model provided a frame to present my data in Chapter Four of this thesis. In the next section I present the review of literature on how schools can encourage and 'grow' teacher leadership.

2.5.3 How can schools encourage and ‘grow’ teacher leadership?

This section is a review of the literature on how schools can encourage the practice of a teacher leadership. It discusses conditions that encourage and influence the practice of teacher leadership in schools. It is divided into four sub-sections, namely: the principal role in enhancing teacher leadership, the school culture, roles and relationships and school structures. These are some of the prominent conditions that have been revealed in the literature that can encourage and grow teacher leadership in schools (Harris & Muijs, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004; Greenlee, 2004; Kelley, 2011).

2.5.3.1 The role of the principal in enhancing teacher leadership

It is widely evidenced that school principals are at the centre of activities which encourage teacher leadership to take place in schools. Principals play a crucial role in fostering the conditions that facilitate teacher leadership because they possess a high position of authority in the traditional hierarchy, and control the decision-making in schools (Greenlee, 2004; Danielson, 2007; IEL, 2008). The literature also indicates that not every school is favourable for the emergence of teacher leadership, especially the practice of informal roles (Danielson, 2007). A reason might be that principals do not want to share the authority with teachers as they are afraid of becoming inferior and that teachers might undermine the authority.

2.5.3.2 Teacher leadership and school culture

Although school culture is considered the most significant condition that encourages teacher leadership and other improvement initiatives in schools, it is not easy to change the value of people in the organization due to resistance of human nature to change (York-Barr & Duke, 2004; Fullan 2001; HKIER, 2006; IEL, 2008).

Fullan (2005, p. 57) asserts that “cultures consist of the shared values and beliefs in the organization”. Similarly, the HKIER (2006, p. 8) contends that “school culture includes values, symbols, beliefs, and shared meanings of different stakeholders”. This implies that

school culture is the ways and norms of how people in the school conduct themselves and their actions.

In addition, Bolman & Deal (1991), cited in the HKIER (2006, p. 7) refer to culture “as both product and process”. When referring to culture as a product, they state that it includes the ‘accumulated wisdom’ of former members of the school, while culture as a process means that it can be ‘renewed and recreated’, for example when new teachers are taught about the norms of the school through a process of induction (HKIER, 2006).

In Namibia before independence, culture was understood as a way to divide people on the ground of position or designation, race, colour, gender and other related features of past colonial segregations (Namibia. MBEC, 1993). After independence, the government of Namibia through the Ministry of Education and Culture employed a policy of “cultivating culture as a unifying and nation building force” (Namibia. MBEC, 1993, P. 46). The Ministry of Education has a policy in place which is concerned with the integration of all the Namibian peoples’ culture into its education system where the values, world views and ways of knowing and understanding of people are taken into consideration. Through such policy, schools are expected to cultivate and encourage cultures where all people in the school have rights to participate in the decision-making through collaboration (Namibia. MBEC, 1993).

The literature has suggested that the best way to encourage teacher leadership is to employ and facilitate a culture of collaboration among members of staff (HKIER, 2006; IEL, 2008). The principal may also try to change the values of teachers by applying power strategies that enable them to be free in expressing their concerns. Teacher leadership can also be encouraged in the school by building the leadership capacity of teachers through growing a positive, collaborative culture and an atmosphere and culture of working together as a team (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006). Building leadership capacity for teachers provides favourable conditions that allow teachers to work together and learn from one another. The principal can foster teacher leadership by encouraging teachers to be good examples and role models in the profession (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

This section presented literature on how school culture promotes teacher leadership in the school. The next sub-section outlines how principals and schools can encourage teacher leadership through roles and relationships.

2.5.3.3 Teacher leadership and roles and relationships

Like school culture, the interpersonal relationships between teachers and the principal and between teachers and colleagues and their interactions towards their roles and their responsibilities support and cultivate teacher leadership in the school (Andrews & Lewis, 2004; IEL, 2008). This is due to the fact that through interaction with their colleagues and the principal, teachers influence one another and may develop willingness to take the lead (IEL, 2008).

A number of studies indicate that schools can encourage teacher leadership through roles and by cultivating appropriate relationships (such as openness, honesty, sharing ideas and helping one another in instructional matters) among teachers, themselves and the principal (Kelley, 2011; York-Barr & Duke, 2004; IEL, 2008). It is evident that teachers perform better in leadership roles when they are working together with their colleagues, therefore cooperation and interaction among teachers should be encouraged (Danielson, 2007). The literature has shown that principals who are committed to cultivating teacher leadership play an important role in the development of teachers because, through the process, the principal is helping teachers to gain leadership skills. Teacher leadership is said to be encouraged through cultivating dynamic communication and by giving continual feedback to teachers to improve and understand the practice of teacher leadership (IEL, 2008). Assigning of leadership work to teachers, for example to promote teachers to head of department positions, serves as a central point to teaching and learning because it exposes teachers to leadership by monitoring and also guides and supports other teachers under his or her department (IEL, 2008).

In Namibia, the policy on the school cluster system “provides frameworks for a range of groups or committees to be formed to support various needs in order to upgrade the quality of teaching and learning” (Namibia. MBESC, 2002, p.25). The subject groups or committees may “bring teachers together in goal-oriented groups dealing with teaching and professional development issues, foster a culture of sharing, openness and mutual support as well as to

encourage teachers to share experience and skills and to strive for improvement” (Namibia. MBESC, 2002, p. 25). These groups encourage and strengthen teachers to work together openly in sharing their instructional expertise with their colleagues.

The literature demonstrates that building a relationship between teachers and principals has a strong influence on teacher leadership in schools (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) because they lead in a parallel way towards achieving their common goal which is to improve teaching and learning and learners’ achievement (Crowther et al. 2002). For example, the principal might be responsible to facilitate, empower, influence and motivate teachers to accomplish their common goals while teachers ensure that they fulfill all their instructional responsibilities in the school to improve learners’ performance (Crowther et al. 2002). In contrast, recent studies indicate that traditional leadership models do not encourage teacher leadership because they do not cultivate a collaborative leadership model which is conducive to the practice of a teacher leadership approach (Greenlee, 2004). Through interaction with others and the principal, teachers are empowered and can start taking leadership roles in the school (HKIER, 2006).

This section presented the interrelatedness between teachers and the principal and between teachers and their colleagues as a way to promote teacher leadership in the school. In the next section I present school structures as further a condition that either enables or inhibits teacher leadership in a school.

2.5.3.4 Teacher leadership and school structures

The school structures in this context can be understood as the arrangement of divisions of responsibilities within the school (South African Concise Oxford Dictionary, 2002).

As with school culture and roles and relationships, structures can also serve as a favourable condition and support teacher leadership in the school (IEL, 2008). It is suggested in the literature that schools which have features of ‘top-down’ hierarchical structures may change their structures by trying to do away with the ‘top-down’ hierarchies and accommodate a structure of distributed and participative leadership in the school (York-Barr & Duke, 2004; IEL, 2008). The schools may also provide “adequate access to materials, time, and space for

activities that facilitate teacher leadership for example professional development” (IEL, 2008, p. 4). This suggests that some schools may not have the necessary structures in place to support and facilitate teacher leadership practice.

It is evident in the literature that the structures of the traditional leadership approach, which are often ‘top-down’ and hierarchical, do not encourage teacher leadership because they do not focus on shared or collaborative leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). This was the case in pre-independent Namibia. Stakeholders in education such as parents, teachers, learners and other members in the school community were not involved in the management and leadership of the schools (Niitembu, 2006). Teachers were confined to classroom leadership and management only because there were no participative structures in schools (Kamonde, 2008). The policy, *Towards Education for all*, which is one of the four major goals driving education system in Namibia, paved the way for participative structures when the broad participation of all stakeholders in education was introduced and implemented in schools (Namibia. MBEC, 1993).

Schools which are still shaped by features of hierarchical structures need to restructure them in order to have participatory decision-making structures in place. Participatory decision-making structures enable all teachers and other members of the school community have access to take part in decision-making in order to prevent “disillusion and stress” Kamonde (2008, p. 9) among teachers as well as to enhance student performance (York-Barr & Duke, 2004; HKIER, 2006). The studies have also suggested that schools often have flat structures where power is spread across the school (Danielson, 2007). The principal can cultivate teacher leadership by trying to have an open-door policy where all teachers can see him or her directly without following the channels of authority.

This section discussed the three conditions that can promote teacher leadership in a school, as suggested in the literature. While there are conditions that support teacher leadership, there are also challenges to the practice and this is discussed in more detail in the next section.

2.5.4 The challenges inherent in the practice of teacher leadership

In this section I discuss some of the many challenges that might be inherent in a teacher leadership approach as they are suggested in the literature. There are numerous of challenges that inhibit the practice of teacher leadership in school namely limited time, ‘top-down’ hierarchical structures, lack of leadership development, unclear leadership roles for teachers by state policy makers, lack of commitment and cooperation amongst the staff. The challenges are discussed as they appear in their respective order in the following paragraphs.

2.5.4.1 Limited time for teachers

Time is suggested in the literature as a big inhibiting factor to teacher leadership (Zinn, 1997; Harris & Muijs, 2005; National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality [NCCTQ], 2007; Gumede, 2011). The study of Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 94) suggests that time is a challenge inherent within the practice of teacher leadership when they assert that “the lack of time for teachers to engage in activities outside of classroom teaching and administration was a key inhibitor to teacher leadership”. Lack of time as a challenge to teacher leadership was also found by NCCTQ (2007, p. 16) when they indicated that “teachers sometimes do not have time for leadership activities”. These sources suggest that teachers often do not have time to exercise their informal roles in schools. Furthermore, it is suggested in the literature that teachers do not have time collaborate with their colleagues because classroom responsibilities are many and limit the available time (Zinn, 1997).

2.5.4.2 ‘Top-down’ hierarchical structures

The literature reveals that ‘top-down’ hierarchical structures may prevent “teachers’ desire of autonomy and sharing leadership roles in schools” (HKIER, 2006, P. 9). This might be due to the fact that principals might not want to share their authority with teachers (Danielson, 2007; Greenlee, 2004; McCauley, 2009; Kelley, 2011). Principals are suggested to be one of

the barriers to teacher leadership in schools as they are unwilling to relinquish the authority (Harris & Muijs, 2005) and this could hinder the proper practice of teacher leadership in schools because teachers have no access to participation in the leadership of the school. It is clear that the resistance of principals to change from an authoritarian to non-authoritarian leadership approaches played a role in this.

The features of 'top-down' hierarchical structures were also a finding of a study on teacher leadership in South Africa:

the most powerful barrier to take-up of the concept of teacher leader ... is that many South African schools are still bureaucratically and hierarchically organized with principals who are autocratic and show negativity to teachers who attempt to take up a leading role outside the classroom (Grant, 2006, p. 118).

It would seem that Namibia is not exclusive in this regard since the education systems in Namibia and South Africa have experienced similar transformational processes from apartheid to democracy, and, it would seem, similar challenges. However, the 'top-down' authoritarian leadership approach still dominates in most of the Namibian schools today (Kawana, 2007; Kapapero, 2007; Kambonde, 2008; Shilima, 2009). Due to this, I speculate that it may not be easy to successfully implement teacher leadership in some of the Namibian schools if schools do not do away with the practice of traditional hierarchical structures.

2.5.4.3 Lack of leadership development amongst teachers and principals

The lack of leadership development among teachers and principal is suggested as one of the challenges inherent within the practice of teacher leadership in schools (Harris & Muijs, 2005; Danielson, 2007, Kapapero, 2007). Principals tend to lack knowledge and understanding of teacher leadership, as well as being curriculum and instructional leaders because leadership is not part of their training programme (Kapapero, 2007). This might have contributed to principals' not encouraging or allowing teacher leadership to take root in their schools. Lack of leadership development amongst teachers in schools also served as a barrier to teacher leadership, as Harris and Muijs (2005, P. 94) confirm: "some teachers also felt that they were lacking in experience and confidence when taking on leadership

roles". Teachers and principals may lack leadership skills where the reason might be that "the skills required for teacher leadership are not part of their preparation program" (Danielson, 2007, p. 3) at teacher training institutions. For example, the broad curriculum for the Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD), a training program for teachers in Namibia, focuses more on curriculum and instructional methods and pays little attention at all to leadership (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2007). This may hamper the proper practice of teacher leadership in the school.

2.5.4.4 Unclear leadership roles for teachers and little attention to informal roles

The issue on the lack of clarity of leadership roles for teachers as well as their responsibilities in the school was identified as problematic to the practice of teacher leadership as teachers may not be aware of what is expected from them (Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 94).

Lack of clarity of leadership roles for teachers may also be one of the prominent contributing factors which I suggest has been a large challenge for implementing teacher leadership in Namibia. It is a fact that leadership roles for teachers are not well specified in the Ministry of Education document *Job Description of a Teacher* (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2009). This serves as an indicator that the need for teacher leadership in schools might not be fully understood by policymakers because the document pays little attention to the leadership roles for teachers in schools, especially the informal roles. This aligns with Grant's (2009) view that:

Despite an enabling democratic policy framework, the leadership of many South African schools remains firmly entrenched within the formal, hierarchical management structure. The potential for teacher leadership is, therefore, relatively untapped and, where it is enacted, it is often restricted. (p. 149)

The notion of policy makers paying little attention to teacher leadership was also a view with the IEL, (2008, P. 12) when they assert that "policy makers continue to pay little, if any, attention to teachers' knowledge in the development of education policy".

These quotations imply that state policymakers are viewed as barriers for teachers to exercise their leadership roles in schools worldwide. For this reason, recent studies suggest

that “state policymakers would be well-advised to gain a full understanding of teacher leadership and how it can be applied to improve overall teacher effectiveness and student achievement” (ECS, 2010, P. 5) and also to be well-informed that “the movement to instill teacher leadership is in need of support and further development ... that policymakers at all levels should consider in order to promote teacher leadership that is meaningful and enduring” IEL (2008, P. 1). Thus, for teacher leadership to become entrenched in the system, leadership development at all levels and in all schools - both public urban and public rural schools in Namibia – is essential.

2.5.4.5 Lack of commitment and cooperation amongst teachers

It is revealed in the literature that sometimes the opportunities for teachers to take up leadership roles in the school exist but teachers might lack self-motivation or self-esteem and may be unwilling to take on new responsibilities (Zinn, 1997; Harris & Muijs, 2005; Gumede, 2011; Xulu, 2010; Hashikutuwa, 2011;). This implies that there might be teachers who lack self-confidence and do not perceive themselves as leaders thus; they might not take up the leadership roles in the school.

The literature also evidenced that sometimes teachers might be reluctant to take up the leadership roles in the school or stand in the way for their colleagues who aspire to exercise their leadership roles (York-Barr & Duke, 2004; Danielson, 2007; NCCTQ, 2007). In this way teachers practice what Duke (1994) in York-Barr and Duke (2004, p. 270) called a “Crab bucket culture” by discouraging and criticizing their colleagues who decided to take up their leadership roles in the school. A “Crab bucket culture” is referred to by Duke (1994) cited in York-Barr (2004, p. 270) as a culture “wherein teachers drag each other down instead of supporting and inspiring one another”. This type of practice by teachers towards their colleagues was also a cause for concern by Danielson (2007, p. 3) who referred to it as an “absence of a ‘tall poppy syndrome’ where teachers themselves resist taking on leadership roles, or make it difficult for their colleagues to do so”. These excerpts suggest that instead of recognizing, appreciating and respecting their colleagues who aspire to take the lead, teachers discourage and criticize one another. In this way, teachers prevent the most needed practice of teacher leadership to emerge in the school which could have contributed

to a “strong teacher community which fosters professionalism” (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p. 270) and increases learners’ achievement in the school.

In this section, I discussed the challenges inherent within the practice of teacher leadership in the school and I refer again to these challenges in relation to my data in Chapter Five of this thesis. In the next section, I end the chapter with a brief conclusion.

2.6 CONCLUSION

This Chapter presented a review of the literature of teacher leadership. It discussed the evolution of leadership theory from individual leadership theory to group theories of leadership, as a historical background for teacher leadership. The chapter presented the theories of participative leadership and distributed leadership to provide conceptual frameworks to the data of teacher leadership as presented and discussed in Chapter Four and Five of this thesis.

The Chapter also discussed the theory of teacher leadership by defining the concept of teacher leadership, outlining the zones and roles of teacher leadership, explaining how schools can encourage and promote teacher leadership as well as discussing the challenges that inherent within the practice of teacher leadership.

In the next Chapter, I discuss the methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to explore teachers' experiences of their leadership roles and specifically to find out the challenges inherent with its practice and the strategies that can be applied to promote teacher leadership in the school.

This chapter discusses the research methodology adopted in the study. It begins with a description and defense of the research paradigm (a qualitative interpretive study) that the study adopted, followed by a description and defense of the approach which is a case study that I used. The chapter moves on with a discussion of the research case, the research participants and the sampling strategy adopted. It then proceeds with a description of the data gathering tools, namely document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations that the study employed. The chapter continues with a brief discussion of data analysis then touches on the ethical implications that the study addressed. It also outlines the limitation of the study, validity and then presents the summary.

3.2 RESEARCH AIM AND QUESTIONS

The study aimed to investigate the phenomenon of teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. The ultimate goal of the study was

- ❖ To explore teachers' experiences of their leadership roles, and specifically
- ❖ to find out the challenges inherent within its practice, and

To achieve this goal, the study endeavoured to answer the following research questions:

- What leadership roles do teachers currently exercise at the school?
- What are the teachers' experiences of their leadership roles at schools? What are the challenges?

- What is formal leadership's attitude to teacher leadership?
- To what extent do stakeholders understand the need for a supportive culture and structure for the emergence of teacher leadership?

3.3 PARADIGM

This study was qualitative in nature because, as researcher, I attempted to understand human actions in their social settings (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Babbie and Mouton (2001, p. 270) refer to qualitative research as a "generic research approach in social research according to which research takes as its departure point the insider perspective on social actions." Similarly, Payne and Payne (2004) refer to qualitative research as:

an umbrella term, covering different types of research. Qualitative methods produce detailed and non-quantitative accounts of small groups, seeking to interpret the meanings people make of their lives in natural settings, on the assumption that social interactions form and integrated set of relationships best understood by inductive procedures. (p. 175)

The two quotations suggest that qualitative research is a combination of several research strategies that seek to make sense of human actions such as behaviours and attitudes and how they experienced the reality of the phenomena in their social beings. Thus, this study fell under the umbrella of qualitative research in the interpretive paradigm. The interpretive paradigm is understood by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) as follows:

The interpretive paradigm, in contrast to its normative counterpart, is characterized by a concern for the individual. The central endeavour in the context of the interpretive paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience. To retain the integrity of the phenomena being investigated, efforts are made to get inside the person and to understand within. (p. 21)

The excerpt of Cohen and colleagues implies the interpretive paradigm as an approach that depicts and explains or understands the meanings of peoples' experiences and practices in their settings. In this study, this was achieved and determined by the description and interpretation of teachers' experiences of their leadership roles in the school at which the research took place.

3.4 RESEARCH APPROACH

The study employed a case study approach. According to Niesbet and Watt (1984) in Cohen et al. (2007, p. 10), a case study is a “specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle.” In a similar vein, Yin (2003, p. 15) defines a case study as “a way of investigating an empirical topic by following a set of prespecified procedures.” Moreover, Rule and John (2011, p. 4) define a case study as a “systematic and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in its context in order to generate knowledge”. Similarly, Bloor and Wood (2006, p. 27) define case study as a “strategy of research that aims to understand social phenomena within a single or small number of naturally occurring settings. Case studies are often described as an exploration of a bounded system”.

The definitions suggest a case study as an approach that enables the researcher to develop a broader understanding of a particular phenomenon by studying human actions in their social settings through investigation or exploration. The definitions also imply that the researcher can study the actions of a particular case that can represent the result of many cases. In the instance of this study, a school was the case and my unit of analysis was teacher leadership because I was interested in understanding how teacher leadership was understood, experienced and practiced in the school and also wished to find out the challenges and strategies to promote teacher leadership in the school. This study was an exploratory case study on teacher leadership as I intended to investigate, in the context of Namibia, “situations that might not have been researched previously and for which there might not exist established theories” (Rule & John, 2011, p. 28). The study was also an intrinsic case study as I was solely “focused on the aim of gaining a better understanding of the individual case” (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005, p. 272).

While generalization cannot be claimed, the case study researcher is likely to produce findings that others recognize as true (Cohen et al., 2007). In a case study, the researcher gets in touch with a real situation and engages with the people in that situation, so as to listen to what they are saying or to observe what they are doing in relation to the phenomenon in question (Yin, 2003; Cohen et al., 2007). In this instance, I investigated teacher leadership at a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. In order to

understand the phenomenon better, I interacted with teachers by conducting semi-structured interviews, observations and reviewing the relevant documents in the school.

3.4 THE RESEARCH CASE AND THE RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

This section is divided into two sub-sections, namely, the research case and the research participants. The sections are discussed as they appear in their respective order.

3.4.1 The research case

The case was Etango (a pseudonym) combined school. A pseudonym was used to respect and protect the rights of people consenting to be studied (Payne & Payne, 2004, p. 66) as well as to address ethical issues of anonymity and confidentiality in the research (Cohen et al., 2007). The school was a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. Etango combined school is classified as a rural school due to its remoteness; it is about 50 kilometres away from the town of Ondangwa. The school was established 1978, a long time before Namibia got independence. It offers grades from one to ten and has five blocks of four standard classes, one administration block and five sheds.

The school is located in a community where the majority of the parents are unemployed and some have low incomes. As a consequence, most of the parents in the community are not literate enough to read school policies that could enable them to understand the importance of parent participation in the education of their children. The school also has a high number of orphans and some of these orphans are heading households because parents have passed away. The consequence of this is that most of the learners do not pay the school development fund because they cannot afford this. These economic and social conditions posed particular challenges for the school administration and leadership and hence require the attention of teachers, the principal and parents to work together as a collaborative team towards the diverse responsibilities in the school.

The school's capacity at the time of the study was 1005 learners, 25 teachers, and two heads of departments, three cleaners, one secretary and the principal. The school management team consisted of the principal, two heads of departments, four teachers and

a school secretary. The school day starts at 7h30 in the morning and ends at 15h00 in the afternoon. All teachers in the school are qualified with the minimum qualification of the basic education teachers' diploma and a few teachers have additional qualifications such as advanced and further diplomas or honours' degrees in education or in arts.

The high population of learners resulted in overcrowdings of classrooms and a lack of resources, namely exercise books, textbooks, chairs and tables as well as insufficient classrooms.

3.4.2 Sampling and research participants

Qualitative researchers use sampling techniques to select their research sites and research participants. Sampling has been defined by various authors and the definitions suggest a view of sampling as a process of selecting the research sites and participants. Payne and Payne (2004) define sampling as the process of:

selecting a sub-set, of people or social phenomena to be studied, from the larger 'universe' to which they belong, which process in the case of probability or representative samples is based on the statistics of probability theory but can be reduced to a simple look-up table to decide how big a sample is needed. (p. 200)

The quote suggests sampling as a small group of people or case/s out of the total number of people or cases that are selected to provide information and which represents the entire population. In this instance, I selected one school out of many schools in the Ohangwena region and, in this one school; I selected a few teachers out of many in the school.

The school was selected in terms of accessibility to me as a researcher because it is close to my house compared to other schools in the area thus it did not cost me much to travel to and from the school. This kind of approach is called convenience sampling in qualitative research and it is "commonplace in small-scale research (particularly when costs need to be minimized)" (Somekh & Lewin, 2006, p. 219). This resonates with Ruane (2005, p. 117) that the convenience technique "builds a sample on the basis of findings convenient or available individuals. Those who are selected for the sample are those who are close at hand". Convenience sampling occurs "when people are chosen because they are conveniently available" (Scheyvens & Storey, 2008, p. 43). Thus, the case study school was selected

because of its convenience to the researcher. Cresswell (1998) in Bloor and Wood (2006, p. 28) warns, "it is not always in the researcher's best interest to study sites in which the researcher is already an active participant. Familiarity with a setting can be an asset in terms of access but can also result in raised expectations from subject. ... depth of data decreases". Thus I selected Etango combined school where I was not an active participant. I was not a teacher or a member of the school governing body in this school. Instead I was a non-active participant in the school to eliminate as much objectivity and bias as I could (Payne & Payne, 2004). It was also my "opportunity to learn" (De Vos et al., 2005, p. 272) because much has been learnt from this case study, for example, I got a "view" of teacher leadership in this particular school.

Purposive sampling was used to select the participants for the study. Merriam (2001, p. 61) argues that "purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned." In this study, purposive sampling was used to select participants on the basis of their teaching experience, such as novice and veteran teachers. I included both novice and veteran teachers in my sample since I assumed they might exercise and experience teacher leadership roles differently on the grounds of their work experience. By novice, I refer to teachers who have served in the teaching profession from one up to five years and by veteran, I refer to teachers who have served in the profession for many years, (six and upwards).

Four teachers (two novices, one male and one female, as well as two veterans, one male and one female) were selected. Two males and two females were selected for the research to ensure that there was no gender bias. I asked the principal of the case study school to provide me with the entry record book for teachers which illustrated the year each teacher entered into the profession in order to identify the novices and veterans. The participants were teachers who did not hold a formal management position, such as head of department or principal. I also interviewed the principal in order to explore his understanding of teacher leadership and to establish how he supported (or did not support) leadership among his staff.

3.5 DATA GATHERING TOOLS

I intended, in my original plan, to spend six weeks at the case study school in order to gather rich data but, due to unplanned circumstances, I was only able to spend four weeks and two days at the school. Despite the reduced duration of the study, I was able to collect sufficient data to answer my research questions and build a rich picture of teacher leadership in the school.

I used three different tools of data gathering to obtain information for my study, namely: document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations. The research was conducted in three stages and multiple methods of data collection were used. The first stage of the research process was document analysis where I reviewed various school documents relevant to my study and this stage continued throughout the research process. The second stage of the research process was observation of teachers' leadership roles among the four teachers throughout the school setting, within and outside their classrooms. Each teacher was observed for three consecutive days from 7h30 in the morning until 15h00 when the school ended. The third stage of the research process was semi-structured interviews with individual teachers and the principal. I conducted a semi-structured interview with each of my participants.

The rationale behind using different tools was to enhance validity of the findings through triangulation. Triangulation is defined by Cohen et al., (2007, p. 141) as "the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour." Campbell and Fiske (1959) in Cohen et al., (2007, p. 141) claim the benefit of triangulation for a multi-method approach that "triangulation is a powerful way of demonstrating concurrent validity, particularly in qualitative research." Thus, using a multi-method approach in social research enhances validity and is more trustworthy than an approach which uses a single method. The three methods are discussed in more detail in the following sections.

3.6.1 Document analysis

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005, p. 314) refer to document analysis as the “analysis of any written material that contains information about the phenomenon that is being researched.” This implies that any document that contains relevant information about the study can be used. Merriam (2001, p. 113) identifies “four categories of document analysis and these include public records, personal records, physical materials and research-generated documents”. The categories in relation to this study were public records namely, the *Ministry of Education document on job description for teachers in Namibia* (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2009), the Etango combined school document on job descriptions for teachers in the school, minutes of previous meetings like staff-meetings, department meetings, school management meetings and parents meetings. The following school documents were also reviewed and analyzed: ‘Establishment of various school committees, their roles and functions’, ‘Etango combined school committees 2011-2013’, ‘Mentorship programme for grade 10 learners’, ‘Assembly and devotion schedule 2011 and the ‘Study supervision schedule’.

Documents were reviewed to scrutinize the roles for teachers with special attention to their leadership roles in the school and beyond. The data from the document analysis process provided me with a first-hand understanding of the leadership roles of teachers in the school. It also formed the framework for triangulation with the data from observations and semi-structured interviews.

3.6.2 Semi-structured interviews

According to Payne and Payne (2004, p. 131), semi-structured interviews “are based on small number of open-ended questions, the answers to which are actively and freely probed by the interviewer for elaboration.” In a similar vein, May in Morse (1991) in De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005, p. 292) argues that “semi-structured interviews are defined as those organized around areas of particular interest, while still allowing considerable flexibility in scope and depth.”

This idea suggests that a semi-structured interview is a planned conversation between the researcher and the participants where the interviewer asks the interviewee a few open-ended questions to provide the information about their beliefs, knowledge, thinking and experiences with regard to the nature of the phenomenon under study. Therefore, semi-structured interviews were conducted in this study to obtain a full account of how teachers experienced the phenomenon of teacher leadership. I asked the participants about their experiences of leadership roles in the school, challenges encountered and strategies for improvement. Semi-structured interviews (Appendices A and B) were conducted in a way that created opportunity for interviewees to provide sincere and honest responses and to allow me to probe unclear issues by asking follow-up questions. Interviews were conducted in English since all participants were fluent in English. I conducted my interviews alone and I interviewed each individual participant once.

Interview conversations were recorded using a voice-recorder with the permission of the participants. All interview conversations were transcribed soon after the interview while my mind was still fresh to recall what happened during the interview process. Interviews were used to achieve what McMillan and Schumacher (2001, p. 450) describe as “open-response questions to obtain data of participant meanings – how individuals conceive meanings of their world and how they explain or “make sense” of the important events in their lives.” The data from interviews was triangulated during data analysis with data from document analysis and observations.

3.6.3 Observations

According to Cohen et al. (2007, p. 396), observation is defined as a “research process that offers an investigator the opportunity to gather ‘live’ data from naturally occurring social situations”. Moreover, Rule and John (2011, p. 82) define observations as “a fruitful means of getting a lively sense of action in the case and for generating thick descriptions of the case”. As a way of collecting primary data, Ketlhoilwe (2007, p. 113) suggests that observation is “a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place.” These definitions imply that through

observation methods, the researcher obtains pure data by looking directly at what is taking place in a situation at that particular time.

In this case study, I was a non-participant observer because I was not a member of the school and my role was to “record what is seen and heard without otherwise taking part in any activities” (Payne & Payne, 2004, p. 158). I used observation schedules (Appendices C) to observe and record formal and informal leadership roles for the targeted group in and outside the classrooms, during morning devotions, brief meetings, staff-meetings, parents meetings, and departmental meetings as well as in the afternoon after classes when teachers were still in the school. I recorded any act or practice of leadership that the teachers were exercising in the school. I used three separate observation schedules for each individual teacher because I observed each teacher for three days. I used a time-table for observation that illustrated the dates on which I observed each particular teacher, for instance, on Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday I observed novice teacher number one (NT1), Thursday, Friday and the following Monday I observed veteran teacher number two (VT2) and so on. The data from observations supplemented the information from document analysis and the semi-structured interviews. These three sets of data provided a rich picture of how the phenomenon of teacher leadership was viewed and practiced at the school.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative researchers conduct qualitative studies to produce qualitative findings after the process of data analysis. In this regard, De Vos et al. (2005) assert that:

the purpose of conducting a qualitative study is to produce findings. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significance from trivia, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal. Data analysis is also the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data (p. 333).

The excerpt suggests that in qualitative research, the researcher collects thick raw data that has to be processed through different processes of data analysis before it is transformed into the findings. My data analysis commenced soon after the first data collection tool (document analysis) was employed while I was still collecting data using the others methods at the case study school. This is called preliminary analysis as it involves “the data analysis at

the research site during the data collection” (De Vos et al., 2005, p. 335) and also due to the fact that it is done before the main analysis of the data. I organized the documents into a filing system and read through them properly and tried to identify the main issues and themes in relation to the leadership roles of teachers in the school (Rule & John, 2011, pp. 80-81). Preliminary analysis proceeded during and after the second data collection tool (observation) was conducted. This was done by completing the observations, writing detailed notes of what was observed by incorporating my impressions and interpretations of action (Rule & John, 2011, p. 81). After semi-structured interviews were conducted, I did the verbatim interview transcriptions and then typed the hand written interview transcriptions myself. This provided me an “opportunity to get immersed in the data, an experience that usually generates emergent insights” (De Vos et al., 2005, pp. 336-337). I also familiarized myself with the data across the data sets by reading through the data more often (De Vos et al., 2005, p. 337).

I then employed what Rule and John (2011, p. 78) call content and thematic analysis. They refer to content and thematic analysis as a “process of working from codes to themes” (2011, p. 78). In this study, I also analyzed my data by working from codes to categories and then themes. According to Merriam (2001, p.164), “coding is nothing more than assigning some sort of short-hand designation to various aspects of your data so you can easily retrieve specific pieces of the data”. De Vos et al., (2005, p. 338) argue that “codes may take several forms: abbreviations of key words, coloured dots, numbers ...”. In this study, coloured dots were used to “identify patterns such as similarities and differences” (Rule & John, 2011, p. 78). Thereafter, I grouped the codes with similarities into categories and then analyzed the categories and looked for patterns of meaning that led to the emergence of six themes (Rule & John, 2011, p. 78). Grant’s Four Zones and Roles Model for teacher leadership in South Africa (2008, p. 93) (Appendix G) helped me in analyzing and grouping my data into categories and themes. The data from the three instruments was triangulated and blended into a rich picture of findings which is captured in Chapter Four.

3.8 ETHICAL IMPLICATIONS

The ethical issues of confidentiality, anonymity, voluntary participation and the right to withdraw were addressed in this study since I was working with human beings whose rights need to be protected and respected (Payne & Payne, 2004, p. 66; Cohen et al., 2007). Merriam (2002, p. 313) argues that “ethics begins with the research project and ends with how we present and share with others what we have learned.” Before the research was conducted, I obtained the permission from the relevant authorities, such as the Director of Education in the Ohangwena region and the Principal of the case study school. This was done in the form of official letters (Appendices E and F). The research commenced after I was granted permission from the Director to do the study. All the participants were informed of the purpose and objectives of the study to allow them to make informed decisions of their roles in the study. They were informed about their rights to participate freely or to withdraw from the study at any time should they feel uncomfortable with the process. I instilled confidence and trust in participants by assuring them of their anonymity and of the confidentiality on information they shared with me. I tried to be transparent and honest for the participants to feel at ease. Acting on Merriam’s (2001) advice quoted above, I offered to share my findings with them.

3.9 LIMITATIONS

Different factors such as time, accessibility, expenses and others have been identified as barriers that hinder researchers from obtaining information from the entire population, as Cohen et al. (2007) argue:

factors such as expenses, time and accessibility frequently prevent researchers from gaining information from the whole population. Therefore they often need to be able to obtain data from a smaller group or subset of the total population in such a way that the knowledge gained is representative of the total population ... under study. (p. 100)

Thus, because of limited time and because this research was designed as a case study which focused on only one school among many schools in the region and targeted only four teachers out of twenty-five teachers in the school, findings could not be generalized.

The major limitation I experienced were difficulties and challenges during my data collection process, primarily due to the death of my sister who committed suicide in my house during my data collection process. This was devastating and a tremendous shock and loss to me and it affected the planned data collection process, both directly and indirectly. My sister's death touched me emotionally and psychologically and left me traumatized. I planned to spend six weeks at the case study school which should have enabled me to gather rich observation data but, due to this family tragedy, I managed to spend only four weeks and two days at the school. However, I was fortunately able to gather all the data I required to respond to my research questions.

Another limitation I had to consider was in relation to observation as one of my data collection tools. With observation, there was the possibility that participants might have behaved differently from their normal behaviours in the school because they were aware that they were being observed. This was overcome by informing the participants that the purpose of the observation was for study purposes only and that issues of anonymity and confidentiality would be considered throughout the research process. After this and through my continuous interactions with the participants, they felt at ease during the data collection process. Bearing ethical considerations in my mind, I conducted semi-structured interviews with my participants in the afternoon after classes in a way not to disturb the lessons as well as not to hamper the participants from carrying on with their school work. However, having said this, it was difficult to get hold of the participants after working hours.

I also discovered that, to a certain extent, semi-structured interviews can be unreliable if participants are not honest in what they are saying. In this regard, I found that there was a contradiction in the data with regard to the responses provided by teachers and the principal in one of my interview questions. This was despite issues of anonymity, confidentiality, honesty and transparency being addressed.

3.10 VALIDITY

Validity is referred by David and Sutton (2004, p. 171) to “the degree to which a measuring instrument actually measures and describes the concept it was designed to”. According to Cohen et al. (2007, p. 133), validity is “an important key to effective research. If a piece of research is invalid then it is worthless. Validity is thus a requirement for both qualitative and quantitative/naturalistic research.” The quotes by David and Sutton (2004) and Cohen et al. (2007) suggest that the data collection tools are set and planned in a way to collect the data with regard to the phenomenon under study. For example, in the context of my study, semi-structured interviews, document analysis and observations were set in a way to collect the data with regard to teacher leadership in the case study school. To enhance validity in my study, the information was triangulated by comparing codes across all three data sets before developing themes. I also employed member checking to verify accuracy of responses from the participants and I kept a clear audit trail of evidence. Furthermore, the data was kept in a safe place for a period of time to retrieve if and when this becomes necessary.

3.11 SUMMARY

The chapter outlined the research approach, the topic and the goal of my research. It described the features of the research that made it qualitative and interpretive in nature. It outlined that the study employed a case study approach because I elected to develop a broad understanding of the phenomenon of teacher leadership by getting in touch with the real situation and I engaged with people in that situation, so as to listen to what they said. I also observed what they were doing in the school with regard to the phenomenon under study.

The chapter also discussed the criteria used to select the school as a research case as well as the sampling strategy that was employed to select the research participants. It outlined that the school was selected in terms of its accessibility to me as the researcher and that purposive sampling was used to select the participants. It also described the three data collection tools that were used during the study and outlined how each tool was used and why it was used. The chapter discussed the benefits of using a multi-method approach in

qualitative research with regard to triangulation since it was able to enhance the validity of the data. The chapter offered a brief description on how the data from the three data-gathering tools were analyzed in order to arrive at the findings. The chapter also touched on the ethical issues that were considered and addressed throughout the research process. It was discovered that the research was not perfectly carried out planned due to limitations which were also discussed in this chapter. The chapter explained how validity was enhanced in this study.

In short, I learnt quite a lot during my data collection process. Even though there were time constraints and even though unplanned circumstances were experienced, I would say it was worth conducting this process because much has been learnt from it.

The next chapter presents the data.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to explore teachers' experiences of their leadership roles and specifically to find out the challenges inherent within its practice. The following questions guided the study:

- What leadership roles do teachers currently exercise at the school?
- What are the teachers' experiences of their leadership roles at school? What are the challenges?
- What is formal leadership's attitude to teacher leadership?
- To what extent do stakeholders understand the need for a supportive culture and structure for teacher leadership?

All these questions were answered by the data.

In this chapter, I present the data collected from document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations. I begin with a profile of the research participants and then move on with the presentation of the data in categories as they emerged from the data analysis process. I complete the chapter with a brief conclusion.

Ethical issues of anonymity and confidentiality of participants were considered in this study; therefore the participants have been given codes and the research site has been identified with a pseudonym (Etango combined school) in the text in order to respect and protect the dignity of the participants in the study. The codes of the participants are as follows:

Novice Teacher One – NT1

Veteran Teacher One – VT1

Novice Teacher Two – NT2

Veteran Teacher two – VT2

Data collection tools have also been identified by symbols as follows:

Interview - I

Document One: Job description for teachers in the case study school and in Namibia - D1

Document Two: School committees in the case study school – D2

Document Three: Establishment of the various school committees, their roles and responsibilities in the case study school – D3

Document Four: Minutes of meetings namely staff, briefings, departmental, management and parental meetings – D4

Document Five: Line of authority in the case study school – D5

Document Six: Mentorship programme for grader ten learners in the case study school – D6

Document Seven: Schedules for morning devotion and assembly and study supervision – D7

Observation One: Observation schedules of research participants – O1

Observation Two: Observation notes recorded during meetings namely briefings, staff, department and parents meetings and the entire school in general – O2

4.2 PROFILES OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

P – He is a male principal in his 40s. He has been in the teaching profession for 14 years at the time of the study. He was appointed as a principal of Etango combined school in 2001. He has a Basic Education Teacher Diploma (BETD).

NT1 – He is a young male teacher in his 20s. He has three and half years of teaching experience. He is a member of the school board committee and the sports advisor in the school. He teaches Mathematics at grades seven and eight level. He has a BETD.

NT2 – She is a young female teacher in her 20s. She has two years of teaching experience. She is a member of the school management team committee, a sports advisor and a member of the admission committee in the school. She teaches English second language and Oshikwanyama first language from grades eight to ten. She has a BETD.

VT1 – She is a female teacher in her mid 30s. She has 11 years of teaching experience. She is a member of the HIV/AIDS committee where she serves as a facilitator for ‘Window of hope’ and is also a member of the disciplinary committee in the school. She teaches Mathematics of grades five and six. She has a BETD.

VT2 – He is a male teacher in his 30s. He has 10 years of teaching experience. He is the chairperson of the HIV/AIDS committee, the chairperson of the entrepreneurship committee and a sports advisor in the school. He teaches Accounting and Entrepreneurship from grades eight to ten. He has a Bachelor of Arts degree (BA) and a BETD.

I now move on to present the data in the following categories:

- Participants’ understanding, experiences and practices of their leadership roles in the case study school.
- Participants’ understanding of the need for a supportive culture and structure for enabling teacher leadership in the school.
- The principal’s role in enabling teacher leadership in the case study school.
- The challenges inherent within the practice of teacher leadership

4.3 PARTICIPANTS’ UNDERSTANDING, EXPERIENCES AND PRACTICES OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Grant’s model of teacher leadership in the context of South Africa (2008, p. 93) is used in this section to organize and group the data into four sub-sections, namely teacher leadership “in the classroom (Zone 1)”, teacher leadership in “working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities (Zone 2)”, teacher leadership “outside the classroom in the whole school development (Zone 3)” and teacher leadership “between neighbouring schools in the community (Zone 4)” as well as at the circuit and the regional level. Hereafter, I refer to Grant’s (2008) model as ‘the model’. The subsections are presented as they appear in their respective order.

4.3.1 Teacher leadership in the classroom (Zone 1)

According to the ‘model’, the role for teachers in Zone 1 involved “continuing to teach and improve one’s own teaching”. This was also the case with my participants in this study.

Participants were asked to give their opinion on how they understand leadership in relation to teachers or, in other words, how they understand the concept teacher leadership. The

purpose of asking the question was to establish if participants had an idea of what teacher leadership is and what it entails as well as to establish whether their understanding depended on their teaching experience.

In response to this question, VT1 understood teacher leadership in relation to teachers who were teaching the learners as she said “anything that the teacher is doing at school whether is ... teaching ... is leadership” (I, p. 9, 24 August 2011). The view of teacher leadership with regard to teachers who are teaching the learners and, at the same time, instilling leadership skills in learners’ minds was also viewed by NT1. He expressed his ideas in the following way:

I think teacher leader is somebody who is time in education to teach, to give something to the learners and that somebody should give that content under leadership norms like you are teaching at the same time you are building leadership within learners’ minds. I think that is teacher leadership (I, p. 10, 24 August 2011).

The views expressed by NT1 and VT1 implied an understanding of teacher leadership which was restricted to the classroom situation (Zone One). Similarly, VT2 described teacher leadership as an act of influencing or “leading and showing others on how to do things” (I, p. 12, 01 September 2011). For example he expressed that by leadership:

we mean to lead others, to show others on how to do things especially the principal should lead the school, a teacher should lead the class, and a president should lead the country (I, p. 12, 01 September 2011).

From this excerpt, it is clear that VT2 viewed leadership as when a leader is influencing and directing the followers on how to do things. In this view, VT2 suggested an understanding of leadership roles by teachers in the school as an act of influencing and directing learners in their classes to do things and implied leadership roles for teachers in Zone One. The excerpt suggested a hierarchical view of leadership where different people can only lead in their particular zones or spaces, where teachers are limited to leadership in the classroom alone and where leadership in the whole school was the zone of the principal. This supports, to some extent, the view of NT1 and VT1 for teacher leadership limited to the classroom.

Participants were also asked to give their views with regard to the experiences of their leadership roles and to provide examples of the leadership roles they were exercising in the school. In attempting to provide examples of the leadership roles he was exercising in the

school, NT1 expressed that “even in the classroom, leadership is involved, you teach, everything involving classroom situation leadership is there” (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011). This was also a view of VT1; she confirmed her exercise of leadership roles in the school as she said “I teach learners mathematics and I normally supervise study” (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011). She also emphasised the leadership roles by teachers in the classroom when she alleged that:

Teachers normally do leadership in their classes when they are presenting lessons, not only when they are presenting lessons but they are also registered class teachers. They also do leadership roles when they supervise study to make sure that all learners are studying and they are quiet and anything whether they are supervising the learners when learners are cleaning is leadership (I, pp. 1-2 24 August 2011).

The data from VT1 indicated that she experienced the leadership roles of teachers as restricted to the classroom situation and the data also suggested that she did not differentiate management roles from leadership roles. In other words, the data indicated that VT1 viewed management roles, such as supervision of study sessions in the school as leadership. Teaching as leadership was also an understanding of VT2 when he expressed his roles in the school. He stated that “I am a teacher for entrepreneurship subject, the role that I play there; I am a teacher on that side” (I, p. 3, 24 August 2011). VT2 further stressed the motivational role that he exercised in the school:

The leadership that I am doing at school, examples are like to my class, specific to my class, I normally use to motivate my learners and motivation is one of the skills that the leader needs to have and also directing and guiding my learners to do well for example to show them how to do things (I, p. 2, 01 September 2011).

The data showed that VT2 exercised leadership roles in the classroom situation by motivating, directing and guiding the learners through modelling behaviours. In his response regarding the experience of the leadership roles that teachers were exercising in the school, VT2 also viewed teacher leadership through the lens of leadership in the classroom situation as well as taking part in management functions when he explained that:

The teacher is looking after the learners at school. It seems the teacher is looking after the learners even at school there is a principal and HODs, you exercise your leadership skills while you are at your class there alone where there is no principal you are the principal and HOD of your class (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011).

This implied the experiences and understandings of teacher leadership were strictly confined to the classroom situation where teachers are limited to lead only inside their classrooms. My observation notes highlighted that within the classroom, teachers adopted different roles. These included, instructing, facilitating, guiding, advising, motivating, and influencing the learners and other roles (O1, pp. 1-20, June-July 2011). The information from O1, pp. 1-12, 29 June 2011 to 21 July 2011 documented that “teachers plan and prepare their instructional activities such as lessons and teaching aids in the afternoon after classes”.

The document, *job description for teachers* in the case study school stipulates the roles for teachers in the classroom situation “namely planning for lessons, teaching aids and other instructional activities, lesson presentation, classroom management as well as evaluation and assessment” (D1, pp. 1-3, 28 June 2011). The data here indicated a view of managerial roles for teacher leaders which was also a view in traditional leadership theory. However, apart from exercising leadership roles in the classroom, participants also indicated a view of teacher leadership outside the classroom situation in the curriculum and the extra-curricular activities which I deal with in the next sub-section.

4.3.2 Teacher leadership in working with other teachers and learners outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities (Zone 2)

The roles of teachers in Zone 2 according to the ‘model’ are: “providing curriculum development knowledge, leading in-service education and assisting other teachers as well as participating in performance evaluation of teachers” (Grant, 2008, p. 93). In this study, participants provided the view of teachers’ roles which were more aligned with ‘providing curriculum development and assisting others’ and few on ‘participating in performance evaluation of teachers and for leading in-service education’.

When responding to the question of how she understood the concept teacher leadership, NT2 explained the concept in terms of leading others as she explained that “when teachers possess leadership is when they possess these characteristics of being a leader and being able to lead others in such a situation” (I, p. 8, 24 August 2011). She further stressed that:

in short, I can say may be a leader should be a good listener, he should be able to give others chances and should also take other people’ points and he should be that person who understands others. What I mean by a good listener, you take everyone

and then you listen to their suggestions or listen to their problems and able to understand them in a way (I, p. 8, 24 August 2011).

The explanation of NT2 shows that she understood leadership in relation to teachers in terms of personal attributes or influence. For her, teacher leadership is an act of influencing and understanding others. In her view, a teacher leader is a person who possesses characteristics of being a leader in a way to be able to lead or influence and understand others by giving them chances and considering their suggestions through proper communication. Here the data suggested the view of teacher leadership (Zone Two) where teachers influence the learners and their colleagues to accomplish their goal which is mainly to improve the teaching and learning processes in the school.

In his response to the question about the experience of the leadership roles for teachers outside the classroom in curricular and extra-curricular activities in the school, NT1 experienced teacher leadership as authorized (Gunter, 2005) when teachers were given leadership responsibilities by the principal or heads of departments (HODs) in the school. He had this to say:

Like a teacher you can be like assigned to take, let me say the principal and HODs are not around they went for a meeting or workshop somewhere, so at school is now just teachers, so sometimes you can take now the responsibilities of the principal like taking care of the learners in their absence (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011).

This indicated that for NT1, teachers exercised leadership roles mostly when the principal and HODs were absent and it also showed that he had a view of leadership in relation to power positions alone. Similarly, VT2 asserted that “again sometimes in the absence of the principal and HODs then you have to exercise the leadership skills at school” (I, p. 1, 01 September 2011).

VT1 described the leadership roles for teachers in the school as management roles such as planning when she stated that “anything that the teacher is doing at school whether is planning ... is leadership” (I, p. 9, 24 August 2011). Planning was also viewed by VT2 as the leadership role for teachers in the school when he stated that “... they should plan of what should be done, how it should be done and also to communicate well” (I, p. 12, 01 September 2011). The view of planning as a leadership role for teachers in the school by VT1

and VT2 indicated an understanding of management roles for teachers as also being a part of their leadership role in the school.

Apart from teachers serving temporarily in formal management positions in place of HODs and the principal, NT1 also understood teacher leadership to be when teachers take learners on educational tours. He affirmed this by saying “it can be like going for a tour with kids, it is like you are their leader. It is like you have to instruct them on what to do and you know that on the way” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). This excerpt from NT1 resonated with the view of VT2 when he alleged his role as a leader of a school tour:

I use to spearhead school tour, normally I use to put things in order, organizing, setting the objectives for the tour, make arrangements on how we are going for example, how to get transport, food, accommodation and money that will help us to get there. And make arrangements of the different places that we are going to visit and the speaking to other people to address our learners (I, p. 3, 01 September 2011).

The data from VT2 and NT1 showed that teachers exercise leadership outside the classroom in Zone Two where they work with the learners and colleagues in extra-curricular activities such school tours.

The findings also indicated that most of the participants participate in extra-curricular activities such as sport. For example, NT1 asserted that “I am a sport advisor at school in the sport committee” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). NT2 echoed a similar sentiment: “if a teacher is expected to be involved in sport that is already a leadership role whereby he or she is going to facilitate sport” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). She confirmed that she participates in sport when she said “I am also dealing with sport as a netball coach. I am coaching the netball team; I am just giving advice on the team mostly. And when it comes to taking learners for tournament, I am also involved” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). VT1 also regarded teacher leadership as when teachers were involved in extra-curricular activities such as sport when she asserted that “anything that the teacher is doing at school whether is ... taking part in sport” (I, p. 9, 24 August 2011).

VT2 also confirmed that he serves in the sport committee and his role was to “make sure that the players are trained and give enough time for training so that they can compete with other neighbouring schools throughout the year” (I, p. 4, 01 September 2011). He was also

observed “directing and guiding the learners playing netball at the netball field during the physical training lesson” (O1, 21 July 2011). The document, *school committees* in the case study school noted that that “NT1, NT2 and VT2 and another eight teachers served as members of the sport committee in the case study school” (D2, p. 3). The roles of teachers who were members of the sport committee in the school like NT1, NT2, VT2 and others were, for example, to:

Implement the sport codes as determined by the school authority, recommend sport days and gears to the school authority for approval. To initiate competition with other schools or clubs, seek for resources of funds and to recommend any other sport issues to the school authority (D3, pp. 4-5).

According to the document, *job description for teachers* in the case study school and in Namibia, the roles for teachers in extra-mural programmes were to “promote of excellent teaching standards like, assisting the principal and HODS in establishing the school as a caring institution and a centre of learning and extra-curricular involvement such as takes direct responsibility for at least one activity offered at school” (D1, p. 3, 28 June 2011). Thus across the data sets, it became evident that teachers exercise leadership roles outside the classroom in Zone Two by working with learners and colleagues in sport activities at the school.

Besides working with other teachers and learners in sport; participants also showed other views of teacher leadership in Zone Two where they worked together with other teachers and learners in curriculum development activities. In this instance, NT2 experienced teachers’ involvement in counselling issues: “a teacher can also be involved with other things like maybe dealing with counselling things at the school and also things like ‘Window of hope’ that can be also involved in the school” (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011). The expression of teachers serving as ‘Window of hope’ facilitators by NT2 corresponded with the data from VT1 when she indicated that “I am a member of HIV/AIDS committee whereby I am a facilitator for ‘Window of hope’” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). VT1 further alleged that “the ‘Window of hope’ that I am dealing with is the junior one for kids from grade four and five, may be from eight to twelve or ten years. There in ‘Window of hope’ is whereby, it is like the counselling one” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). VT1 explained that in the ‘Window of hope’ programme she was dealing with, they often talked about things that happen in social life such as death and protection measures about HIV. She had this to say:

We talk about those things that happen in life such as what we do if somebody passed away and all those things. And we talk about HIV but we do not go in detail ... because when we talk about protection we don't talk about condoms because those are small kids they don't know condoms. Actually we talk about the ways how you can get HIV is when you touch blood ... We normally do with protection but we do not say use condom but we say abstain (I, p. 3, 24 August 2011).

The data from NT2 and VT1 implied the view of teachers' involvement in leadership outside the classroom where teachers facilitate programme initiatives that deal with counselling and mobilising the learners about things that happen in their social life such as to be aware of HIV as well as to be able to cope if somebody in their families passed away and so on. In this instance, VT2 explained that he was a chairperson of the HIV/AIDS committee in the school where he indicated that his roles were to share ideas with other stakeholders in the school community and community members about HIV/AIDS as well as to mobilise them to be aware of HIV/AIDS. He was recorded saying:

I mobilise and educate learners and community members to be aware about HIV/AIDS. So like every year there is HIV/AIDS week at school ... it is my responsibility to remind people like adult people, like my colleagues ... that HIV/AIDS is real and exist. And again to share ideas amongst teachers, learners and community members so that at least that week we can be aware that HIV/AIDS is real and is not a joke (I, p. 3, 01 September 2011).

The excerpt showed that teachers were allowed to take part in activities that involved the well-being of learners and the community at large. The view of teachers serving on the HIV/AIDS committee in the school was also confirmed by P when he stated that they had one teacher at the school serving as the Life Skills and HIV/AIDS teacher who was also involved with identifying and registering the orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) in the school. P had this to say:

Another example I would want to mention is related to Life Skills and HIV/AIDS. We have one teacher that deals with that each year before the education census. As a school we have to find how many orphans and vulnerable children do we have in the school? Now this teacher, conduct meetings for us to give us some guidance or ways to determine that this person is vulnerable or not (I, p. 2, 21 July 2011)

P suggested that teachers were involved in providing knowledge to others in the school through conducting meetings. This was also one of the ways teachers exercised leadership roles in the school. According to the school document, *establishment of the various school*

committees, their roles and responsibilities in the case study school (D3, 28, 2011), the roles of teachers who were members of HIV and AIDS committee in the school were:

To identify and register OVCs in the school initiate programmes that could assist OVCs and to initiate programmes related to HIV and AIDS. To plan the activities that need to be carried out, identify sources that could be of assistance in the implementation of the program and to report back to the school authority on the development plans, successes and failures (pp. 2-3).

Here the findings from D3, NT2, VT1, VT2, and P indicated that teachers were involved in greater initiatives that concerned their lives as well as the lives of their learners, colleagues, the parent body and community members.

Apart from serving as the Life Skills teachers and HIV/AIDS committee members in the school, the data also suggested a view of teachers serving as mentors for novice teachers in the case study school. VT2 had this to say in this regard:

Normally as a staff member like when it comes to new teachers sometimes they see the work to be very difficult for them to do, so what I actually do, I just motivate them and encourage them to work very hard so that they can simplify their work, the harder you work, the easier you work will be or is likely to be (I, p. 2, 01 September 2011).

VT2 had a view of teachers involved in encouraging, influencing and motivating their colleagues to work hard in order to achieve their desired goals in the school. Mentorship for novice teachers in the school was also viewed by P (I, 21 July 2011) when he asserted that:

others teachers do assist when a teacher is newly appointed, they have to be given another teacher that we refer to him or her as a mentor and a mentor is there to plan with the new teacher to help that teacher that no, when you are to teach that topic for example, this is how we plan this (I, p. 9).

This suggested that teachers in the case study school were allowed to provide guidance and induction to novice teachers in planning and preparing for instructional activities such as planning for the lessons.

The data indicated that teachers were not just serving as mentors for novice teachers in the school but also served as mentors for grade ten learners. For instance, VT1 confirmed this by saying “I serve as a mentor for grade ten learners” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). As a mentor for grade ten learners, VT1 alleged the role she played in mentoring the learners: “there I use to speak to those girls, they are all girls. I normally speak to them, encourage them to

study hard and whenever they need something that is not more expensive like pens, mathematical sets, I provide" (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). The *mentorship programme for grade ten learners 2011 academic year* illustrates that "all teachers in the school are given two to three learners each to mentor or to take care in terms of academic or personal development" (D6, pp. 1-3). The data here implied that the leadership roles for teachers in the school was not just the focus for academic achievement but they also served as foster parents for grade ten learners where they were held accountable and responsible in providing learners with stationery such as pens, mathematical sets and others as VT1 said. They were also involved in giving advice to the learners and encouraged them to study hard.

This section presented the view of teachers working with other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities in the school. The findings also suggested a view of teacher leadership at the level of "whole school development" (Grant, 2008, p. 93) and this is presented in the next sub-section.

4.3.3 Teacher leadership in the area of whole school development (Zone 3)

In relation to the 'model', the roles for teacher leaders in Zone Three are "organizing and leading peer reviews of school practice" and "participating in school level decision-making". In this regard, the data revealed some examples where ordinary teachers served as department heads. P confirmed this by saying: "at our school currently we only have two heads of departments and now I have assigned some other departments to colleagues who are teachers ... they are helping in deed in running the departments" (I, p. 1, 21 July 2011). The minutes of a previous subject head meeting confirmed that "one teacher serves as the Phase Head for Lower Primary" (D4, p. 1, 24 May 2011). P expanded on the roles of the ordinary teachers who were authorized to head the departments:

What they do in the department is to identify areas that needs to be addressed for improvement then they schedule the departmental meetings, they call in teachers, they sit and discuss with teachers and advise the teachers on what they are supposed to do. They also sometimes carry out some observations to assist other teachers to develop (I, p. 1, 21 July 2011).

The excerpt indicated that teachers were involved in holding or filling the vacant positions of HODs in the school. P also provided other roles for teachers in the school that he regarded as their leadership roles, such as heading committees:

They (*teachers*) head various school committees, where I appoint a teacher to be responsible for examination and various other committees, The roles of teachers that are heading those committees is to call for meetings, chair the meetings, identify the weaknesses that as a school we have concerning that particular committee to initiate the way forward (I, p. 3, 21 July 2011).

The school document entitled, *establishment of the various school committees, their roles and responsibilities* in the case study school illustrated the view of “teachers serving as committee heads or chairperson and committee members in the case study school” (D2, pp. 1-4, 28 June 2011). The presence of committees with teachers serving as chairperson and committee members served as one indicator that leadership in the school was distributed amongst the teachers. Another indicator of distributed leadership amongst teachers in the school was “teachers like NT1 who was serving as a study supervision group leader for teachers who were supervising study every Wednesdays” (D7, p. 1, 28 June 2011). And the instance of “teachers who were observed leading the morning assemblies and devotions in the case study school namely VT2 led the morning assembly and devotion on the 01 July 2011, VT2 led it on the 08 July 2011 and other teachers also had the turn to lead the assembly” (O2). Besides serving as committee chairperson, members, and group leaders, teachers also assisted the management to run the school effectively as VT2 explained:

Teachers also help the principal to run the school effectively. They help the principal, inspector or director of education with the information that pertain the school for example, to provide the enrolment of the learners at school, teachers are always doing that to collect that information (I, p. 1, 01 September 2011). Teachers in the case study school were also exposed to exercising other roles in this Zone apart from heading the departments and helping the principal to run the school effectively. The data indicated that teachers also served as school board committee members as well as members of the school management team committee. In this regard, NT1 affirmed his role as a member of the school board committee:

I am a school board member. In the school board committee the role is not really for me alone, as we only do it as the whole committee. We decide upon one thing like

we have to do this as a group then we come up with that, we only decide at once all of us. We decide on issues that are mostly pertaining the school in general such as advices to be given to teachers, parents and learners (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011).

The information derived from the document, school committees, indicated that “only four teachers out of 25 teachers in the school were representing others in the school management team and three teachers represent their colleagues in the school board committee” (D2, p. 1, 28 June 2011). This suggested low or little representation of teachers in the two committees where school-wide decision-making took place. According to the document, *establishment of the various school committees, their roles and responsibilities* in the case study school (D3, 28 June 2011) the roles of the school board committee in the case study school were:

To develop the vision and policies of the school, recommend the appointment, transfer and promotion of personnel and to develop the school infrastructures. To promote school welfare, communicate with the parents and the community, to establish committees namely hostel, HIV and AIDS and finance committee and to manage school finances (p. 1).

The findings from NT1 and D3 demonstrated that teachers participated in the governance of the school where they worked together with other members of the school board, such as parents and learners, to implement policies and manage the school. Teachers’ participation in school-wide leadership and decision-making was also viewed by NT2 when she stressed that “if may be a teacher is made as a school board member or a management member then those are the roles of leadership. I am a member of the school management. Actually I am just a member and I give my opinions regarding what is being discussed concerning the school” (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011). NT2 and three other teachers who were members of the school management team committee plus the principal and two HODs were observed “conducting interviews with seven candidates who applied for a vacant post of Life Skills teacher in the case study school” (O2, p. 2, 07 July 2011).

According to D3 the roles of the school management committee were:

The day-to-day running of the school, draft the school policy, rules and regulations, conduct interviews when personnel is to be recruited and promote school welfare. Utilize finances as directed by the school board, implement the ministerial and school policies and facilitate the drafting of the school budget (p. 1).

The data suggested a view of teacher leadership which extended from the classroom to the management of the school where teachers assisted the management of the school, for example, in conducting interviews when teachers were recruited, facilitation in the draft of school budget and other roles.

However, apart from serving on the school board and in the school management team committees, the data also indicated a view of teachers serving on the admission committee and in the disciplinary committee in the case study school. For instance, NT2 provided some examples of the roles she enacted in the school: "I am also involved in the admission of the learners in the admission committee; I am just there as to identify the learners to be admitted at school and sort out the names after the learners have just applied" (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011).

The roles for teachers who were members of the admission committee in the school were to "receive and process the applications, make recommendations to the school authority on the applications and to inform the applicants in writing of the outcome of their applications" (D3, pp. 1-2). The data from NT2 and D3 indicated the view of teachers' involvement in the administration activities of the school where they took part in the admission and enrolment of learners in the school.

Besides serving as members of the admission committee, the data also suggested teachers serving as disciplinary committee members. For example VT1 indicated that "I serve as a deputy chairperson of disciplinary committee" (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011) and this also corresponded with the data shown by D2, p. 1, 28 June 2011. As a deputy chairperson of the disciplinary committee, VT1 asserted "I normally register all the problems that teachers encountered with their learners, write letters to invite parent and learners for disciplinary, then call in the members then we discuss. And from there, I take the minutes of the disciplinary meetings" (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). VT1 was observed in the afternoon after classes with two other teachers and one HOD talking to two learners who "were referred to the committee because of dodging the lessons" (O1, 18 July 2011). According to D3, p. 1, the roles of the disciplinary committee in the case study school were "to hear the cases of the learners and to consult with the school authority as to what measures are to be taken against the offender". NT2 was observed instilling discipline in the learners when she "tells

some learners to tuck-in their shirts during the morning devotion and assembly” (O1, p. 7, 04 July 2011).

The findings across the data showed that teachers were allowed to exercise leadership outside the classroom in Zone Two where they worked with their colleagues and parents to discipline the learners in the school. It also implied a view of teachers working with other teachers and parents to influence and instil good behaviour amongst the learners in the school.

This section presented the roles for teachers in whole school development, Zone Three according to the ‘model’. The data also revealed some evidence of teacher leadership beyond the school which I present in the next sub-section.

4.3.4 Teacher leadership between neighbouring schools in the community (Zone 4) and at the circuit and the regional level

The ‘model’ illustrates the roles for teacher leaders in Zone 4 as follows: “providing curriculum development knowledge and leading in-service education and assisting other teachers across schools and into the school community.” My participants provided the information which implied little participation of teacher leadership in this Zone.

P was of the view that teachers participated in activities at circuit or regional level when they served as sport and NANTU (Trade union) representatives. He confirmed this by saying “at our school we have one of our teachers who represent NANTU as a union at a regional level as a member or as an executive member of regional, Ohangwena NANTU regional office” (I, p. 3, 21 July 2011). This corresponded with the data derived from D2, p. 4, 28 June 2011 where it is illustrated that one teacher in the case study school served as an executive member or representative of the Ohangwena NANTU regional office. According to the document, *establishment of the various school committees, their roles and functions*, the roles of NANTU (Trade union) representatives in the case study school were “to attend meetings of the organization, conduct meetings at the school level to update their colleagues on latest development and to recruit new members for the organization” (D3, p. 3, 28 June 2011).

P also added further examples of teachers serving as representatives of different activities when he said “we have also one other teacher that represents the school in sport at the circuit level. At circuit level, he was also nominated to represent the circuit at regional level, they plan sport activities for the circuit for that particular year” (I, p. 4, 21 July 2011). NT1 indicated that he represented the school in sport at both circuit and regional levels “whenever there is a new sport being introduced or anything that comes up within the circuit or regional wise, so I have to go for that specific training and then come train learners at school level in sport” (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011). The document, *school committees*, illustrated that “NT1 served as a case study school representative in sport at the circuit and regional levels” (D2, p. 3, 28 June 2011). Similarly, VT2 alleged that “we are also taking part either in circuit competition or regional competitions ... and that is my responsibility to inform the principals that this month we are expecting to play against what and what” (I, p. 4, 01 September 2011).

The findings from the data suggested a view of teachers serving as representatives of others in leadership activities beyond the school at the circuit and the regional level.

The data across the data sets in the entire Section 4.4 demonstrated that participants experienced, understood and practiced the majority of teacher leadership roles at the level of the classroom (Zone One) where they were involved with teaching. Teachers also played the majority of teacher leadership roles in Zone Two where they interacted with their colleagues and learners in sport, educational tours and as well as other curricular and extra-curricular activities. Teacher leadership was moderate in Zone Three in which teachers participated in the decision-making processes of the school as members of the school board and management committees. They were also involved in assisting the management of the school in the administrative duties such as the admission of the learners in the school as well as in the evaluation of different school initiatives. The data revealed little involvement of teachers in Zone Four. In this zone, teachers served as sport and NANTU trade union representatives.

The findings showed that generally participants had a common understanding, experience or practice of teacher leadership, irrespective of their teaching experience in the case study school. For example, NT1, VT1 and VT2 showed an understanding of teacher leadership

restricted to the classroom situation, while, to a certain extent, VT2 showed a common understanding of teacher leadership with NT2 in terms of leading or influencing others.

The next section presents participants' understandings for a need of a supportive culture and structure for teacher leadership in the case study school.

4.4 PARTICIPANTS' UNDERSTANDING FOR A NEED OF A SUPPORTIVE CULTURE AND STRUCTURE FOR TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN THE SCHOOL

This section is divided into two sub- sections; sub-section one presents the data on the need for teacher leadership in the school and sub-section two presents the data on collaboration amongst the teachers in the school.

4.4.1 The need for teacher leadership in the case study school

Participants were asked to respond to two questions about whether it was necessary for ordinary teachers to exercise leadership roles in the school as well as whether teachers in the case study school participated in the decision-making processes of the school. The aim was to understand if ordinary teachers had some leadership roles in the school and also whether they were allowed to take part in the decision-making processes of the school.

To the question of why it was necessary for the ordinary teachers to exercise leadership roles in the school, participants showed a common understanding for the need for teachers to exercise leadership roles in the school. For example P revealed that it was necessary to "assign some responsibilities to teachers, leadership roles to develop the leadership potentials those which are inside teachers because those teachers are going to be HODs or principals therefore they need to be exposed to these roles and functions" (I, p. 15, 21 July 2011). P understood that teachers need to be exposed to leadership in the school in order to prepare them for formal management positions later on in their careers. P further asserted that:

I believe it is necessary for it was possible for every school teacher to have a leadership role to play in the school because they would, like at our school they also advise me as a principal on what we are supposed to do to move our school forward.

If I make mistakes they do not sit idle and say no, after all is the principal, what can we say? They come straight to me and tell me I have done this and if I could have done it the other way we could have improved. (I, p. 5, 21 July 2011)

P indicated that it was necessary for ordinary teachers to have leadership roles to exercise in the school such as to give advice and assistance to the principal in order to develop the school. In this regard, VT1 also understood that teachers needed to adopt leadership roles “so that they will be able to guide learners inside and outside their classes so that they can implement the rules of education fully and be able to be in association with the community” (I2, p. 2, 24 August 2011). VT2 and NT1 were in line with P that the practice of leadership by teachers in the school prepared teachers for future managerial positions. For instance, VT2 expressed that teachers need to have some leadership roles to exercise in the school:

Because we do not know, today you are a teacher and tomorrow you will become a principal. You do not know, therefore it is very important for now while you are a teacher to exercise those leadership skills so that tomorrow when you become the principal or HOD, you will not suffer. (I, P. 2, 01 September 2011)

NT1 echoed the same sentiment as VT2 when he asserted that teachers need to play some leadership roles in the school: “because today you are a teacher, tomorrow you are a manager, so you just need to be there before time” (I, p. 1, 24 August 2011). Similarly, NT2 stressed that teachers need to exercise leadership roles in the school so that they could develop their skills. She had this to say:

They should also gain experience of being leaders so that may be one of the good days when they are also appointed may be as HODs or principals they have got that experience and on the other hand they also just need to exercise that because they are leaders as teachers. (I, p. 2, 24 August 2011)

NT2 believed that teachers need to exercise leadership roles to prepare themselves for promotion posts and, importantly, because it is their responsibility in the school because they are also leaders.

In response to the question on whether it was necessary for ordinary teachers to participate in the decision-making processes of the school, the participants expressed that it was of utmost importance. They revealed that teachers need to participate in the decision-making process of the school because they are part of the school; they have knowledge and experience of learners and other school development matters. NT2 had this to say in this regard: “the reason behind that it is because teachers are also part of the school and they

play a major role when it comes to the school, so that is why I think they should be involved in the decision-making process” (I, p. 3, 24 August 2011). Similarly, VT1 asserted that “when you are talking about the school is not only the principal, the school consists of teachers, principal is also a teacher, parents and learners. And teachers are also having good ideas in decision-making of how to run the schools or how to handle certain things” (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). NT1 also understood that teachers need to have a say in the decision-making processes because they are also people like others. He revealed that:

You see, as a manager, you are just a person like others. You went through the same process, the teaching process, education and all other norms, so now if you take things in your own hands without consulting ordinary teachers, you might even come up with a wrong decision and nobody will be happy with it so you have to let everybody to be involved. (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011)

The ideas here imply that teachers needed to be involved in the decision-making processes of the school to assist the principal in implementing the policies of education in order to achieve their desired goal which is teaching and learning for learners in the school. VT2 claimed that “the ordinary teachers are the number one to be involved in the decision-making process for the school development, they are having more experience” (I, p. 6, 01 September 2011). He also understood that teachers needed to participate because they have more knowledge of school development when it came to decision-making. He explained that:

Principal on the other side can make a mistake in one way or the other therefore the ordinary teachers are there to help the principal because they are both at the same level. The difference is only that this one is a principal and the other one is a teacher but knowing and making decisions especially when it comes to learners, to the development of the school, at least the ordinary teachers have a say there. (I, p. 6, 01 September 2011).

The data indicated that teachers saw and understood the need for them to participate in the decision-making process of the school. In line with teachers, the principal also confirmed that teachers need to be involved in the decision-making process of the school:

If a principal is going to work as a closed entity, now their schools may not benefit from the knowledge that the teachers are having. Being a principal does not mean you are perfect in everything, it does not mean you are an initiator of everything, but if you use your colleagues, people will speak about your school and credit at the end of the day will come to you as a principal (I, p. 15, 21 July 2011).

Furthermore, he stressed that “the ideas should come from all people and everybody should have participated, if the ideas are from everybody then it should not be appropriate to use the word I but us” (I, p. 16, 21 July 2011). This implied that the principal understood the need for teachers’ involvement in the decision-making processes of the school. Participants’ responses to the question whether they participate in the decision-making process in the case study school are the issue of the next sub-section.

4.4.2 The enactment of teachers as decision-makers and leaders in the case study school

In attempting to respond to the question on whether teachers were involved in the decision-making processes in the school, the participants’ responses showed that not every teacher in the school participated in the decision-making processes of the school. The data revealed that only those who were appointed to serve as members of the school management team committee and the school board committee were involved in school level decision-making. NT1 confirmed that “I participate in the decision-making process as a school board committee member” (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). Similarly, NT2 affirmed that “I participate in the decision-making process of the school as a member of the school management team” (I, p. 3, 24 August 2011). And VT2 indicated that he participated in the decision-making processes of the school because “let say now we are likely to get extra building for extra classes, I was taken by the principal to join that committee so we go looking in our school where those classes will fit, that is how I got involved in planning and other things” (I, p. 6, 01 September 2011).

However, VT1 reported differently from the other participants: “I do not participate because I am not a member of the school management team, only members of the school management team are normally take decisions and brings them to the staff for implementation” (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). The data derived from the document, *school committees*, illustrated that “only four out of 25 teachers represent others in the school management team” (D2, p. 4, 28 June 2011). Again my document analysis of 28 June 2011 also showed that “there are only three ordinary teachers who represent other teachers in the school board committee” (D2, p. 1). The representation of teachers in these committees

showed very little scope for the participation for teachers in the decision-making processes compared to the total number of teachers in the school. This suggested low participation of teachers in school level decision-making. Thus again the data pointed to teacher leadership being associated with formal position and linked to the formal school hierarchy. The next sub-section presents collaboration amongst teachers in the case study school.

4.4.3 Collaboration amongst teachers in the case study school

Participants were asked to respond to questions such as to whether teachers needed to work together with their colleagues in the school as well as whether teachers in the case study school collaborated with one another. The questions were asked to establish an understanding on whether the culture of collaboration prevailed in the school because collaboration is one of the conditions, according to the literature, that promotes teacher leadership.

In responding to the need for collaboration amongst teachers in the case study school, participants confirmed that collaboration was needed. VT1 affirmed that “cooperation amongst teachers is needed because it plays a big role at school because when teachers are working together the school will perform well” (I, p. 5, 24 August 2011). This indicated that teachers need to work together with one another in the school in such a way that when teachers are working together as a team it increases their self-esteem and willingness to take the lead. In a similar vein, VT2 indicated the need for teachers to work together with their colleagues in the school when he confirmed that:

Because of the mistakes that everybody can do in life ... If now we are sharing ideas, we are working together as a team brothers and sisters. If I make a mistake there is a possibility for you to see that mistake of mine but if I am alone I cannot see that mistake always and say yes I did that mistake (I, p. 7, 01 September 2011).

VT2 also expressed that working together minimizes making mistakes amongst the staff when he said “it means if you are working together, it minimizes the mistakes because I make a mistake and you have to correct that mistake and you will not repeat that mistake, you have to learn from the mistake I have made” (I, p. 7, 01 September 2011).

Apart from minimizing mistakes, VT2 also indicated the need for collaboration amongst teachers in the school when it came to sharing of subject knowledge and instructional expertise: “again when it comes to the mastering and understanding of the subject, planning and presentation of the lessons, there we need to help on another” (I, p. 7, 01 September 2011). He further alleged that “if there is one may be who happens to go for any training, should bring the feedback of that particular matter to others and he should help others to do it since he is now having the latest information” (I, p. 7, 01 September 2011). The findings suggest that collaboration is needed for teachers to help one another to improve, develop and to update one another with the latest development.

NT1 also believed that collaboration was needed amongst teachers in the school because “a workplace is a joint venture place whereby everybody is depending in the other, so you have just to work together” (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). He also explained that “there are times whereby we set subject targets as a phase and there are times where we set target as a school, so if you are not working together you are not going to achieve any of those” (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). The data from NT1 showed a view of a school as a setting conducive for a supportive culture of collaboration where teachers worked together with their colleagues to develop their school. Similarly, P also confirmed the need for collaboration amongst the teachers in the school when he referred to the changes that collaboration brought in the school:

The reason why I say yes is that looking to the time I have been here, the assistance I have been getting from my colleagues, the school is moving forward. If may be all the tasks and responsibilities could have been rested on my shoulders, I do not think the school could have been at the level where it is today. It is thanks to the leadership roles that my colleagues are playing that as a school we are where we are today (I, p. 5, 21 July 2011).

The data from P corresponded with the data from NT1, VT1 and VT2 that a supportive culture of collaboration was needed in the case study school due to the various reasons that they mentioned.

To the question on whether teachers in the case study school collaborated with one another, participants indicated that they collaborated with one another in the school to improve their teaching and learning. NT2 had this to say in this regard: “for instance helping each other when it comes to other things I do not know, for instance if I do not know a

certain topic, so I ask from someone whom I think he or she knows and the person will help me” (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). Similarly, VT2 explained “if let say now I was teaching multiplication and that is for two days and learners do not understand, I can ask my colleagues to help me, may be to give me another method” (I, p. 5, 24 August 2011). NT1 echoed the similar sentiment when he said “like in our science department, there are times whereby a colleague is struggling like in mathematics ... so I have to help that person, whereby I got stuck also, I have to consult people in my department and then they help” (I, p. 5, 24 August 2011). The need for teachers to work together in order to help in improving one another’s teaching was also a view held by VT2 who collaborated with his colleagues in brief meetings which the school conducted every Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday. He had this to say:

There if I prepared my lessons and I come across something that I do not understand I can approach teacher X so that he can explain it for me. Also sometimes during study times I go to teacher X where I need a help and that X can help me during study or briefing because if I go there during the lesson, the teacher will not have enough time to help me (I5, p. 7, 01 September 2011).

The excerpt from VT2 suggest a view that teachers collaborated with one another to improve their instructional knowledge but their time their time for collaboration was limited by insufficient time that teachers have in the school. Collaboration amongst the teachers was also noted in my observation of 05 July 2011 where “the subject head for Oshikwanyama first language was seen rendering assistance to NT2 in the staff room during the break time” (O2, p. 2).

The information derived from my observation notes of 29 June 2011 – 21 July 2011, showed that “teachers spent most of their time at school in teaching and learning in other words, at their classes teaching, planning and preparing lessons, instructing and assessing the learners, supervising study and other roles” (O5, p. 5). This suggested the need for supportive structures where teachers will have adequate time to collaborate with their colleagues in the school. It was also recorded during the department meeting for mathematics and science that “teachers share ideas with their colleagues on how they managed to achieve high rate percentage of the learners in their subjects” (O5, p. 4, 19 July 2011).

Apart from sharing instructional knowledge, the data also showed that teachers took over their colleagues' responsibilities when they were absent, as NT2 asserted: "if may be one is not present and the other one is free, at least one could go and teach at the other one's class for a mean time" (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). This was also confirmed by NT1 when he said "there are times like you are absent for example, and you have to hand-in your attendance register, you have to tell somebody to take over so that he or she hand it-in, that is one part of working together" (I, p. 5, 24 August 2011). The data across the sets indicated that it was necessary for teachers in the school to work with one another in order to develop and improve their subject knowledge, teaching methods and gain further assistance. It also showed that there was a culture of collaboration in the school.

In the next section, I present the data on the role of the principal in enabling teacher leadership in the case study school.

4.5 THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN ENABLING TEACHER LEADERSHIP

The participants showed a common understanding that the person responsible for encouraging teachers to take leadership roles in the school was the school principal. The data indicated that all participants were of the opinion that management supported teacher leadership in the school. NT1 indicated that the principal allowed and encouraged teachers to take leadership roles in the school. He expressed this as follows: "he tells us that you cannot just wait for me to push you and go do your work, you have to do it yourself although I am not around, and you have to be a leader on your own" (I, p. 3, 24 August 2011). The data from NT1 resonated with the data from my observation notes of 06 July 2011 where P was observed urging the teachers to "be serious with your job and be leaders on your own, do not just wait for HODs or the principal to guide you in everything" (O2, p. 2). NT2 was of the view that the principal encouraged and empowered the teachers to take leadership roles in the school when he appointed people to serve in specific positions. She had these to say:

Ya, for example, now he really don't ask people to come and serve but he only appoint that you it's a must that you serve in this specific position and then in that

way I think he is allowing and encouraging people so that you can gain at least something out of it (I, p. 3, 24 August 2011).

VT2 described how the principal encouraged them to participate in the leadership of the school by motivating them to work very hard. He affirmed this when he was recorded saying:

He use to motivate us by telling us that ok, you cannot believe now but tomorrow, I will find you becoming principals and you will experience the situation where I am now, where you are saying no. He likes to tell us to work very hard like him, saying you must do a lot of work like the principal. And he tells us also to learn how to work very hard because tomorrow is our turn to become principals or get any high ranking positions therefore now we have to work under pressure (I, p. 5, 01 September 2011).

The excerpt indicated that the formal management attitude supported teacher leadership in the school. The participants confirmed that the principal encouraged, motivated and empowered the teachers to take up leadership roles in the school. The comments provided by the principal towards his fellow-principals indicated that he supported the practice of leadership roles by teachers in the school. He commented that:

I would like to encourage my fellow principals in our country that they should allow the teachers ... more say in the running of the schools. They should listen to teachers, give them time to participate in the leadership and running of the schools and then the schools are going to improve (I, p. 15, 21 July 2011).

P also indicated that his work is to “assist newly appointed teachers with teaching and learning and guide them how to use the syllabus ... and to help them to move at a level that is accepted” (I, p. 9, 21 July 2011). This was also an indicator that the principal supported teacher leadership in the school.

The next section presents the challenges inherent within the practice of teacher leadership in the case study school.

4.6 CHALLENGES INHERENT WITHIN THE PRACTICE OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN THE SCHOOL

The findings indicated a number of challenges that hampered the successful practice of teacher leadership in the case study school, namely a lack of commitment and cooperation

amongst the staff, limited time, features of traditional leadership structures as well as a lack of leadership development in the school. The challenges are presented in their respective order:

4.6.1 Lack of commitment and cooperation amongst the staff

One of the aims of teacher leadership is to develop human potential in such a way that when teachers collaborate with one another (Harris & Muijs, 2007) in the school, they grow personally and professionally which can enable them to become principals, inspectors or directors of education or just remain effective teachers in the profession. However the data indicated that this was not the case with some of the teachers in the case study school. According to NT1, VT1 and VT2, there were some members of staff who resisted the influence of others as well as those who made it difficult for their colleagues to take on leadership roles through discouragement and criticism. For instance, NT1 had this to say:

Let me say the principal called NT1, I will be a way ... You do this and that, may be the other colleagues are not informed well that you are going to take over there, so when you go to the colleagues and tell them that colleagues, apparently we should do this but not that. They will say oh! Why? Who are you? What does he think he is? I will not do that and so on. It just ends up not agreeing. It is really a problem. (I3, p. 8, 24 August 2011)

In line with NT1, VT1 echoed a similar sentiment when she said:

There are those teachers that whenever you are given or implementing what is needed, they use to say, that one she thinks she is up to date? And there are those ones whenever they hear that you are now in the disciplinary committee, anything that go wrong in their classes they just refer the child to you without doing anything. (I, p. 8, 24 August 2011)

This implied that there were also teachers who resisted the influence of their colleagues as well as those that did not regard themselves as teacher leaders in a way that, instead of disciplining the learners in their classes themselves, they referred the learners to their colleagues. This suggested a lack of self-motivation towards leadership amongst some staff members in the school.

Similar to NT1 and VT1, VT2 argued that “some people do not like to be told to do something A, B, C, D and others. That is a challenge; you are telling someone that can you

do these activities while I am doing these activities, the person could say no". (I, p. 11, 01 September 2011). This was also an example of teachers resisting influence from their colleagues who were appointed as teacher leaders in certain areas.

Besides resistance, criticism and discouragement amongst the staff, the findings also revealed that there were some members of staff who did not like to cooperate with one another in the school. As VT1 explained, "there are those ones that do not like to cooperate with one another, those ones if you say let us do this they will say I will not do it and then you cannot force the person" (I, p. 8, 24 August 2011). She further explained that:

Sometimes you tell the teachers there are these learners who did not may be cut out their hairs, these ones should go back to cut their hairs. They just let those children get into the class the next day even though they were told. And there are those ones when the principal say all the learners need to tuck-in their shirts, there are those that are letting kids to enter their classes without tucking-in their shirts or dress properly. (I, p. 8, 24 August 2011)

The data showed that a lack of cooperation and ignorance prevailed amongst some members of the staff in the case study school, though cooperation through roles and relationships was suggested in the literature as one of the most prominent conditions that can encourage and promote teacher leadership in the school.

The next sub-theme presents the findings on the limited time for leadership in the school.

4.6.2 Limited time

Some of the participants indicated insufficient time as a challenge inhibiting the successful implementation of teacher leadership in the school. In this regard, VT2 was of the view that "there are also some again, sometimes may be the time will not allow it. The time will not allow you to go there and there due to other commitments or other responsibilities" (I, p. 11, 01 September 2011). P also confirmed that time was a challenge when he explained that "time is also a challenge especially for the teachers who I have assigned to serve as heads of departments, sometimes time to do other tasks is not there" (I, p. 13, 21 July 2011). According to my observation notes of 29 June 2011 – 21 July 2011:

Time is a serious challenge that faces teachers in the school especially in the briefing meetings and in the afternoon. Teachers do not participate in the 30 minute morning briefings due to the limited time as well as by lack of punctuality for some few teachers and this prevented them from contributing to the development of the school. Time is also a challenge in the afternoon where teachers have to prepare lessons for the next day, mark learners' exercise and homework books and sometimes supervise the study or attend afternoon meetings (O2, p. 1).

Participants' responses and observation notes revealed that teachers did not manage to finish all their activities during the school day and, as a result, they left to return home with their pending work, such as marking learners' books and lesson preparations. This indicated that the school did not have some of the structures such as the adequate provision of time for teachers to collaborate and learn from another.

In the next sub-theme, I present the features of traditional leadership structures in the case study school as one of the challenges of teacher leadership as identified by the participants in my study.

4.6.3 Features of traditional leadership structures in meetings

Data indicated that the features of non-participatory or non-democratic structures and domination amongst those in formal management positions were prevalent in the school. The principal and HODs played a major role (more so than teachers) during briefing meetings, for example "P and HOD for social sciences read through the circulars to the staff and HOD for social sciences shares the news with the staff from the news media (The Namibian of 04 July 2001) about the educational conference which was held in Windhoek from the 24 June 2011 to 01 July 2011, no participation from teachers" (O2, p. 4, 05 July 2011). My observation notes of 07 July 2011 suggested that P regarded briefing meetings as his opportunity and HODs alone to address the staff, for instance, "P read through some circulars to the staff and informed the staff that as from eight o'clock to two o'clock, the school will conduct interviews for a Life Skills' post. No contribution from teachers" (O2, p. 2). Domination of P during the briefing meetings was also observed on the 26 July 2011:

P read through some notes that he took from the Minister of Education speech which was addressed from the educational conference held in Windhoek some

weeks ago. HOD for mathematics and science briefed the staff on bush allowance. No participation from the teachers (O2, p. 3).

The data from O2 indicated that P chaired most of the morning briefings and he also addressed most of the items on the agenda and sometimes he was assisted by HODs. This served an indication that P and HODs dominated teachers in brief meetings in the school.

According to the minutes of previous department meetings reviewed on the 28 June 2011, "P served as the chairperson and the secretary of the department meeting for social science, languages, commerce and lower primary which was held on the 27 January 2010" (D4, p. 2). The minutes of the previous management meetings held on the 03 June 2010, 20 January 2011 and 06 June 2011 showed that P "chaired and presented most of the items in the agendas of the meetings" (D4, pp, 2-3, 28 June 2011). It was also evident in the previous minutes of staff meetings held on the 21 September 2010, 26 October 2010 and on the 22 June 2011 that P also "served as the chairperson and presented most of the items in the agendas of the meetings" (D4, p. 2, 28 June 2011). The data from D4 corresponded with the data from O2, p. 1, 21 July 2011 where "P was observed as the chairperson and addressed most of the items in the agenda of the meetings".

The data from D4 and O5 showed that P dominated the teachers in the meetings and this indicated some features of a traditional school hierarchy. Other features of a traditional hierarchy were evident in the document entitled, *line of authority and communication* in the case study school reviewed on 28 June 2011: "the line of authority and communication in the case study school started with the principal on top of the hierarchy, followed by HODs, subject heads and then teachers" (D5, p. 1).

The data across the data sets demonstrated that the participation of teachers in meetings was very limited compared to the participation of P and HODs. The principal did not encouraged to participate in meetings and teachers themselves lacked self-motivation and willingness to take the lead. This indicated the signs of non-participation of staff members and domination of the principal and HODs in the meetings and the sign of the traditional hierarchical leadership structures.

The next sub-theme presents the findings on leadership development amongst the staff in the case study school.

4.6.4 Lack of leadership development

To the question on whether the participants received some training or workshops on leadership skills, the participants responded that they did not receive nor had they undergone any workshops on leadership development. They indicated that leadership was not part of their training programme at the teacher training college where they did their initial training. Here follows their responses to the question:

NT1 – No, I did not; I am yet to go there if a chance comes. NT2 – No I did not.

VT1 – No

VT2 – No I never undergone.

This might be one of the reasons why the participants in my study had little understanding of teacher leadership. In this regard, the data showed a contradiction between the responses from the teacher participants and the response from the principal. While all teachers indicated that they never received or had undergone any training or workshop on leadership development, the principal claimed that he and his HODs provided training to teachers on leadership development through the staff development programme in the school. He was recorded saying:

I identify areas with the help of my HODs we identify leadership areas where we feel teachers seem not knowledgeable in this. Now once we have what we identified then we call up what we call a staff development meeting. We teach and brief the teachers on specific leadership issues (I1, p. 8, 21 July 2011).

The excerpt suggested that P and HODs provided teachers with some skills on leadership however, teachers were not aware of this. The data indicated that one of the two parties was not honest in providing the answer to this question. However, the data from the four teacher participants concurred indicating a real need for training and workshops to equip them with leadership skills for them to be able to exercise the leadership roles properly in or outside the school. Participants expressed the need for training or workshops for teachers on leadership skills in such a way that not all of them knew what leadership was and what it entailed.

NT1 was of the view that there was a lack of understanding and training in leadership skills amongst the staff which contributed to the lack of take-up of teacher leadership in the school. He confirmed that “it is somehow, it is something complicated when you are not aware of leadership skills and norms. Normally like at our level, you cannot exercise anything in leadership to the maximum because we are not aware; we never underwent any training, so it is very difficult” (I3, p. 8, 24 August 2011). NT1 also showed that teachers found it difficult to exercise their leadership roles well in the school because they did not have skills of leadership, therefore he pointed out that leadership:

It is necessary because if you do not know the norms and other skills of leadership as a teacher, when you are at the school you are a leader on your own. Obviously when you go home you are a leader, when you go abroad or where, people may ask, are you a teacher? Can you give us some advice on this? But if you never undergone that, so sometimes it may be difficult for you, so we need to go through that process obviously. (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011).

The data from NT1 showed that there was a need for teachers in the case study school to undergo some training and workshops on leadership skills. In this instance also VT2 asserted that:

You know the training never ends in life because of the changes that we are experiencing every day. Today we do things in that way; tomorrow we will do it in the other way ... Therefore now the ordinary teachers need to get information, new skills and knowledge every day. (I, p. 6, 01 September 2011)

VT2 understood training as an ongoing process so teachers needed training to be updated with leadership skills because of the everyday changes they experienced in life. NT2 confirmed that teachers needed to receive leadership training “because not every one of us knows what a leadership is or what it entails so at least if we are trained then everyone will know what is expected of him or her in being a leader to possess those qualities of being a leader”. (I, p. 4, 24 August 2011). In this regard, VT1 also confirmed the need for teachers to undergo thorough leadership training in the sense that “it is because now the skills that the ordinary teachers are having or exercising at school are only the inborn one. If they get training at least they are going to add to what they have so that they can now in future be good leaders”. (I, p. 5, 24 August 2011).

NT1 expressed that “the only most important strategy is to provide leadership training to each and every individual teacher to be managers on their own, when somebody is well

trained, they know in which way to do or to follow and what not to do” (I, p. 8, 24 August 2011). He also described the leadership roles they exercised in the school as follows: “we are just trying the errors that I am a manager, I am a leader on my own but we are not really exercising it properly” (I3, p. 9, 24 August 2011). NT1 suggested the Ministry of education was responsible for providing leadership training for teachers. He suggested that training would enable teachers to exercise their leadership roles in the schools properly.

The next section concludes the chapter.

4.8 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the data have been presented. It transpired that participants had little understanding of the concept of teacher leadership. They did not really understand what teacher leadership is and what it entails. The findings also showed that participants had a common understanding, experience and practice of teacher leadership, irrespective of their teaching experience. They all understood and experienced teacher leadership in terms of power positions or headship where they regarded the management roles as the leadership roles for teachers in the school. The data indicated a view of teacher leadership which was more restricted to the “classroom situation (Zone 1)” and in the “curricular and extra-curricular activities (Zone 2)” and little in the “whole school development (Zone 3)” and “between neighbouring schools in the community (Zone 4)” (Grant, 2008, p. 93) or at the circuit and the regional level.

It emerged from the data that the participants experienced a number of challenges inherent in the practice of teacher leadership in the school. For instance, lack of commitment and cooperation amongst the staff, limited time, features of traditional leadership structures and lack of leadership development in the school were all perceived as barriers.

It also emerged from the data that the participants understood the need for a supportive culture and structures for teacher leadership in the school. Examples included the need for teachers to exercise leadership roles in the school, the enactment of teachers as decision-makers and leaders in the case study school as well as the need for collaboration. The data also indicated that the formal leadership attitude supported the practice of teacher

leadership in the school but there was scope for improvement in areas like participation of teachers in meetings and in the school-wide decision-making process.

In the next chapter, I discuss the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This study focused on teachers' leadership roles at a public rural school in the Ohangwena region of Namibia. The purpose of the study was to explore teachers' experiences of their leadership roles, and specifically to find out the challenges inherent within the practice of teacher leadership. The following questions guided the study:

- What leadership roles do teachers currently exercise at the school?
- What are the teachers' experiences of their leadership roles at the school? What are the challenges?
- What is formal leadership's attitude to teacher leadership?
- To what extent do stakeholders understand the need for a supportive culture and structure for teacher leadership?

In Chapter Four I presented the data that emerged from document analysis, semi-structured interviews and observations. In this chapter, I discuss the data together with the relevant literature and my research goal and questions. From the data presented in Chapter Four, eight key threads were uncovered and require my attention and these form the themes of this chapter. These include the enactment of teacher leadership in zones, the role of the principal in enabling teacher leadership in the case study school, collaboration amongst the principal and teachers in the case study school, the importance of involving teachers in the whole school leadership. The other key threads are teacher leadership and decision-making, resistance of teachers to leadership, limited time for teachers and lack of leadership development amongst the principal and teachers in the case study school and then conclusion. The themes are discussed as they appear in their respective order.

5.2 THE ENACTMENT OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN ZONES

In this section, I discuss the findings according to Grant's (2008) model of teacher leadership in the context of South Africa, which was introduced in Section 2.5.1.3 of this thesis. To remind the reader, Grant's (2008) model was also used to analyze my data and it assisted with the organisation of my data in Chapter Four.

In addition, I found the model a suitable and useful as conceptual tool to describe and interpret the nature of teacher leadership in the case study school. I also used Spillane's (2006) model of leadership practice from a distributed perspective, as a further theoretical frame to describe and explain the nature of teacher leadership in terms of practice, joint interactions of school leaders, followers and aspects of their situations in the case study school. Spillane's (2006) model is discussed in detail in Section 2.4.1 of this thesis. Apart from Grant's and Spillane's models, I also adopted Gunter's (2005) three characterizations of distributed leadership to signal the distribution of leadership in the case study school namely, authorized, dispersed and democratic. Gunter's (2005) characterizations of distributed leadership are discussed in Section 2.4.2 of this thesis. I also used other literature which is also relevant to the data in this section.

This section on the enactment of teacher leadership in the case study school is divided into four sub-sections in relation to Grant's (2008, p. 93) four zones within which teachers in my case study school were leading. The sections are discussed as they appear in their chronological order.

5.2.1 Zone One: Teachers leading in the classroom situation

According to Grant's (2008, p. 93) model, teachers often exert one primary role, "Role One". This is a zone which is about a teacher "continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching". This resonated well with the findings of my study. For instance, the participants understood the concept of teacher leadership in relation to a hierarchical view of leadership which was limited to the classroom situation where teachers led primarily within their classes and not at the level of the whole school. Participants also experienced more roles for teachers inside the classroom namely, teaching, supervising study, motivating, directing,

guiding, influencing the learners and so forth in their classes. The participants also expressed the view that teachers were registered class teachers which suggested a view of teachers as “designated leaders” in their classrooms. This is in line with the research of Grant (2006, p. 112) who explains that “in the classroom situation teachers are designated leaders. They set goals, implement procedures, instruct, guide, facilitate, mobilize learners, motivate and inspire learners and model behaviours”. The roles for teachers in this zone were mostly the formal roles because teachers exercised their designated responsibilities in the school. A view of teacher leadership in the classroom situation where the teachers are involved with the facilitation of the day-to-day instructional activities such as teaching and other roles is widely evidence in the literature (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Grant, 2008; Nene, 2010; Xulu, 2010; Gumede, 2011; Hashikutuva, 2011). With regard to the view of teacher leadership in the classroom, I agree with Grant (2008, p. 101) when she alleges that “leadership is fundamentally linked to issues of teaching and learning”. Thus, it can be seen from the literature that the leadership roles for teachers in schools started firstly in the classroom, and then moved beyond.

In relation to Spillane’s (2006, pp. 2-4) model of leadership practice from a distributed perspective, the principal was a “leader” in the case study school “situation” where he led and “interacted” with teachers as “followers”. Teachers served as “leaders” in their classrooms “situations” where they were involved in the “interactions” with their learners as “followers” throughout the process of teaching and learning. In this regard, according to Spillane’s (2006) model, the interaction between the principal, teachers and learners towards the accomplishment of teaching and learning processes in the case study school was important. The interaction between the principal, teachers and learners was important because the purpose of coming to school was to improve these teaching processes in order to achieve good performance.

With regard to Gunter’s (2005, pp. 51-57) three characterizations of distributed leadership, I characterized the nature of teacher leadership in the classroom as authorized. Teacher leadership in the classroom was authorized in the sense that teachers were authorized to serve as registered class teachers for their respective classes in the school, such as grade 8A and so on. In this zone, teachers in the case study school exercised the roles which were in line with the roles for teachers in the classroom situation (namely, teaching, planning and

presenting lessons, classroom management, evaluation and assessment and other roles) as stipulated in the school policy and the Ministry of Education policy (Namibia. Ministry of Education [MoE], 2009).

In summary, the nature of leadership in the classroom situation, in the context of my study, can be described as authorized (Gunter, 2005, pp. 51-57) where the teachers as leaders interacted with learners as followers in various instructional activities (Spillane, 2006, p. 3). Some learners in the classroom situation would be leaders for other learners as class monitors or class-captains and group leaders in group activities (Spillane, 2006). In the next sub-section, I discuss the nature of teacher leadership in Zone Two (Grant, 2008, p. 93).

5.2.2 Zone Two: Teachers working as leaders outside the classroom with other teachers and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities

In this zone, according to Grant's (2008, p. 93) model, teachers often exercise three leadership roles, namely "providing curriculum development knowledge (Role Two), leading in-service education and assisting other teachers (Role Three) and participating in performance evaluation of teachers (Role Four).

In relation to this role, my data indicated that teachers in the case study school were mainly involved in formal and informal roles in relation to Role Two. They were moderately involved in Role Three and minimally involved in Role Four.

The data indicated that in relation to Role Two, teachers interacted with their colleagues and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities. For instance, some teachers spearheaded the educational tours in the school. They planned, arranged and organized all the activities for educational tours such to set objectives for tours, identify places to be visited and so forth together with their colleagues and the learners in the school. In this situation according to Gunter's (2005) characterizations and Spillane's (2006) model, the education tour leaders (leaders) worked with their colleagues (leaders) and learners (followers) in the arrangements for educational tour activities in the school.

Teacher leaders also served as sport advisors with their colleagues where they coached and advised the learners in sport activities such netball and soccer. They implemented sport

codes, recommended sport days, initiated sport competitions with other schools and so on. They also took learners to sport tournaments. In these instances, teacher leaders were delegated by the principal (leader of leaders) in the case study school to facilitate learning in the sport activities (Gunter, 2005; Spillane, 2006). Some learners would also be leaders of other learners in this situation for example, team coaches, captains, advisors and etcetera (Spillane, 2006). Teacher leadership in sport activities in schools is widely recognized and evidenced in the South African literature to date (See for example Xulu, 2010; Gumede, 2011; Hashikutuwa, 2011).

It appeared that teachers in this school were involved in initiatives that concerned their lives as well as the lives of their learners, and parents in the community. For example, teachers facilitated the “Window of hope” and HIV and AIDS programmes in the school where they counselled the learners on how to cope if somebody in their families passed away. Teachers’ involvement in the counselling of the learners in schools was suggested by the research findings of Xulu (2010) where teacher provided counselling to learners who experienced difficulties. Teachers also educated and mobilized the learners, colleagues and parents to be aware of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. Teachers’ involvement in HIV and AIDS initiative programmes was also found in the case studies of teacher leadership conducted in South Africa by Xulu (2010) and Gumede (2011) which suggests that teacher leaders’ involvement in HIV and AIDS awareness programmes is a phenomenon on the African continent. Teachers were also involved in identifying and registering the orphans and the vulnerable children (OVCs) in the school and initiated the programmes that could assist the OVCs. It was clearly evidenced in the data that teacher leaders who facilitated HIV and AIDS awareness programmes were also delegated by the principal as a head teacher in the case study school (Gunter, 2005).

It was clear that all teacher leaders in the case study school served as mentors or fostering parents for two to three grade ten learners each where they encouraged and motivated the learners to study hard and also provided them with stationery like pens rulers and other stationery. The issue of teachers served as fostering parents for learners aligns with the research findings of the IEL (2008, P. 9) which indicated that teachers “informally ‘adopted’ three to four students and are responsible for their academic and professional development”. The data suggested that the motive behind the mentorship programme for

grade ten learners in the case study school was to improve learners' performance which, in my view, supported the idea that the ultimate goal of teacher leadership was to improve learning (IEL, 2008).

The nature of leadership in Role Two was an authorized form of distributed leadership because teacher leaders were assigned by the principal as a leader in the case study school to serve in various activities in the school (Grant, 2008, p. 93; Gunter, 2005; Spillane, 2006).

In addition to Role Two, teachers in the case study school exercised some roles in relation to Role Three. These roles were, for example, when veteran teachers, HODs and the principal worked as mentors to novice teachers. They helped novice teachers with planning for lessons, how to present certain topics, how to use the syllabus, how to find suitable teaching aids etcetera. In this case, the veteran teachers, HODs and the principal served as (leaders) to novice teachers (followers) in the mentoring activities (situation). Mentoring for novice teachers by veteran teachers and the school management team has been documented in the literature, as Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 109) assert: "middle-level leaders work as mentors of new staff to help them develop their subject leadership roles". Mentoring for novice teachers is also evidenced in the recent study of teacher leadership by Gumede (2011). It appeared in her study that there were teachers who were delegated by the principal to provide induction to novice teachers and there were also teachers who volunteered to provide assistance to other teachers without being assigned by the principal. The issue that some teachers volunteered to provide assistance to other teachers in the school, suggested a view which Harris and Muijs (2005, pp. 108-113) referred to as emergent teacher leadership – an example of dispersed distributed leadership (Gunter, 2005; Grant, 2010).

Most of the roles exercised by teachers in Zone Two, corresponded well with the roles for teachers which are stipulated in the school policy and the ministerial policy (Namibia. MoE, 2009). The roles which are stipulated in this policy are, for example, teachers' participation in the extra-mural programmes such as to promote excellent teaching standards and extra-curricular involvement, managing of resources such as involving the parents in education, and supplies of equipment in the school.

In summary, the data pointed out that teacher leadership existed in Zone Two in relation to Roles Two and Three. There was no evidence of teachers participation in the “performance evaluation of teachers” (Grant, 2008, p. 93) in the case study school. It appeared from the data teachers were delegated to serve in most of the activities in the entire second zone. In the next sub-section, I discuss the teachers’ roles in Zone Three.

5.2.3 Zone Three: Teachers leading outside the classroom in the whole school development

This is the area where teachers are involved in “organizing and leading peer reviews of school practice (Role Five) and participating in school level decision-making (Role Six) (Grant, 2008, p. 93). According to my data, teachers in the case study school exercised more roles in relation to role five than to role six in this zone.

The findings indicated that in Zone Three, the ordinary teachers served in the vacant positions of HODs where they led and interacted with other teachers in different situations within the departments. It emerged that two of the ordinary teachers in the case study school served as ‘HODs’. One of these two teachers assisted as HOD for the Lower Primary Phase department and the other teacher assisted as HOD for the Commerce department. These teachers were responsible for identifying the areas that needed improvement within the department then they called other teachers for meetings to discuss issues for improvement. The heads of departments were also responsible for chairing the department meetings. Besides chaired the meetings, the heads of departments also conducted classroom observations of their colleagues in the department, following which they provided them with feedback on areas that needed improvement. In the instance of teachers served as department heads, it was clear that teachers were authorized by the principal as a leader in the school to lead their colleagues in different situations within the departments (Gunter, 2005; Spillane, 2006).

The data offered a picture of a range of different committees in the school, namely, disciplinary, admission, school management team and other committees. Within these committees, some teachers served as chairpersons and other teachers served as members. The committees’ chairpersons were responsible to call other committee members for

meetings and then they chaired the meetings. Each committee's chairperson and the committee members were responsible for identifying weaknesses within the committee, discussing the weaknesses and deciding upon possible solutions for improvement.

A view of teachers working in committees to improve the instructional activities in a variety of areas is referred to in the literature as leadership teams (Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 101; IEL, 2008, P. 6). The distribution of leadership where teachers served as the chairpersons of committees in the school is also found in the research of Gumede (2011).

Among the three study supervision group leaders, one teacher served as a group leader for one group and the other two groups were led by HODs each. It clearly emerged in the data that all teachers in the case study school led in situations such as the morning devotions and assemblies at the level of the whole school (zone three).

It was clearly evidenced in the data that some of the teachers were involved in school-wide decision-making processes (Role Six). However, not all the teachers in the school had access to participation in the decision-making processes but only the teachers who were authorized to serve as members of the school board and the school management team. Teachers' involvement in school-wide decision-making processes (Role Six) in the case study school suggested a view of restricted teacher leadership where the involvement of all the teachers in the decision-making processes was limited.

To summarize, the data suggested that teacher leadership existed in Zone Three in the case study school because teachers as leaders led others in the departments and committees where they interacted and worked together with their colleagues towards school development and improvement. The presence of teachers serving as HODs, committees' chairpersons and members indicated that leadership in the case study school was distributed amongst the teachers through an authorized form of distributed leadership. Data indicated that some teachers (as leaders) represented others (the followers) in the decision-making processes (interactions). However, there was space for the inclusion of more teachers in school wide decision-making processes in order to be more in line with the *Ministry of Education policy and Education Act no. 16 of 2001* in Namibia (Namibia. MBEC, 1993; *Education Act, amendment no.15 of section 64 of 2004*). In the next section, I discuss the data on teacher leadership in Zone Four (Grant, 2008, p. 93).

5.2.4 Zone Four: Teachers leading between neighbouring schools and into the community

In this zone, teachers exercise “Role Two and Role Three as in Zone Two” (Grant, 2008, p. 93). However, the roles in Zone Four have to do with the link between teachers and the neighbouring schools in the community (Grant, 2008, p. 93) and the involvement for teachers at the circuit and regional level.

The data evidenced little involvement of teachers in this zone. The little or non- involvement of teachers in Zone Four was also suggested by research studies of teacher leadership in South Africa conducted by Nene (2010), Xulu (2010) and Gumede (2011). The recent study of teacher leadership conducted in Namibia by Hashikutuwa (2011) also found little involvement of teachers in Zone Four in two of her three case study schools. In my study, the data showed that a few teachers were nominated to lead others as NANTU (trade union) and sport representatives in the case study school where they represented the school at the circuit and regional levels. Data revealed that within the case study school, only one of the teachers served as a sport representative at the circuit and regional level and there was also only one teacher who served as NANTU representative of the circuit at the regional level. My findings that only two teachers in the entire case study school participated in Zone Four aligned with Gumede’s (2011) findings where only two teachers in her research school were involved in the leadership activities in Zone Four. The data revealed that the sport and NANTU representatives interacted with their colleagues by conducting meetings to provide them with the feedback from meetings.

To summarize, the data indicated that teachers exerted teacher leadership in this zone where they were nominated by others or by the principal to work with other teachers either at school, circuit or regional levels. In the next section, I discuss role of the principal in enabling teacher leadership in the case study school.

5.3 THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN ENABLING TEACHER LEADERSHIP

This section discusses the findings about the role of the principal in enabling teacher leadership in the case study school.

It is discussed in Sub-section 2.5.3.1 of this thesis that school principals play a major role in enhancing or hindering the conditions that promote teacher leadership in the school (Greenlee, 2004; Danielson, 2007; IEL, 2008). My data aligned well with the literature in this regard in the sense that my teacher participants believed that the person responsible for cultivating and fostering the conditions that support teacher leadership in the school was the school principal.

As presented in Section 4.5, data indicated that the principal of the case study school supported and enhanced the culture and structures for teacher leadership in the school by allowing, motivating and encouraging teachers to take the lead in the school. While it appeared that the principal supported and promoted teacher leadership in the case study school, the way it was practised suggested a view where leadership roles for teachers in the school was limited. For instance, as discussed in Section 5.2, it was clear that teachers in the case study school were largely confined to the leadership inside the classroom situation and outside in the curricular and extra-curricular activities. Little teacher leadership occurred in the zone of the school.

Therefore, the view of the participants that teacher leadership was supported by the principal in the case study school suggested the participants lacked an understanding of the possibilities and expansive nature of teacher leadership. Their understanding suggested a view where teacher leadership was understood only in terms of leadership inside the classroom and outside in the curricular and extra-curricular activities which corresponded with the way it was practised in the school. In the next sub-section, I discuss collaboration amongst the teachers as one of the factors that supported teacher leadership in the case study school.

5.4 COLLABORATION AMONGST TEACHERS IN THE CASE STUDY SCHOOL

In this section, I discuss the findings about what participants thought was the importance of collaboration in the school as well as how teachers in the case study school collaborated with one another. I begin with the importance of collaborative culture in the school and then move on to the ways teachers in the case study school collaborated with one another.

The data revealed the importance of a collaborative culture amongst the teachers in the case study school as a supportive school culture for teacher leadership. A collaborative culture is suggested in the literature as the best way to employ and facilitate teacher leadership in the school (HKIER, 2006; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; IEL, 2008; Kelley, 2011). Collaboration as a way to promote teacher leadership in the school is referred to by HKIER (2006, p. 8) as “teachers’ requests for and offers of collegial advice and assistance, the elements of teacher leadership. Example in schools are team teaching, shared decision-making, action research, peer evaluations, mentoring, or common planning slots”.

The data indicated that teachers in the case study school understood that collaboration was an important role amongst teachers because, when teachers worked together with their colleagues, it increased their self-esteem and aroused their willingness to take the lead. Teachers believed that collaboration minimized the making of mistakes among the teachers in the school as they advised one another. Furthermore, collaboration enabled the teachers to share ideas, share subject knowledge and understanding, assist one another and share instructional expertise and so forth in order to improve their learners’ performance and develop the school.

Participants confirmed that they collaborated with one another in the school to improve teaching and learning. Participants expressed that teachers in the case study school assisted one another in different ways. For example, teachers help their colleagues where they experienced difficulties in presenting certain topics, helped one another on how to use different teaching methods. Teachers in this school also assisted one another in preparing for lessons, guided one another on how to use the syllabus properly in planning for lessons. The teachers whose learners performed well in the school, shared ideas with their colleagues on the strategies they employed in order to achieve high percentage rates of the learners in their subjects. The data also indicated that teachers in this school assisted one another in completing examination schedules for learners; helping their colleagues on how to complete learners’ assessment forms, how to arrange files and other related activities. Besides sharing the instructional expertise, teachers in the case study school assisted one another to take their colleagues responsibilities when they were absent such as to complete their learners’ attendance registers as well as to keep order amongst the learners in their classes.

Another indicator of collaboration amongst the teachers in the school was the culture of coming together for 30 minutes for half an hour in the mornings for briefings. In the briefings, the principal and HODs briefed the staff on current issues, such as circulars from the circuit and regional offices and other related educational matters. The staff also had a culture of coming together for morning assemblies and devotions. During the morning devotions and assemblies, the staff and learners sang different songs such as the national anthem and religious songs. A culture of collaboration where teachers came together for briefings and devotions/assemblies was also found in a recent study of Hashikutuva (2011) on teacher leadership in Namibia.

The data indicated that teachers in the case study school had a high self-esteem, eagerness and willingness towards working with one another in the case study school but they acknowledged that time was a barrier that blocked the successful collaboration amongst the teachers and this is discussed in more detail in Section 5.8 of this chapter. Apart from time, successful collaboration amongst the teachers in the case study school was also sometimes blocked by some teachers who resisted to work and cooperate with their colleagues; this is also discussed in Section 5.7 of this chapter.

The next section discusses the importance of involving teachers in whole school leadership.

5. 5 THE IMPORTANCE OF INVOLVING TEACHERS IN WHOLE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

In this section, I discuss the findings about the importance of involving teacher the leadership activities across the school. The findings are about the thoughts of the participants on why they think ordinary teachers needed to be involved in the whole school leadership.

Data revealed that teachers in the case study school shared a common belief that it was needed to involve teachers in school-wide leadership in order to develop their leadership potential. Teachers understood it was important to allow the ordinary teachers to exercise leadership roles in the school because, when ordinary teachers were allowed to exercise leadership roles, it enabled them to guide the learners, both inside and outside the classes.

Teachers in the case study school believed that exposing teachers to leadership roles in the school was important because it might prepare teachers for formal management positions, such as for principal and HODs positions, later on in their careers.

The understanding of teachers that teacher leadership might prepare teachers for HODs or principals positions suggested a view of a missing teacher career ladder in the teaching profession. A missing teacher career ladder is when there are few career opportunities for teachers to move up in the teaching profession. In this regard, ECS (2010. P. 3) alleges that “if a teacher wants to “move up” in the profession, that teacher has had one clear opportunity for moving into the administration ranks”. In line with this thinking, the understanding of teachers in the case study school also suggested a lack of sufficient career options in Namibia for teachers who were inspired to enact further leadership roles in and outside the classrooms or even beyond the school, without acquiring the managerial positions of principal or HOD.

Though the teachers understood that it was important to involve teachers in school-wide leadership, the involvement of teachers in whole school leadership was limited because not all the teachers were involved in the leadership across the school. In the next sub-section I discuss the importance of school culture in involving teachers in the school-wide decision-making processes.

5.6 TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND DECISION-MAKING

The section discusses the findings of why it was important to involve all the ordinary teachers in school-wide decision making in the case study school. Besides the importance of teachers’ involvement in whole school leadership, the data further suggested the importance of the involvement of teachers in whole school decision-making processes in the case study school. Teachers in the case study school believed that it was important to involve teachers in school-wide decision-making processes because teachers formed a part of the school community. Teachers in the case study school had knowledge and experience of learners and other school development matters. The participants expressed the view that the school did not belong to the principal alone but to all the stakeholders in the school

community. Thus, teachers understood that when it came to the decision-making processes, it was important for all the stakeholders to be involved.

The teachers understanding that all people in the school community needed to be involved in the decision-making processes of the school, was in line with *Towards Education for All* policy (Namibia. MBEC, 1993) that expects a broad participation in the decision-making processes by all the people in the school. As discussed in Sub-section 5.2.3, not all the teachers in the case study school were involved in whole school decision-making in Zone Three but only the teachers who were authorized to serve as members of the school management team and the school board committee. It was clear that the teachers who participated and represented other teachers in the school-wide decision-making processes were very few. My findings about the lack of involvement of the majority of teachers in whole school decision-making concurs with Hashikutuva's (2011, p. 108) study where she alleged that, in one of her case schools, "School B had a lack of involvement in decision-making of all staff members".

The next section discusses the resistance for teachers to leadership in the case study school.

5.7 RESISTANCE OF TEACHERS TO LEADERSHIP

In this section, I discuss the data about resistance of some of the teachers to teacher leadership in the case study school. Since leadership is not imposed on people (Bush, 2010), I suggest it is also difficult to instill commitment in people towards taking leadership roles. In line with this thinking, the literature suggests that commitment towards leadership should first develop from within: as "teachers become leaders because they recognize the need" (IEL, 2008, p. 9). This quote from IEL suggests that teachers become committed to leadership roles if they themselves see the need for change. In a similar vein, with regard to commitment, HKIER (2006, p. 10) argues that "if teachers do not see the need to change, any school reform can have disastrous result on the organization's morale and productivity". Lack of commitment to taking on leadership roles was also a cause for concern in my study.

The data revealed that there were some of the teachers in the case study school who resisted taking on leadership roles because they did not regard themselves as leaders but

rather as followers. The data also suggested that there were some of the teachers who refused to cooperate with one another in the case study school and they did not accept the influence of their colleagues who were authorized to lead. The issue of teachers resisting the influence of their colleagues concurred with the research findings of Grant (2006) that instead of accepting the influence of their colleagues who were appointed as leaders in particular areas, some teachers resisted the influence. Teachers' resistance to take up the leadership roles as well as to accept leadership influences from their colleagues is suggested in the recent literature as a challenge to teacher leadership in schools, both internationally and locally (Gumede, 2011, p. 71; Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 94; Hashikutuwa, 2011, p. 89; Xulu, 2010, p. 77).

I agreed with Danielson (2007, p. 3) when she asserts that "it's not only the administrators who, stand in the way of teachers. Sometimes teachers ... make it difficult for their colleagues to do so". This aligned well with my data, that there were some of the teachers in the case study school who practiced what Duke (1994) in York-Barr and Duke (2004, p. 270) call a "Crab bucket culture" as they discouraged and criticized their colleagues who aspired to exercise their leadership roles in the school successfully. A "Crab bucket culture" is referred to by Duke (1994) in York-Barr and Duke (2004, p. 270) as a culture "wherein teachers drag each other down instead of supporting and inspiring one another". Lack of support from colleagues often resulted in feelings of discouragement and frustration among teachers (Zinn, 1997, p. 5). Thus, a lack of commitment and cooperation among teachers in the case study school was identified as a challenge that hampered the proper practice and implementation of teacher leadership in the case study school.

The data suggested that a lack of commitment and cooperation amongst the teachers in the case study school can be overcome by motivating and encouraging teachers to take the leadership roles. The article by Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 443) suggests that overcoming discouragement and conflict amongst teachers "require a combination of strong interpersonal skills on the part of teacher leader and a school culture that encourages change and leadership from teachers". In this regard, Muijs and Harris (2003) suggest a need for change in the school culture towards a culture of authentic collaboration which is supportive of teacher leadership.

This section discussed the resistance amongst teachers as a barrier to teacher leadership in the case study school. The next section discusses limited time as a barrier to teacher leadership.

5.8 LIMITED TIME FOR TEACHERS

As reported in Section 4.6.2 of this thesis, the data indicated that there were no supportive structures such as the provision of adequate time for teachers to exercise their leadership roles, especially the informal roles, and this hindered the proper practice of teacher leadership in the school. Teachers in the case study school spent much of their available time on instructional activities for instance teaching, marking and assessing learners' work, preparing for lessons and other instructional activities. It was evident that teachers in this school lacked sufficient time for collaboration with one another as well as to explore other leadership roles in the school and beyond thus, it served as a barrier to the emergence of teacher leadership. Instead, teachers mostly utilized break time to collaborate with their colleagues.

Time is suggested in the literature as a major barrier to teacher leadership in schools (Gumede, 2011, p. 80; Grant, 2008, p. 99; Muijs and Harris, 2003) as it 'prevent' teachers to work together with their colleagues and also to explore more leadership roles inside the school and beyond in the community.

Muijs and Harris (2003, p. 443) highlight that "time needs to be set aside for teachers to meet to plan and discuss issues such as curricular matters, developing school-wide plans, leading study groups, organizing visits to others, collaboration with HEIs, and collaborating with colleagues". This implies that provision for adequate time for teachers to collaborate with their colleagues might overcome the challenge experienced by the teachers in the case study school. The next section discusses lack of leadership development amongst the principal and teachers in the case study school.

5.9 LACK OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT AMONGST THE PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS IN THE CASE STUDY SCHOOL

This section discusses the lack of leadership development amongst the teachers as a barrier to teacher leadership in the case study school. It was difficult for teachers in the case study school to exercise their leadership roles properly due to a lack of leadership development. It appeared in the data that all participants did not receive any training or workshops on leadership skills. Lack of leadership skills by teachers and the principal prevented them from exercising their leadership roles in the school properly. The data indicated a view which is also suggested by the research of Danielson (2007) that a lack of knowledge amongst the principal and teachers might have resulted in the fact that the leadership skills required for teacher leadership was not part of their preparation programme at the teachers' training institutions. The lack of leadership development amongst teachers and the principal is also suggested in the literature as one of the factors that prevent the proper practice of teacher leadership in schools (Harris & Muijs, 20005; Danielson, 2007; Kapapero, 2007).

To overcome the difficulty of a lack of leadership skills in the case study school, the data suggested the Ministry of Education to provide training and workshops for teachers and principals on leadership skills in order to be able to exercise their leadership roles in the school properly.

5.10 CONCLUSION

This section concludes the chapter by summarising the discussion of the data. The enactment of teacher leadership in the case study school was viewed through Grant's (2008, p. 93) four zones or areas of leadership namely, Zone One, Zone Two, Zone Three and Zone Four. Across the zones, the involvement of teachers in leadership appeared to be stronger in the first two zones such as inside the classroom (Zone One) and outside the classroom in the curricular and extra-curricular activities. The involvement of teachers in leadership in the whole school development (Zone Three) was moderate in areas of "organizing and leading peer reviews of school practice" (Grant, 2008, p. 93) and weak in area of school level decision-making. The emergence of teacher leadership was weaker in areas such as "providing curriculum development knowledge and leading in-service education and

assisting other teachers” (Grant, 2008, p. 93). While teacher participants and the principal were of the view that teacher leadership was supported by the principal, it came out that the school lacked involvement of all the teachers in the whole school leadership and decision-making. The findings concurred with Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 115) that “it appears that teacher leadership is not particularly developed in this school, but interestingly this does not seem to be the result of a lack of support for the idea from the head”. Thus, it reflects that teacher leadership was supported across the case study school as a concept; however, the way to which it was enacted was limited (Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 116).

It appeared that most of the leadership responsibilities in these zones were authorized to the teachers by the principal. The nature of authorizing or delegating leadership responsibilities to teachers had some negative limitations because it leaves “teachers with little or no formal power on a comparative standing with administrators who hold considerable positional power” (Greenlee, 2004, p. 5). Because leadership in the zones was authorized and largely restricted to leadership in the classroom and in the second zone, it suggests room for the structures of “command and control” (Harris, 2003, p. 318) by the principal.

Teachers in this school understood the importance of collaboration amongst themselves and most of them were eager and willing to work together with their colleagues in the school, but their way to successful collaboration was impeded by a restricted knowledge of the potential of teacher leadership as well as limited time they had to lead in the school. Apart from time, there were other impediment factors which prevented the enactment of teacher leadership in the school, for example, there were some teachers who resisted taking up leadership roles as well as lack of leadership skills amongst the principal and teachers in the school.

Based on the findings and using Harris and Muijs’s (2005, pp. 100-120) three categories of teacher leadership, namely successful, emergent and restricted, the nature of teacher leadership in the case study school was ‘restricted’. This was due to the fact that there was little room for the enactment of leadership directly from the teachers and, where it appeared, it was authorized to teachers. Thus, teacher leadership was not fully emergent or successful (Harris & Muijs, 2005).

This chapter discussed how teacher leadership was enacted in the case study school where the main findings of the study emerged. In the next chapter, I summarise the main findings of the study and conclude the thesis.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes the main findings of the study. These are simply the main threads from Chapter Five. The chapter also discusses the potential value of the study. It presents the recommendations for both practice and future research. The chapter also presents the outline of the limitations of the study and concludes the thesis with a brief conclusion.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

This section summarises the main findings of the study based on my research goal, research questions and the data obtained from interviews, document analysis and observations. As per Grant's (2008, p. 93) model of teacher leadership in the context of South Africa, the study found that teachers in the case study school led within four areas or zones of leadership where they exerted six roles. The zones were for example, teachers working inside the classroom (Zone One), teachers working outside the classroom with their colleagues and learners in curricular and extra-curricular activities (Zone Two). Teachers working outside the classroom in the whole school development (Zone Three) as well as teachers' involvement in leadership between neighbouring schools in the community as well as teachers taking part in leadership activities at the circuit and regional levels.

Across the four zones, it was evident that the enactment of teacher leadership in the case study school was stronger in Zone One where teachers were involved in instructional activities such as "continuing to teach and improve one's own teaching" (Grant, 2008, p. 93). Teacher leadership was also strong in curricular and extra-curricular activities in the school, namely, coaching and advising learners in sport activities, mentoring other teachers and learners, assist one another on subject related matters and so forth.

The involvement of teachers in leadership in whole school development (Zone Three) was almost non-existent because not all teachers in the school enacted leadership in this zone.

School-wide decision-making in the case study school was the domain of the principal, HODs, and a few teachers who were members of the school board committee and the school management team committee. Zone Four appeared as the weakest area in the case study school with regard to the involvement of teachers in leadership. The study indicated relatively few examples of teacher leadership emerging from this zone in comparison with the other zones in the case study school. The study revealed that teachers' involvement in leadership between teachers in the case study school and other neighbouring schools in the community as well as at the circuit and regional levels was largely limited.

It emerged from the findings that the principal as a leader of leaders in the case study school supported and promoted teacher leadership in the school. However, the extent to which teacher leadership was practiced across the zones in the case study school contradicted the view that teacher leadership was supported by the principal's attitude. In this regard, the findings concurred with Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 116) where they suggest that teacher leadership was supported across the school as a concept but the degree to which it operated in practice was limited. It also suggests that teacher leadership was practiced according to the way it was understood by the principal and teachers in the case study school, and it was a limited understanding of the concept. Besides the support of teacher leadership by the principal, it also emerged that there were signs of collaboration amongst some of the teachers in the case study school.

It was evident that some of the teachers shared subject knowledge and other instructional expertise with their colleagues in the school. While collaboration appeared to be supported and convincing in the case study school, it was not widespread because time for teachers to work and lead one another was limited and served as a barrier to teacher leadership. Another impeding factor to teacher leadership was resistance amongst some of the teachers who refused to work together with their colleagues, and this showed a lack of self-motivation amongst some of the teachers in the school. A lack of leadership development amongst the principal and teachers also prevented the successful implementation of teacher leadership in the case study school.

Across the findings, teacher leadership in the case study school reflected a view of restricted teacher leadership (Harris & Muijs, 2005, pp. 114-120). This was because of the lack of

involvement of all teachers in whole school leadership and school-wide decision-making, limited time for teachers, resistance for teachers to take leadership and a lack of understanding of the potential of teacher leadership and a lack of leadership development amongst the principal and teachers in the case study school.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The study revealed that the nature of teacher leadership in the case study school was restricted because of the different factors which served as barriers to teacher leadership. Thus, the recommendations for practice emerge as a consequence of these barriers.

The principal and teachers need to know more about a concept of teacher leadership; therefore the school may invite someone in to run a workshop on the potential of teacher leadership in the case study school. With regard to a lack of involvement of all teachers in leadership at a whole school level, the study suggests that the school may facilitate and promote forms of distributed leadership such as dispersed and democratic (Gunter, 2005). This is because the literature indicates that schools with records of successful teacher leadership are suggested to have employed a philosophy of distributed leadership (Harris & Muijs, 2005). In achieving this goal, I suggest that the school improve the involvement of all teachers in whole school leadership in different ways. For instance, there needs to be a plan to make sure leadership committees in the school functioning properly by motivating, encouraging and allowing teachers to come up with different initiatives to develop the school as well as to improve teaching and learning. All teachers may be given leadership responsibilities to deal with in the school, for instance to have teaching aids developers, internal subject policy developers etcetera

The study also suggests that the school cultivate a culture where all teachers in the school have access to school-wide decision-making. The policy document, *Education for All* in Namibia, expects broad participation of all stakeholders in the decision-making processes in schools. School-wide decision-making may also be shared amongst all teachers and other people in the school community such as learners. The findings of Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 101) in their case study school where teacher leadership was successfully implemented

indicate that “decision-making was largely a shared process”. The case study school may also strongly support initiatives such as conducting action research (Harris & Muijs, 2005) in areas that need improvement to help improving the teaching and learning processes in the school.

To overcome the barrier of teacher leadership with regard to limited time for teachers in the school, the study suggests that the school may provide adequate time for teachers to have enough time to explore leadership roles inside and outside the school. The school can select one or two days in a week where all the teachers in the school should come together to share subject knowledge and experience as well as to come up with different initiatives to improve teaching and learning in the school.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In Namibia, little research has been done on the topic of teacher leadership; therefore much still ‘need’ to be done to gain more insightful understandings of the terrain of teacher leadership.

Four teachers and one principal were interviewed in this study; there is a need to conduct an extensive study of teacher leadership on a large scale that can involve more teachers, heads of departments, principals, inspectors or directors of education to give more extensive results. For example, my study employed a case study approach in the interpretive paradigm which was qualitative in nature, where I used three different methods. Therefore, there is a need for future research to be conducted on teacher leadership using methodologies which are ‘differ’ from mine, such as action research for example.

Future researchers may need to investigate the experiences of teacher leadership at public urban schools because they might have different experiences from a public rural school like the one in which I worked. Future researchers may also wish to conduct studies of teacher leadership at secondary schools because this study was conducted at a combined school. There is also a need for a study to investigate teacher leadership in terms of the preparation programme for teachers at teacher training institutions to see if the current teacher training

programme in Namibia prepares teachers with the skills required for teacher leadership compared to the phased-out basic education teacher diploma (BETD).

6.5 POTENTIAL VALUE OF THE STUDY

The findings, whether small or big, rich or impoverished, make meaning and contribute to the knowledge or discipline under which the study was conducted (Kelley, 2011). In line with this thinking, the findings of my study have made meaning and contributed to the existed knowledge of teacher leadership in Namibia. Importantly, there is a possibility that this study might be the genesis, together with the study of Hashikutuva (2011), of further studies of teacher leadership in Namibia. I suggest my study is of potential value in the sense that it might be useful to the Ministry of Education in Namibia, state and school policymakers, principals, teachers, researchers and other people who are interested in leadership in education, particularly the notion of shared or distributed leadership.

Since results from case study research cannot be generalized, I suggest that the study might be useful to teachers in schools with similar contexts. The results might enlighten teachers in similar situations to gain a full understanding of teacher leadership in order to take the leadership roles in the school and beyond to improve learners' achievement and performance.

Since teacher leadership played significant roles in schools where it was allowed and supported by principals as per literature, I suggest that the study might encourage principals in schools with similar contexts to allow, empower and influence their teachers to take the leadership roles in schools.

6.6 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This was a small scale case study which focused on one out of many schools in the Oshana region and which targeted four teachers out of a total of 25 in the school. Therefore it is already a limitation in itself because the findings cannot be generalized. However, I reiterate that generalisation was never an aim of my study.

6.7 CONCLUSION

The outcome of my research was a case of restricted teacher leadership within an authorized distributed leadership framing within the case study school. The study recognised that leadership in schools requires “social distribution” where leadership responsibilities for teachers are dispersed across the school rather than involving merely “misguided delegation” (Harris and Muijs, 2005, p. 34). And in this regard, I concur with Harris and Muijs (2005, p. 120) that “sheer commitment to the idea in itself will not result in change within the organization. In other words, simply being signed up to the idea of teacher leadership does not mean it will take place”. The idea here suggests that the way in which teacher leadership is understood and supported as a concept, does not merely mean teacher leadership will be enacted in a school. Instead, what matters is the question “*who* distributes responsibility and authority and, more importantly, *how* to distribute leadership development and responsibility?” (Harris & Muijs, 2005, p. 34). Harris and Muijs’s questions leave room for future research in our learning of the phenomenon of teacher leadership within a distributed framing.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Date:

Interview questions for the principal

1. When did you start teaching?
2. When did you become a principal?
3. Do teachers have leadership roles in your school, Yes/No
4. If yes, briefly explain the leadership roles for teachers in your school.
If no, explain why?
5. Do you encourage teachers' leadership roles in your school?
If yes, explain how, if no, explain why.
6. What challenges inherent with the practice of this approach to leadership in your school?
7. What strategies do you think can be applied to overcome the challenges?

APPENDIX B

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

Date:

Interview questions for teachers

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. Do you teachers have leadership roles in the school? Yes/No?
3. If yes, what leadership roles do you exercise in the school?
If no, why?
4. What are your experiences of leadership roles of teachers at school?
5. Does your principal plays a role in the leadership roles for teachers in your school? Yes/No?
If yes, briefly explain how? If No, give your suggestions why?

6. Do you experience or encounter some challenges in exercising your leadership roles in the school? Yes/No?

If yes, give some examples of those challenges.

7. What strategies do you think can be applied to overcome the challenges?

APPENDIX C

Observation schedule for teachers on their leadership roles at school

Date: Week No.: Day:

Activity	Type of support/encouragement given
1. Assembly (does the teacher lead the morning devotion e.g. contacting the prayer, monitoring the learners' punctuality to assembly etc.)	
2. Classroom (does the teacher arrange, keep order, set class rules, discipline the learners, encourage, motivate, guide, instruct learners etc.)	
3. Outdoor & break time (does the teacher share experiences with others, does the teacher work in teams with others, supervision of learners, is there a sense of unity? Etc.)	
4. Teacher-learner interaction outside the classroom (e.g. does the teacher has the capacity to monitor the learners, guide, empower, motivate etc.)	
5. Teacher-teacher interaction (e.g. do teachers share subject knowledge with others, plan lessons together, design assessment tools or rubrics with others etc.)	
6. Teacher-principal interaction (e.g. is there a parallel leadership? etc.)	

7. Leadership Capacity (E.g. does the teacher have the capacity to lead without being guided by the principal, etc.)	
8. Teacher-community interaction (does the teacher has network connection with parents, does the teacher invite parents to his/her lessons etc.	
9. Meetings (e.g. chairing, participating in decision-making)	
10. Extra-curricular activities (e.g. participation in sport, choir, cultural dance etc.)	

Summary of the day

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APPENDIX D

LETTER OF CONSENT

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I understand that this research is to investigate teachers' leadership roles in a selected rural school in Ohangwena Region of Namibia.

I undertake to participate in this exercise on voluntary basis and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I understand that the information (discussion) will be voice recorded, however it remains confidential. My personal identity will remain anonymous as well as the name of my school. The information will be used only for study purpose as it will appear in the thesis that will be produced at the end of the study.

If I have any question about my rights as participant or I am dissatisfied at any time with any aspect of the study, I may contact Ms LN Nauyoma (the researcher) at Cell: 0812968911 or at her email address: ladinaujoma@gmail.com.

I agree to participate in this study and also agree for the interview to be voice recorded.

Name:

Institution (**Pseudonym**).....

Signature:

Date:

APPENDIX E

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

Tel: +27 (0) 46 603 8383

Fax: +27 (0) 46 622 8028

PO Box 94, Grahamstown, 6140

17 June 2011

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Ms Ladipaleni Nauyoma (student number 11N0344) is a registered Masters student at Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa in the field of Educational Leadership and Management. She has reached the point where she is ready to conduct her research. She wants to investigate leadership among teachers at selected schools in her region. The purpose of this letter is to obtain your permission for her to collect data from your school.

Ms Nauyoma will need access to documents pertaining to management and leadership at your school, such as minutes of management meetings. She will also need to observe the school in action to get a sense of its climate and culture, and she will need to interview selected teachers as well as the principal. Ms Nauyoma deserves all the assistance she can get for this project. Leadership among teachers is an important issue in education in Namibia and the rest of Southern Africa but as yet under-researched. The caliber of Ms Nauyoma's work so far suggests that she will produce a sound thesis and add significantly to the field of Educational Leadership and Management.

Thank you in anticipation for your permission and support. If you have any queries please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely



(Prof) Hennie van der Mescht
(Supervisor)



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17 June 2011
Mrs. T. Hamutumwa

Inspector of Education

Ongha Circuit

Ohangwena region

Private Bag 2028

ONDANGWA

Dear Mrs Hamutumwa

Permission to conduct research in your circuit

Ms Ladipaleni Nauyoma (student number 11N0344) is a registered Masters student at Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa in the field of Educational Leadership and Management. She has reached the point where she is ready to conduct her research. She wants to investigate leadership among teachers at a selected school in your circuit. The purpose of this letter is to obtain your permission for her to collect data from the school.

Ms Nauyoma will need access to documents pertaining to management and leadership at the school, such as minutes of management meetings. She will also need to observe the school in action to get a sense of its climate and culture, and she will need to interview selected teachers as well as the principal. Ms Nauyoma deserves all the assistance she can get for this project. Leadership among teachers is an important issue in education in Namibia and the rest of Southern Africa but as yet under-researched. The caliber of Ms Nauyoma's work so far suggests that she will produce a sound thesis and add significantly to the field of Educational Leadership and Management.

Thank you in anticipation for your permission and support. If you have any queries please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Hennie van der Mescht', with a stylized flourish at the end.

(Prof) Hennie van der Mescht (Supervisor)

APPENDIX F

TEACHERS' LEADERSHIP ROLES IN A PUBLIC RURAL SCHOOL IN THE OHANGWENA REGION OF NAMIBIA

ZONES AND ROLES MODEL OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

(Grant, 2008)

