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Teacher Leadership in Public Secondary Schools in Lagos, Nigeria

By

OLUTOLA THOMPSON OLUJUWON

Student number: 201048121

THESIS
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in the

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

at the

University of Johannesburg

Supervisor: Prof. Juliet Perumal

2016
DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Olutola Thompson Olujuwon, student number 201048121, hereby declare that:

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Tola Olujuwon
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Signature: 
Date: 

Prof. Juliet Perumal
Supervisor
Signature: 
Date: 
DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the ancient of days, the Lion of the Tribe of Judah, the provider and sustainer of life and the owner of all knowledge, my Lord and saviour, Jesus Christ. It is also dedicated to the memory of my late parents, Pastor Ishmael Olujuwon and Mrs Alice Olujuwon, and my late brother, Emmanuel Olusola Olujuwon. It is also dedicated to my wife, Modupeola, and children, Tijesunimi Oluwadara, Josiah Oluwagbemileke and David Temitayo. Above all, I thank those who, in one way or another, have contributed to the realisation of this academic endeavour.
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- Grants in the form of cash that I used to register for my studies in 2012.
- A fully-paid trip for my participation at the 58th World Assembly of the International Council on Education for Teaching in Bangkok, Thailand at the Sukothai Thammirat Open University held on 25 to 28 June, 2013. At this conference, I presented a paper called “The challenges of teacher leaders in Nigerian public secondary schools”. This paper was published in the 57th Yearbook on Teacher Education.
• The opportunity to participate at the Wellness Conference at St Benedict’s Preparatory School in Johannesburg, South Africa, on 18 August 2012.

• The production of a video on my work in 2012 (see the link below).
  https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XPU3KYBijq0&feature=youtu.be

Publications emanating from my study include the following:


• Olujuwon, O.T. & Perumal, J.C. (2014). Teachers’ responsibilities as leaders inside and outside Nigerian secondary schools. In 7th International Conference of


- The challenges of teachers in Nigerian public school context and the effects of management micropolitics on teacher leadership in Nigerian Public Secondary schools will soon be published in a journal.

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative, multiple case studies explore teacher leadership practices in the context of Nigerian senior secondary schools. It examines the perceptions and experiences of teacher leaders as well as how education policies affect the promotion of teacher leadership in Nigerian senior secondary schools. A purposive sample of nine teachers, three principals, three vice-principals and an education administrator was used. An individual semi-structured interview was used to obtain data that was supported by an analysis of Nigeria’s National Policy on Education.

The study reveals that teachers were faced with challenges in the discharge of their duties. The challenges teachers face are due to a low societal perception of teachers and inadequate teaching and learning facilities coupled with micropolitics in schools. The study reveals that constant policy changes have an effect on teachers’ career progression, morale and productivity. Similarly, the findings from the study support the notion provided by theorists that administrators and teachers have vague conceptions about the meaning of teacher leadership. Furthermore, the findings reveal that the level of collaboration among teachers is low in relation to academic matters and high in matters related to extracurricular and social activities. Some of the barriers militating against teacher leadership that the findings highlight include: inadequate trust between teachers and administrators, school norms and beliefs, micropolitics and teachers’ attitudes towards work.

The study recommends an adherence to ethical standards, professionalism in teaching and the provision of adequate funding to schools. The study also recommends that school leaders should delegate responsibilities and tasks based on capabilities, experience and qualifications. This will enable tasks to be accomplished timeously and efficiently. The study further recommends that teachers should be critical, educative, reflective and ethical in their dealings with stakeholders as this would empower them to question and challenge hegemony, words, actions and beliefs and emancipate themselves from micro politics that hinders them from leadership positions. This study contributes to a better understanding of teacher leadership in school.
KEYWORDS

Teacher leadership
Organisational micropolitics
School culture
Teacher identity
Professional development
Critical leadership theories
Distributed leadership
Policy changes
Nigerian education system
Public secondary schools
School leaders
Case studies
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AOCOED: Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education
EDV: Education District V
FGN: Federal Government of Nigeria
FME: Federal Ministry of Education
LASU: Lagos State University
LGA: Local Government Area
LSPPTSL: Lagos State Post-Primary Teaching Service Law
NAACP: National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People
NCCE: National Commission on Colleges of Education
NCE: Nigeria Certificate in Education
NGO: Non-Governmental Organisation
NPE: National Policy on Education
NPSS: Nigeria Public Secondary Schools
NTEP: National Teacher Education Policy
NUT: Nigeria Union of Teachers
PSS: Public Secondary School
PP-TESCOM: Post-Primary Teaching Service Commission
SANPAD: South African Netherlands Programme on Alternatives in Developement
SDP: Social Democratic Party
TEPO: Teacher Establishment and Pension Office
TGPS: Tutor General- Permanent Secretary
TRCN: Teachers’ Registration Council of Nigeria
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MY AUTOBIOGRAPHY

This autobiography provides an overview of my personal and professional life while highlighting my interests and the philosophy that shaped my life and my quest for knowledge acquisition. My life started in Ikosi-Agbowa, a rural community on the outskirts of Lagos. I was born in 1967 to a Christian family. My father was a trained sailor and the pastor of the local church while my mother was, at one time or another, a farmer, trader and fisher woman. Ikosi-Agbowa felt the touch of the colonial masters. Today, as in the past, old cars and houses can be seen at the Ricketts Compound. Ikosi-Agbowa is fortunate to have one of the banks of Lagos Lagoon at Ikosi Beach and during Easter celebrations people from all walks of life come to enjoy themselves at this beach. To grow up here was exciting and full of adventure.

I used to go hunting for squirrels, rabbits and fish. I learnt the art of knowing the footprints of animals as well as the times and seasons for fish and manatee. I also learnt about herbs that can cure some common ailments, survival strategies in the bush and the type of trees to cut for drinking water. Life in the village was neighbourly as we all knew each other, trusted each other, worked and played together. My parents understood the essence of education and emphasised the importance of education throughout my schooling. My father was well recognised in the community due to his education. When dignitaries visited the community, he would be on hand to welcome them. He was also involved in the Parent-Teacher Association at the primary and secondary school levels. In addition, my family regularly hosted visitors and students from other parishes of our church during their schooling at Ikosi Methodist High School (IMHS), a missionary school of the Methodist Missions.

My parents were involved in community development projects and I too became involved in community service and helping others. There were occasions when I had to accompany my father to repair roofing sheets blown away by storms at the primary school or when I volunteered as a construction worker for the building of the community health centre, among various projects. My immediate family and environment shaped my desire to acquire knowledge. My educational career started at the Local Authority Primary School, which is the only school in Ikosi and its adjoining villages; all students trek to and from school. Adapting in school was easy as the majority of the students were from my community. After
primary school, I took the Lagos State Entrance Examination and was successful after the third attempt. I was admitted to IMHS which was called Ikosi Industrial School during the colonial period.

IMHS was a cosmopolitan school. It had facilities for boarding while some of us from the local communities enrolled as day students. The school has beautiful gardens with various types of fruits, well laid out lawns and colonial houses still dot the landscape. We were taught to live godly lives and to be an instrument of change in the community and in the world. I enjoyed my secondary school life more than university. As a teenager, I made friends with boys and girls from the city and we ran, jumped, played football and engaged in hide-and-seek most of the time.

After completing secondary education in 1984, I moved to Festac Town in Lagos. This was the facility where delegates from around the world stayed when Nigeria hosted the second Blacks Festival of Arts and Culture. I stayed in Festac Town until I was admitted to the Lagos State College of Education (now called the Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education) in October 1986. The hostel where I stayed was full of student activists and I joined them in due course which had its pros and cons. In the 1988/1989 academic session, I was elected president of the National Union of Lagos State Students, an umbrella body for Lagos indigenes. I was also a member of the National Association for the Advancement of Coloured People (NAACP) as well as a campus journalist. Student activism made me popular in the college community and in 1989, because of a disagreement between school management and the student union about school policies, a protest ensued and resulted in the barricade of the major international highway.

School management called in the anti-riot police to curb the protest and tear gas was used to disperse the students. Pandemonium ensued. Students hijacked commercial buses to get to the seat of government in Alausa and make their grievances known. They were arrested at Alausa and taken to Kirikiri Medium Prison without any recourse to the rule of the law. In retaliation, students kidnapped two police officers in exchange for their incarcerated colleagues.
This act led to the police conducting house-to-house searches, including hostels in Otto/Ijanikin. Students who were found were arrested and sent to Kirikiri Prison and this act led to college management deciding to close the schools. Parents of the detained students saw this as a violation of fundamental principles and instituted court cases against the Lagos State Government and college management. College management then deregistered 22 students, who occupied student leadership positions despite having no charges against them. They believed that the student leaders were the ring leaders of the protest. I was one of the 22 students that were deregistered. The students consulted the legal luminary and human rights lawyer, late Chief Gani Fawehinmi, and instituted a case against the Lagos State Government and college management at the Federal High Court in Lagos, citing violations of fundamental rights.

The judgement was against the students and an appeal case was filed at the Court of Appeal in Lagos. The Court of Appeal ruled in favour of the students citing the lack of a fair hearing and no committee or panel investigation into the causes of the protest as reasons for the verdict. In addition, an application for a settlement out of court was reached. A panel was constituted to enable students to state their own side of the story. The panel recommended that some of the 22 deregistered students should be reinstated. I was one of those students who was absolved and re-admitted to the college during the second semester in 1990. All this took place during the infamous military rule in Nigeria.

After graduation, I became an advertisement executive for a local newspaper that later folded. I then became involved in politics and joined the Social Democratic Party. I was elected as a local government delegate for Ward B3 in Ojo. The actions of the junta made me lose interest in politics. I then became involved with a non-governmental organisation (NGO) on education, where we designed training programmes for school teachers in the Lagos State. I had a strong desire to go back to school. I see knowledge acquisition as the springboard for success in life. In 1992, I was offered admission to a three-year course at the Lagos State University for my first degree. Unfortunately, the university was embroiled in an industrial crisis that led to its closure for 18 months. It was shut down again in 1993 because of protest over increased fees and for another eight months shortly thereafter. I graduated in the 1997/1998 academic year. In 1998, I was admitted to study a full-time Masters in Educational Management at the Department of Educational Management at the Lagos State University.
and graduated in 2001. While at the university, I continued to be involved in the NGO which gave me an opportunity to visit other African countries and be involved in advocacy activities related to women, youth and education issues.

In 2005, I was privileged to be employed as a lecturer in the Department of Educational Foundations and Management at Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education in Otto/Ijanikin. I teach Educational Foundations and Management related courses to would-be teachers. I became concerned around issues of leadership in schools, teacher education and the way teachers were regarded by society in spite of the various roles they played in society. This prompted me to register for a PhD in Education Leadership and Management in 2010 at the University of Johannesburg, Auckland Park campus, South Africa.

These life experiences have taught me that leadership is about service, openness, transparency and commitment to the overall well-being of society. It is also about interpersonal relationships, motivation and the provision of direction to achieve a goal. This relationship, if nurtured in a school setting, could help achieve education goals which depend on the styles of the leader. The various theories of education leadership and management have made me believe that leadership is about influencing others positively in order to achieve the best. I enjoyed reading the Principles of management by Henri Frayol (1841-1925) that states that leaders must allocate jobs based on experience, specialisation and capability. Similarly, achieving goals of an organisation can only occur in an atmosphere of equity and oneness. It is also important to value the initiative of other members of the group. This means that both the leader and the led must work towards a common goal. It also emphasises the need for a responsible officer to relate with at the helm of affairs in the organisation.

I have also been influenced by Bass’s (1990) model of transformational leadership which outlines four behaviours that represent leadership effectiveness and which transform followers. These behaviours are: individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealised influence. This model emphasises good leadership characteristics, communicates the vision to followers, encourages subordinates’ creativity, listens to the needs of subordinates and empowers them to be self-actualised.
However, the theorist that has profound influence on my scholarship about education leadership is Foster (1989), one of the critical theorists. According to Davis (2008:140), critical theory tries to expose and question hegemony of traditional power structures to promote change. In the context of Nigeria, teachers are bombarded daily with messages through words, actions and policies that reflect societal perceptions of teachers. The portrayal of teachers and teaching in Nigeria as a profession of “low status” or as a “low-fee paying job” has made society internalise these portrayals and has eroded teachers’ recognition and status as professionals.

According to Foster (1989), for teachers to free themselves from these negative portrayals, they must be critical, educative, transformative and ethical in their dealings. Teachers need to question traditions and customs that have inhibited them from leadership positions. Teachers must think independently and take actions that would change the social structures, language, beliefs and norms used to describe them. In addition, they must work towards social justice and pursue ethical standards that align with the democratic values of the community. These perspectives are needed to change the status quo and align with my philosophy of enrolling for a doctoral degree in Education Leadership and Management.
PREAMBLE

Nigeria with her nearly 250 different nationalities and languages spread across the 36 states, with the seat of government in Abuja. The estimated population of Nigeria is 137 million, making it the largest populated country in Africa; it occupies a land area of 923 768 square kilometres. The largest and most politically influential ethnic groups are the Hausa, and Fulani and Yoruba (Clark, 2004:1). English is the official language while Hausa, Fulani, Yoruba and Igbo are the dominant languages. The country has 50% Muslims, 40% Christians and 10% indigenous belief systems (Clark, 2004:1).

Nigeria is a former British Colony which practised the British education system until independence in 1960. Education leadership was centrally controlled by the Ministry of Education and cascaded to the schools (Post-Primary Teaching Service Commission (PP-TESCOM), 2003:3). Crawford (2005:214) states that the new millennium has brought new challenges to school leadership that have made it more complex and demanding. In addition, education experts believe that the traditional model of leadership is no longer adequate to sustain schools and student performance in the 21st century (Hargreaves & Fink, 2008:229; Harris & Muijs, 2005:16-17). Realin (2014:1) states that the over-reliance on the traditional model of leadership will dampen the energy and creativity of people in organisations. This informs Harris and Muijs’s (2003:11) argument that the “old order” of leadership is unlikely to prevail in the architecture of schooling with more diversity, complexity and innovation. The “new order” is premised on leadership that is distributed and thus empowers those close to the classroom to undertake leadership tasks and actions.

However, it is presumed that teachers are largely powerless to effect a change at any policy level on their own because they are not consulted on issues that affect them. In the Nigerian context, the status of teaching is low when compared to other professions and teaching is often used as a gateway into other professions (Adelabu, 2005:8). Teachers are collectively oppressed in their professional lives and in society through words and actions that deride their identity (Davis, 2008:140). Nigerian scholars have documented unfavourable teaching conditions such as inadequate facilities, high student to teacher ratios, irregular payments of salaries, non-implementation of agreements reached with teachers’ unions by the government and constant harassment of teachers by students, parents and the government. In addition,
there is a low societal perception of teachers as leaders which robs them of their identity (Ali, 2000; Egwu, 2009; Ejiogu, 1999; Ijaiya, 2010).

A vivid example of teacher denigration was given in a study carried out by Adelabu (2005) on teacher motivation and incentives in Nigeria. A teacher participant in the study was quoted as saying: “It is common to see advertisements for houses for rent with the added remark, ‘not for teachers’ and that nobody knows who will own primary schools tomorrow ... the pity is that it is only teachers that can be treated this way” (Adelabu, 2005:8). Similarly, the national president of the Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) reveals that teachers in Nigeria do not enjoy uniformity in conditions of service or in career prospects (Adelabu, 2005:9). As Adelabu (2005:3) explained: “the public began to look down on those teachers who remained in the classroom as second-string public servants”.

This study uses critical theory to illustrate the complexities inherent in the education processes and thereby builds an emancipator as a response to social injustice (Finley, 2008:142). This is the foundation for exploring social interactions, processes, beliefs and reforms in schools and helps to move schools towards a democratic value of social equity (Finley, 2008:142-145). Critical theory was used to provide a lens on teacher leadership in the distributed perspective. Critical theory explains the disruption of traditional power structures inherent in an organisation through empowerment and struggle. It is only when teachers are critical leaders that it will be possible for them to emancipate themselves and be empowered to effect a change.

One of the ways of dismantling oppression and hegemony in school leadership is through teacher leadership in a distributed leadership perspective. Distributed leadership is about working co-operatively with everyone involved to promote teamwork, involvement, empowerment and risk-taking (Oduro, 2004:24). It captures and reflects on the evolving model of education leadership that is encouraged in schools (Hartley, 2007:13; Gronn, 2003:18). This study attempts to explore teachers as leaders in public schools and considers the premise that teacher leadership practices in public schools is critical for achieving effective and efficient school leadership (Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2010:45-46).
Problem statement

Nigerian literature has highlighted the enhanced expectations and challenges that Nigerian teachers are facing. These challenges include an increase in violence, examination malpractices, political and appointment instabilities, economic problems and new legislation around appointments and promotions. These factors have contributed to the complexities with which school leaders now have to contend (Bolarin, 2002:4; Nwaboku, 2006:3). With the advent of civilian rule in 1999, there were changes that required school managers or principals to study, implement and assess teaching-learning outcomes, while at the same time to provide performance-based reports to the Ministry of Education (Nwangwa & Omotere, 2013:161).

However, teaching and learning in some parts of Nigeria have witnessed unprecedented terrorist attacks since 2009 perpetrated by the Islamist terrorist group Boko Haram, whose name means “Western education is forbidden”. An act that is unknown to many Nigerians after the three years protracted civil wars of the 1970s. This insurgency has brought untold hardship on Nigerians and has nearly paralysed economic, social and educational activities in the north-east of Nigeria. Education is the worst hit from these deadly attacks where schools were bombed and burnt to ashes. Students, teachers and other school personnel were killed or abducted. Furthermore, more than 200 school girls referred to as “Chibok girls” were kidnapped on the night of 14 April 2014, and still remain missing. This led to worldwide condemnation and the creation of a campaign that called for the release of the girls with the name “Bring Back Our Girls”.

Ugwumba and Odo (2015:2) note that the spates of attacks have forced state governments in the affected states to close nearly 85 schools and colleges for a prolonged period of time which affects 120 000 students. This supports the findings of the Amnesty International research report of 2013 that stated that more than 70 teachers and over 1 000 school children have been killed or wounded from the various attacks carried out by this terrorist group. Also, about 50 schools have been burnt to the ground or greatly vandalised while more than 60 schools were forced to close due to safety concerns. As a result, thousands of children and teachers have been forced out of schools across communities in the Yobe, Kaduna, Adamawa and Borno states. In addition, the NUT stated that more than 1 000 teachers have been forced
to flee the northern part of Nigeria for other parts of the country (Amnesty International, 2013:4).

This has implications for education as Nigeria will not be able to achieve goal two of the Millennium Development Goals as more than 1.5 million Nigerians are estimated to have been internally displaced. These attacks led to a low school enrolment as most pupils and parents were more concerned about safety than going to school. This is consistent with the findings of Oladunjoye and Omemhu (2013:7) that stated that in the north east school attendance is low as parents disallow their children to attend school as soon there is an attack or rumours of an attack. Additionally, it increased the loss of teachers as most were either killed or fled the insurgency area due to the threat of assassination which affected their job and morale (Amnesty, 2013:11-12). Olowoselu, Bello and Onusegun (2014:81-83) note that Boko Haram attacks have affected the planning, organising, co-ordinating, financing and evaluating of educational activities of teachers, students and school heads, as most of them are traumatised and afraid of going to school for fear of being attacked. Ugwumba and Odom (2015:7-8) note that there are psychological and social effects on students and teachers because of these attacks. The loss of friends, loved ones and the stress of going to school in a volatile environment all contribute to the psychological and social effects. Moreover, repairs and maintenance of schools are put on hold due to fear of reprisals. The report of The Education For All Global Monitoring Report 2011 shows that:

Attacks on higher education and teacher training institutions may restrict research, teaching content and pedagogical training. It may also cause drop out, distraction, demoralisation and traumatisation of tertiary students and academics. This can in turn lead to restrictions on teacher content, knowledge and teacher quality.

Regardless of the challenges enumerated above, there has been increased pressure from parents and government to improve learners’ academic achievement and school leadership in Nigerian Public Secondary Schools (NPSS). Thus, the roles and responsibilities of the teacher as a leader has been identified as critical in achieving this goal (Abari, 2005:181 & Briamoh, 2012:vi). The study by Abari and Briamoh supports earlier studies conducted by the Institute for Educational Leadership (IEL) in the United States in 2001 that stated that “well-prepared professional teachers are central to educational reforms” (IEL, 2001:2-5). Despite the key role played by teachers in educating the next generation, most NPSS teachers are limited as
leaders to classroom activities, such as assessing students’ academic standards, dealing with unruly students, teaching creatively and time management (PP-TESCOM, 2003:32).

Nigerian scholars have shown that teachers are excluded from school leadership. It is only the school principal that assumes legal responsibility with competencies and leadership skills. Contributions from non-principals are ignored (Egwu, 2009:30; PP-TESCOM, 2003:11; Stewart, 2006:19). This narrow definition of teachers’ roles reveals leadership shortcomings in schools. There are also growing concerns “that teachers need to extend their influence beyond the classroom into school leadership for the sustainability of reforms and learners’ outcomes” (National Association for State School Boards on Education (NASBE), 2008:1; Taylor, Webb & Jones, 2004:206).

Researchers argue that the leadership and management of schools can no longer be the exclusive preserve of those in formal leadership positions. In addition, the traditional notion of leadership is no longer suitable and leadership should be extended to other levels in the school (Harris & Muijs, 2005:6; Neuman & Simmons, 2000:10). Literature has shown the prevalence of traditional forms of leadership in schools (Harris & Day, 2003:96; Harris & Muijs, 2005:14) and that schools in Sub-Saharan Africa are not exceptional in their approach to school leadership (Grant, 2006:529; Singh, 2005:13).

Experts advocate for a new perspective on leadership that involves multiple leaders in schools (Barth, 2001:455; Spillane, 2006:15). This approach is based on rapid societal changes, a barrage of new information and technology and numerous proposed reforms in education from different countries to meet competitive economic demands that have placed schools under enormous pressures to succeed in developing an educated and knowledgeable generation of students (Harris & Muijs, 2005:1; Oduro, 2004:23; Rizvi, 2008:86).

Bolman and Deal (2008) contend that “understanding the complexities in school management is crucial as this would enable the leader to appreciate the complexities of human interactions, be abreast of latest information technology and organisational systems and this will go a long way in achieving effectiveness in schools as well as to survive in a globalised economy”. The job description of today’s school leaders is more challenging than in the past. School leaders are under pressure to close learner performance gaps, raise test scores, manage
budgets, monitor policy and the law, stay abreast of curriculum and assessment changes, turn around declining students and attract, develop and retain highly qualified teachers (Day, Leithwood, Sammons, Hopkins, Gu, Harris, Brown, Ahtaridou & Kington, 2009:193-194; Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, (OECD), 2008:1). Teaching and learning have been recognised as knowledge driven enterprises that require a flexible form of leadership to address the complex changes in education (Harris & Spillane, 2008:31). If the problems of leadership are not addressed by distributing leadership, it will be almost impossible to complete tasks in the teaching and learning process (Grenda, 2006:567). Distributed leadership is advocated as the best means of effective leadership for developing schools and students (Grant, 2006:416; Mayo, 2002:28; York-Barr & Duke, 2004:288).

Evidence suggests that teacher leadership has a significant influence on school improvement and student performance (Day, et al., 2009:4; Leithwood, et al., 2006:12; Harris & Muijs, 2005:14). In a study in South Africa, Grant (2006) observed that hierarchical school organisations, autocratic principles and leadership are conceptualised in formal positions and bring about teacher resistance that impedes proper teacher leadership and school learning (Grant, 2006:513; Grant, 2006:529).

For teacher leadership to be effective in schools, researchers advise that teachers should be agents of change and ready to accept leadership roles (Grant, 2009:45; Harris & Muijs, 2005:7). In a related research study, Ovando (1996) revealed that teachers require more free time for collaboration and leadership tasks and that they may not welcome additional tasks, as they already have a demanding workload (Oduro, 2004:13). In addition, selecting teachers for leadership positions in schools is problematic and could lead to dissatisfaction among peers (Harris, 2005:261). The poor definition of teachers’ roles reveals significant leadership challenges in schools. This study attempts to explore the possibilities of exploring teachers’ roles and responsibilities to include leadership inside and outside the classroom. The exploration of teachers’ roles in public schools is critical in the Nigerian context to achieve effective and efficient school leadership (Supovitz, Sirindes & May, 2010:45-46).
Aim of the study

This study focuses on exploring teacher leadership in the NPSS context with particular reference to their perception and understanding of leadership. With this in mind, I pose my main research question:

**How can teachers in Education District V be explored as leaders in their schools?**

To assist me in answering my main research question, I framed the study with four main aims:

1. To examine teachers’ perceptions about leadership in public secondary schools,
2. To examine policies guiding leadership in public secondary schools,
3. To explore the current understanding and practice of teacher leadership in public secondary schools, and
4. To identify strategies that are needed by participants to promote teacher leadership in public secondary schools.

Research questions

The following critical research questions were constructed in line with the above aims.

1. How do teachers’ perceive leadership in public secondary schools?
2. What are the policies guiding leadership in public secondary schools?
3. How does the current understanding of school leadership practices influence teacher leadership in public secondary schools?
4. How can teacher leadership be promoted in public secondary schools?

Rationale

The rationale for this study is based on my interest in teacher leadership education that evolved from my eight years of teaching experience as an educational administration lecturer in a Nigerian college of education in Lagos. There are few position papers on teacher education and leadership in Nigeria. I am yet to come across any research that focuses on teacher leadership in Nigeria. The position papers on school leadership by Afe (2003), Fakoya (2009) and the Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) (2005) focus on formal teacher leadership positions, programme descriptions, the teacher’s role, the role of the school
principal, job satisfaction, the school environment and teacher morale that relates to effectiveness in instructional and classroom improvement rather than on teacher leadership. A teacher’s involvement in leadership is mainly situated within a classroom and extends beyond classrooms only when teachers collaborate with each other in curricular and extra-curricular activities. Moreover, there is no provision in schools for the enhancement of teacher leadership skills. The curriculum for pre-service teachers in Nigerian colleges of education does not provide courses in teacher leadership (National Commission for Colleges of Education, (NCCE), 2010:5). Based on the above lack of provision for leadership skills acquisition, I decided to embark on this research.

There are, to the best of my knowledge, few studies that focus on teacher leadership in developing countries, especially among studies addressing observed leadership challenges and the way they are practised in schools. For example, Grant (2006:513) observed that teacher leadership is new to educators and researchers in South Africa. Recent studies confirm that the adoption of distributed leadership as a new concept is limited in South African schools (Bush & Glover, 2013; Naicker & Mestry, 2013). In a teacher leadership related study, Grant, Kajee, Gardner, Kajee, Moodley and Somaroo (2008:1) found that teachers in KwaZulu-Natal supported the notion of distributed leadership and strove to develop the capability to become leaders.

There is a need to investigate the way in which teachers view their environment in terms of school culture and the way they explore their roles as leaders within the organisation of the school as this area remains under-researched in Nigerian schools. My observation as a lecturer in a college of education shows that bureaucracy, teachers’ perceptions, hierarchy and inadequate teacher preparation are limiting teachers’ leadership aspirations and opportunities. In addition, up to the 1990s, Nigerian teachers were respected as professionals and seen as sources of wisdom and knowledge by society. However, this attitude changed when the military came to power and politicians began to abuse the profession.

**Significance of the study**

This study aims to add to the existing knowledge of teacher leadership in both formal and informal roles in four areas: theory, methodology, policy and practical knowledge. The study
highlights the various challenges that face teacher leaders and impact on learning outcomes in public secondary schools.

**Theoretical significance**

The study will expand education leadership theory by applying Foster’s (1989) concept of critical education leadership to the concept of teacher leadership. In this study, teacher leadership refers to individuals who are committed to the goals of teaching and learning and have moved beyond the traditional roles associated with teachers to assume informal leadership roles in schools so that they can improve themselves, the school and the students. The study helps to cover a significant gap in literature on NPSS and thereby assists in re-conceptualising teacher leadership potential in achieving education goals. The study highlights the various challenges teachers face as well as the oppressive and hegemonic tendencies prevalent in society that impedes teacher leadership. It also highlights the emotional issues teachers experience at the hands of students, parents and colleagues. By exploring these challenges, the participants in the study who are part of an oppressed group within the education profession are given a voice (Freire, 1970:2-3). Foster (1989:33) argues that it is only when teachers are critical, ethical, transformative and reflective will they be able to free themselves from power and social structures that inhibit them in leadership.

**Methodological significance**

Qualitative research methods such as semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis have been underused as a means of data collection in Nigeria. Qualitative research methods enabled me to interact face-to-face with the study participants in their own environment. Most researchers focus mainly on questionnaires. This study reveals the point at which teachers exercise leadership in secondary schools as well as the various physical and emotional challenges they face in discharging their duties.

**Policy significance**

The study will inform policy makers on formulating policies that emphasise the leadership of teachers in schools. Similarly, it will inform school heads about the need to distribute leadership among teachers in schools and explore teachers’ roles and responsibilities based
on their capabilities. The study will inform future policy on school leadership to provide training for school heads that will better prepare them for their roles as school principals.

**Practical significance**

The research will add to the existing knowledge of teacher leadership studies. It will introduce into the public school arena in Nigeria, the debate on the idea and practice of teacher leadership in a distributed leadership context. It could contribute to the professional development of school leaders by providing leadership opportunities for sustainable leadership among teachers. The study will also provide possible future research possibilities around exploring teachers as leaders in public schools in Nigeria. Above all, the research findings will benefit Education District V (EDV) and teachers in Lagos State. The study could also be used as a foundation in other education districts in Lagos State.

**Parameters of the study**

The study is a qualitative research project with multiple case studies. It explores the perceptions and experiences of principals, teachers and an education administrator on the challenges, policies, perceptions and strategies of teacher leadership in the NPSS. The NPSS in the study are established and funded by the government. The participants were selected from five specific public secondary schools which satisfy the particular needs of exploring teacher leadership (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:254). In addition, the participants were full-time staff members at the schools and were certified by the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN). The participants form the unit of analysis of the study. I used semi-structured interviews to obtain data that were supported by document analysis of Nigeria’s National Policy on Education (NPE).

**Limitations of this study**

The study is limited to data gathered from the teachers, principals and vice-principals selected and also from an education administrator in EDV of Lagos State. The results of the study are limited to the study participants which limits the reach of the findings to the education district. The findings must be considered within the context of the study (see Table 2.1 for profiles of the study participants).
EDV is one of the six districts in the Lagos State and has 100 primary schools, 186 secondary schools, 300 teachers, one Education College and a university owned by the Lagos State government. The district has the only post-graduate medical college in Nigeria and in West Africa. The area has a mix of major ethnic groups in Nigeria (the Igbo, Hausa and Yoruba), each with its own settlement area. The study is limited as it does not cover other teachers in other educational districts, part-time teachers employed by the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) or teachers in private secondary schools. The “teacher education” referred to in this study is limited to education colleges and does not extend to universities.

Another limitation is that the study is located within the case study research design. Limitations often associated with case studies of this type include time parameters, oversimplification, exaggerated bias, reliability, validity and generalisations (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011:293; Shaughnessy, Zechmesiter & Zeichmesiter, 2003:290-9). Denscombe (2003:39) states that the limitation of this approach, whether qualitative or quantitative is that it can only be a snapshot which is dependent on the local and temporal context in which it was carried out thereby undermining its applicability to incorporate wider contexts. Only semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis have been used for data collection.

The use of methodological triangulation may have given additional validity to the perceptions of participants regarding the effects of teacher leadership on achieving education goals. Additional data gathering techniques such as questionnaires, participant observations or focus groups could be used for further research on teacher leadership. However, while the sample used cannot be deemed to represent schools outside this study, the data should not be regarded as insignificant because it gives useful insight into the perceptions of participants regarding leadership in schools.

Structure of the thesis

The structure of the thesis is outlined and explained below.

Chapter One: Gazing through teachers’ eyes

This chapter is divided into two parts. The first part provides a general idea of the Nigerian education system with its structures, policies and the way in which it promotes a traditional
form of leadership. I highlight the inadequacies in teacher education in preparing teachers for leadership. I then explore the context of teacher and teaching in the NPSS and the way in which teachers are regarded in society. I also discuss the roles of teachers in achieving student outcomes and educational reforms.

Similarly, I conceptualise the term “leadership” and discuss its various models of leadership in relation to exploring teacher leadership. I also explore the foundation of power in an organisation and the styles of leadership that could either improve or mar the ability to reach education goals. Furthermore, the issue of leadership in schools in the Nigerian context is crucial to understand teacher leadership and I offer an insight into this as well as policy provisions as stated in the Teachers’ Handbook of Lagos State. Other issues highlighted are the need for teachers to be critical and reflect on practices and policies that hinder them in leadership roles.

In the second part of the chapter, I provide an in-depth discussion of teacher leadership, its link to distributed leadership and its significance and ways in which it can be used to foster collaboration and promote the practice of teacher leadership. I also discuss the way in which teacher leadership can be used to dismantle oppressive policies and practices that prevent teacher leadership in schools. I also discuss the context of teacher leadership in public schools. The practice of teacher leadership can be achieved through collaboration, mutual trust and collegiate respect.

**Chapter Two: Getting teachers through the line**

In this chapter, I describe the research procedure and justify the methodology used in the study. I explain, in detail, the qualitative research design, the case study method as well as the modalities involved in data gathering techniques, such as semi-structured interviews, documentary analysis, data analysis, data management, ethical issues and sampling procedures. I also discuss the way in which I negotiated entry to the research sites and solicited participants and my positionality. I tabulate the profile of the participants and include photographs of the research sites to contextualise the research. I also provide a sample of the coding process.
In addition, I discuss the data collection schedules including the duration of interviews and the research question matrix. I also discuss the ethical consideration and the credibility and trustworthiness of the data. Furthermore, I discuss the validity of the data in terms of member checks, external audits and triangulation.

**Chapter Three: Teachers’ voices of sweet and agony**

This chapter analyses the data from the participants on their perception, understanding and experience of leadership in schools and the various challenges teachers face in the discharge of their duties. The study presents and analyses data on teachers’ perceptions of teacher leadership. I also discuss the impact of policy and promotion criteria on education and the way in which it influences the practice of teacher leadership in Nigeria. I explore current school practices in relation to teaching and learning, school funding, school community relationships and school leadership hindrances that affect the promotion of teacher leadership in schools.

Similarly, I examine the challenges and opportunities available to teachers to become leaders. Some of the challenges include social attitudes towards teachers, over-population of students, mistrust by colleagues and management as well as the lack of discipline on the part of teachers, students and parents. I also examine challenges in promotion policies that affect teachers and hamper them from reaching their full potential. I highlight the effect of micropolitics on teachers from the perspectives of the participants.

**Chapter Four: Good teachers, good quality**

Chapter Four summarises the research findings. Based on the findings, I offer recommendations to stakeholders in the Nigerian education system. I also provide the possibility for further studies. I recommend the establishment of school of leadership similar to the National College for School Leadership (NCSL) in the United Kingdom. I also recommend organising quarterly professional development seminars with adequate funding rather than “once and for all” programmes for teachers. This will keep teachers abreast of innovative teaching and learning processes.
I also recommend that junior teachers and new entrants into the profession should be mentored by senior colleagues. This will enable them to be integrated into the profession and enhance trust and collaboration among colleagues. In addition, I recommend the elimination of all forms of policies or actions that discriminate against teachers in the attainment of leadership positions or in the discharge of their duties either in the workplace or in the community. Discrimination runs contrary to the Nigerian constitution as well as the protocols and conventions to which Nigeria has acceded to. Thus, leadership should be distributed in schools based on capability and not affinity to any religion, class or gender, as this creates divisions that hamper goal achievements in schools.
CHAPTER ONE: GAZING THROUGH TEACHERS’ EYES

“...without teachers being partners in the leadership necessary in education today, significant and sustained change is unlikely....” (Urbanski & Nickolaou, 1997:10)

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of the study is to explore teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria. While a significant amount of literature exists on pre- and post-primary teacher leadership in developed countries, the topic is yet to be explored in-depth in Nigeria. Literature has revealed that the traditional model of school leadership is no longer appropriate in school leadership (Gronn, 2002:425). Moreover, school leadership requires a paradigm shift in schools where leadership is distributed among internal role players within the school community and must not be seen as the function of only the principal or school hierarchy (Grant, 2005:45; York-Barr & Duke, 2004:288).

This chapter is presented in the following subheadings.

1. An overview of the Nigerian education system with a focus on (i) the context of teacher education in Nigeria, (ii) the state of teachers and teaching in Nigeria and (iii) teacher identity. This section gives a situational report about the hierarchical model of leadership prevalent in Nigerian schools, teacher preparation and the conditions that teachers face in school as well as the societal perception of teachers. This provides the foundation for the study to explore teacher leadership in public secondary schools.

2. The concept of leadership. This section focuses on (i) the models of education leadership, (ii) tools of leadership, (iii) leadership styles and (iv) policies on leadership in public schools.

3. The theoretical framework used as a lens for the study is discussed.

4. Teacher leadership is contextualised with a focus on (i) phases of teacher leadership, (ii) dimensions of teacher leadership, (iii) teacher leadership and professional development, (iv) factors that support teacher leadership in school, (vi) benefits of teacher leadership, (vii) obstacles facing teacher leadership, (viii) contentions in teacher leadership and (ix) the context of distributed leadership.
1.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE NIGERIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

In Nigeria, the missionaries administered and formulated education policies for a period of 40 years (from 1842 to 1882), which did not align with the educational aspirations of Nigerians or with the rich cultural, religious, linguistic and ethnic demographics of the country (NPE, 2004:1-3). In an attempt to create an education blueprint, the 1969 curriculum conference culminated in a National Policy on Education (NPE). This policy has since been revised three times (in 1981, 1998 and 2004) to meet the dynamics of social change, demands of education, policy innovations and changes. The policy on education is geared towards creating “a free, just, democratic and egalitarian society, a united, strong and self-reliant nation, a great and dynamic economy and a land full of bright opportunities for all citizens” (NPE, 2004:6).

The Federal Government of Nigeria (FGN) has the overall responsibility of formulating, harmonising and co-ordinating policies and monitoring the quality of service delivery in the education sector through the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) (NPE, 2004:51). Thus, each state of the federation has the autonomy to formulate education policies in line with the country’s goals and objectives (NPE, 2004:51). The organisation’s structure is hierarchical and the FME is at the apex of education management (PP-TESCOM, 2003:3). In the context of Nigeria, school leadership is bureaucratic in nature and principals are recognised as the solitary and accountable leaders in the schools. They personify the totality of leadership, skills and managerial competencies while ignoring the contributions of non-principals (Egwu, 2009:30; PP-TESCOM, 2003:11).

The recognition of principals as the only designated leaders in schools reveals a significant leadership challenge. The contention of this thesis is that the policy needs to be modified to accommodate other leaders in the school. This study also looks at strategies to explore teacher leadership in schools. Researchers (Barth, 2001; Smylie, Conley & Marks, 2002; Spillane, 2006) argue that the traditional theories of leadership are no longer valid in the current school environment. This is in agreement with Beachum and Denthih (2004:277) who assert that the demand of school leadership in the 21st century is highly challenging and that no single individual can provide all the answers for effective school leadership. The need to improve school leadership and the achievement of learning outcomes in schools led educators to advocate for multiple leaders in schools (Barth, 2001:455; Spillane, 2006:15).
Meanwhile, teacher education in Nigeria does not provide courses in leadership. The curriculum content fails to emphasise teacher leadership. Even the stipulated roles and responsibilities of teachers according to the Nigerian Certificate in Education (NCE) make no provision for effective teacher leadership in education. According to the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) (2010:5), the new curriculum focuses on educational supervision, educational management and practicum in classroom management as the only courses related to leadership. However, these courses fail to define teachers as leaders (NCCE, 2010:5). There are no schools to train those teachers who aspire to attain leadership positions in schools.

The consequences of this have shown that there are gaps between the ideal and the real processes of teacher leadership in the Nigerian school system. This study aims to identify, from teachers’ perceptions, policies or factors in the current practice of leadership that limit teachers’ professional activities as leaders in schools. It also aims to identify strategies for developing leadership potential which can build experienced teacher leadership competencies in schools.

1.2.1 The context of teacher education in Nigeria

The NCCE notes that teacher education “emanates from the policies and procedures that provide pre-service or in-service teachers with the specialised knowledge, attitudes, behaviours, skills and competencies required for performing teaching and learning tasks effectively in classrooms, schools and in the wider community” (NCCE, 2012:1-2). However, there are concerns in Nigeria about inadequate teacher preparation that results in the majority of teachers “being unable to demonstrate adequate knowledge and understanding of the structure, function and development of their disciplines” (Ivowi, 2006:20). This assertion is not peculiar to Nigeria as inadequacies in teacher preparation programmes have been reported in other African countries as well (Amedeker, 2005: 99-110).

Amedeker (2005:99) admits that in Ghana “there is general dissatisfaction among teacher educators that the teacher training has not yielded expected efficiency. Also, teachers leave the teaching profession for other jobs due to low salary and disregard for the profession in
spite of teachers efforts in schools”. Related research (Salimu, 2013; Sumra, 2005: Zombe, 2014) has shown that in Tanzania, graduate teachers leave their jobs within one year and opt for other jobs because of low salaries and unfavourable teaching conditions. The conditions in which teachers perform their duties in Nigeria are well documented (Ivowi, 2006:33; Egwu, 2009:28-29). When working conditions for teachers are discussed, reference is often made to inadequate teaching and learning facilities in schools that hamper teacher leadership roles. Conversely, Guarino, Santibanez and Daley’s (2006:201) review of literature on teacher recruitment and retention in the United States found “that teachers exhibited preferences for higher salaries, better working conditions, and greater intrinsic rewards”. This shows that teachers will move to other jobs that offer the highlighted conditions. As a way out of teacher inadequacy, Lind (2001:13) makes a case for a more practice-oriented approach than a theory approach as part of the reform in teacher education.

Literature has shown that there is a disconnection between the theoretical aspects of the content taught in teaching institutions and what is found in practice (Afe, 2007:153; Ivowi, 2006:29; Ogunbiyi, 2004:122). This supports Tillman’s study (2005:626) in the United States that found that participants have difficulty in applying education theory and actual practice. However, the study of education is expected to make an individual proficient in all spheres of teaching, but, as the authors have indicated, gaps still exist in actual practice in the classroom. This is consistent with Ivowi’s (2006:33) assertion that many of the new teacher graduates lack competency in many areas of teaching. Other related research (Nwosu & Chukwuma, 2000:58, Ogunbiyi, 2004:122) observes teacher inadequacies in classroom management and communication as well as in the use of teaching aids when teaching students. Lawal (2003:5) indicates that “effective teacher education is a sine qua non for a reliant education which leads to confidence for teachers, and learners and helps the country in resolving problems inherent in the teacher education”.

I agree with these perspectives that view inadequacies between theory and practice of teacher education, especially in Nigeria. However, the authors do not take into consideration teachers’ roles that warrant inadequacies in teacher education. They also do not explore how teachers as leaders will help to position teacher training for better results. This is what this study intends to achieve.
1.2.2 The state of teachers and teaching in Nigeria

The NPE (2004) recognises that the education system cannot rise above the quality of its teachers. The policy visualises teachers as qualified classroom teachers who are motivated, conscientious, competent and committed to the teaching profession (NPE, 2004:39). This lends credence to the current education policy that views teachers as professionals tasked with promoting the national education goals of Nigeria. Perumal (2014:5) asserts that this requires teachers to inculcate in learners the right types of values and attitudes such as respect for human dignity, the rule of law, equity, social justice, tolerance and responsibility.

Literature shows that teachers are among the most important people influencing student achievement (Fakeye, 2012:2). Darling-Hammond (2000:1) states “that teachers are needed to enhance student outcomes”. Equally, Oduolowu (2009:331) notes that teachers exert influence on character formation as well as on the socialisation of students. Other qualities that teachers should have include being understanding towards students, dedicated, empathetic and team-spirited (Stronge, 2007:1). Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001:85) argue that “teachers are crucial to educational change and school improvement”. The characteristics highlight the various contributions made by teachers to facilitate professional learning communities and to achieve education goals in schools (York-Barr & Duke, 2004).

However, in spite of their numerous contributions to education, teachers still experience inflexible working conditions, low morale, low levels of trust and blame for all the woes in the education system (Adegbesan, 2013:6; Arong & Ogbadu, 2010:62; Udofo, 2005:73). Lawal (2011:21) states that “teaching appears to have a low status in Nigeria in spite of possessing if not all the qualities of a profession”. Literature has shown that the teaching environment does not treat teachers as respected leaders. There are hierarchies, bureaucracies, egalitarianism, legitimised authorities, and constant threats of judgements and critiques of teachers from every direction. (Barth, 2001:443-449; NASBE, 2008:1; York-Barr & Duke, 2004:255-316).

Many researchers have reported how teachers suffer from constant harassment from parents, students and even the government (Ali, 2000:9; Ejiogu, 1999:35; Egwu, 2009:28-29). This supports the findings of Sumra (2005:11-13) who found that in Tanzania there is an unfavourable societal perception of teachers and that students only showed respect for their
teachers while in school. In his study, Ejiogu (1999:35) reported that teachers in Nigeria are still ill-treated in spite of their academic qualifications and status. Similarly, the study of Iliya and Simdet (2013:116) found that the attitude of government and society negatively affects the image of teachers which, in turn, affects student performance. This demonstrates the deep negative societal perception of teachers and its effect on their professional duties in achieving education goals.

Ehusani (2002:3-4) maintains that most of the time in Nigeria, teachers’ salaries and promotions are not paid when due. This is supported by Ofojebe and Ezugor (2010:398) who claim that there is “poor remuneration, motivation, teacher support and low societal perception for teachers to carry out their roles effectively and efficiently”. All these challenges faced by teachers weigh heavily on their self-efficacy and identity. Teachers need a critical reflection and a voice to surmount these problems in schools and this has given rise to questioning teachers’ identities in Nigeria.

In a study among undergraduates in Nigeria, Obayan (2006:7-8) found that most students do not want to study education but preferred lucrative and prestigious courses like law, engineering and medicine. In a related study by Hall and Langton (2006:27), it was found that power, money and fame are most often determinants for course selection. The study further showed that politicians, lawyers, sports people, doctors, diplomats and actors were chosen above teachers owing to their earning power, influence and fame all over the world. Participants were of the view that teachers are not as well paid as politicians, doctors, or sports people and, above all, that teaching does not make an individual famous.

Obayan (2012:25), in a unstructured opinion survey of first-year faculty of education students during the 2001/2002 academic year, found that only 15 out of a total of 179 students sampled claimed that becoming a teacher was their first choice. It was a second choice for 57 of them, a third choice for 66 of them and “not my choice at all” for the remaining 41. This study shows that few young people would like to become professional teachers in the country, due to low salaries and prestige and this has an effect on teacher identity. This is consistent with Favara’s (2012:5) study in England that found that students choose their subject specialisation according to both their expected monetary returns and the pay-offs in terms of identity.
The literature fails to analyse the effects of this portrayal on teachers’ morale, self-worth and its overall effect on the teaching profession. There is a need to address these challenges, the perceptions of leadership, the policies guiding teacher leadership in schools and the strategies used to enhance leadership in public secondary schools. In many parts of the world teachers are respected members of society (Darling-Hammond, 2000:1; Stronge, 2007:1). However, in Nigeria, teaching is still regarded poorly and teachers’ working environments are unfavourable. It is difficult to attract good, prospective students and these challenges affect the identity of a teacher as a professional. A detail discussion of this can be found in Section 1.3.

1.3 TEACHER IDENTITY

Teacher identity refers to teacher characteristics, social roles and responsibilities as perceived by teachers and others (Lawal, 2011:22). Lawal says that, “Amongst these characteristics, role identity is important, because individuals come to understand who they are by occupying particular roles in society” (2011:23). Identity is seen as “belonging to communities which could be personal or professional and which give the development of identity a social character” (Robson & Viskovic, 2001:225). Research has shown that identity refers to ideas about “who I am”, “how I am perceived by others”, “how I see myself” and, by implication, “how I should act” or “who I want to become” (Alvesson, Ashcraft & Thomas, 2008:6; Beijgaard, Meijer, Verloop, 2004:122). These various perspectives help in understanding the teacher’s self, competencies, beliefs and behaviour which are the cornerstones of professional teacher activities (Spilkova, 2011:119).

Lawal (2011:22) contends that “teacher identity is contingent upon the socio-cultural values, beliefs and practices, as well as the dominant ideology within the micro- and macro-societies in which the teacher operates and this has an effect on how teachers perceive themselves and how they are perceived by others as well”. Thus, identity is revealed as both transformational and transformative as individual teachers revalue, negotiate and re-construct their respective identities (Cohen, 2008; Perumal, 2013:12). This agrees with Flores and Day’s (2006:220) argument that “identity as a process is not limited, but open, shifting, but socially negotiated, and is continuous to the end of life of an individual”.
Professionally, in the Nigerian context, a teacher’s identity is related to a formal qualification in teaching which requires expert knowledge, specialised skills acquired through rigorous training and continuous study. According to the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), teaching is also regarded as a public service (2005:3). Similarly in the South African context, Perumal (2013:13) states that teachers’ professional identities refer to their capacity to teach and their competence in subject matter, levels of training and preparation and their formal qualifications as teachers. Day, Stobart, Sammons, Kington, Gu, Smees and Mujtaba (2006:149) conceptualise teacher identity as a “composite of the interactions between professional, personal and situational factors” (see Figure 1.1). These factors are discussed below.

**Professional teacher identity:** Professional teacher identity is constituted around good teacher and classroom professionalism. This takes into account teachers’, in other words, peers’, beliefs, principles and practices in relation to school policies, national education policies, social roles and responsibilities, workload and the intercourse between personal and professional identity (Lawal, 2011:24).

**Personal teacher identity:** This has to do with the teacher’s life outside school and with the teacher’s relationships with family and friends. It is based on who the teacher is, owing to his or her knowledge, what he or she does and feels, as well as his or her reconstructive reflection on knowledge, actions and values (Lawal, 2011:24).

**Situated teacher identity:** This relates directly to the school, subject departments, the classroom and the immediate working context.
The above figure shows the interconnectedness between a teacher’s professional career and practices in and outside the classroom, as well as views on values and expectations towards achieving education goals. It also borders on their relationships with colleagues, family and friends and their perception towards the working environment. This in totality has “an impact on teachers’ motivation and commitment to the profession and shapes their identity in the society” (Day et al., 2006:151).

I concur with Day et al.’s conclusion that:

Teachers’ sense of identity is a major contributing factor to their commitment and resilience. This is neither intrinsically stable nor unstable, but it is affected positively or negatively by different degrees of what teachers experience between their own educational ideals and aspirations, personal life experiences, the leadership and cultures in their schools, pupils’ behaviour and relationships and the impact of external policies on their work. All these therefore shape their identity. (2006:261)

This is consistent with the findings of Oswald and Perold (2015:1) that “a teacher’s identity is a social product, drawn from social history, actively internalised and re-authored in response to new circumstances”. In another perspective, Lawal (2011:24) illustrates how discourse is used by teachers and non-teachers alike to define and enact their identities with statements like: “I have not got a job sir; I am only teaching”. According to Lawal (2011:14), this statement “negates teaching as a social practice system and the use of ‘I’ shows the ‘unwilling teacher’ and ‘teaching’ as what he called ‘rejected engagement’ as mediated by the use of the word ‘job’”.

Figure 1.1: The composite identity (Adapted from Day et al., 2006:151)
The implication of this statement shows that teachers do not see themselves as professionals or teaching as a profession. It also supports the fact that some people see teaching as a ladder to enable them to get to their desired profession. It also shows that they are not proud of being teachers or of their contribution to national development. Furthermore, the two instances of negation such as the explicit statement of “I do not have a job” and the implicit statement of “teaching is not a job” combine to indicate the alienation of the teacher from himself or herself in other words, self-alienation. Obayan (2012:27) illustrates a dialogue that happened at a marriage in a city in northern Nigeria that shows the negative societal perception of teachers. The dialogue can be seen below.

_Suitor’s family spokesman:_ A-salama-leikun, my people. May I introduce my young man, Ahmadu Tijani. Stand and be seen, Tijani.

_Tijani (Standing):_ A-salama-leikun, my elders.

_Spokesman:_ As you are well aware, we have come to ask for the hands of your daughter, Amina in marriage.

_Amina’s Father:_ La-kuli-la! Tijani has grown so big! Looks every inch like his grandfather. What does he do for a living?

_Tijani (timidly):_ I teach at Government Secondary School, Azare.

_Amina’s Father:_ Huuum! Well, you are from a good family. I’ll give you my daughter, but... listen carefully. **Promise me that you'll look for a job** (Obayan, 2012:27).

The implication of the above dialogue is that the bride’s father assumes that his son-in-law to be does not possess the right profession to qualify him as a husband. Although he considers the groom fit to marry his daughter based on the positive personality of the groom’s family, the bride’s father still believes that having another profession will make the groom a better person, therefore implying the groom has not yet had a job. Additionally, literature has shown in the past that Nigerian teachers were accorded with respect as professionals and, as such, were seen as sources of wisdom and knowledge by society (Adelabu, 2005:3; Abraham, Ememe & Egu, 2012:15).

Furthermore, literature shows that the downward trend in respect for the teaching profession in Nigeria began when the military government and politicians started degrading teachers which led to a change in the societal perception of teachers (Abraham, et al., 2012:15). Adelabu (2005:3) contends that teachers in Nigeria are identified by low wages and statuses compared to other professionals in society. There are few opportunities for career
advancement and the teacher to pupil ratio is high. In addition, teachers’ working environments are poor, while the payment of their salaries is irregular and fringe benefits are almost non-existent. All of these issues impact negatively on teachers’ efficacy, morale and professional development. There is a need for a critical enquiry to determine the meaning and value of societal artefacts and actions which could be work, words and hegemony that affects teacher efficacy and professionalism (Finley, 2008:142-145).

The literature is silent on teacher identity or on the reasons why teachers are not proud of their profession. There is also no reference in the literature to the role of policies in teacher identity and the efforts of teachers and their unions in changing societal perceptions about teachers. These gaps are what this study aims to fill by exploring the influence of policy on teacher leadership as well as current practices in school leadership. This has effects on the practice of teacher leadership in schools which this study intends to address. In Section 1.4, I discuss the concept of leadership.

1.4 THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP

Over the last 50 years, much has been written about ideas, methodologies and theoretical approaches that explore organisations and leadership phenomena (Ayers, 2006:3-4). New theories and methodologies in the field of leadership continue to evolve (Ayers, 2006:3-4). Burns (1978) notes that “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth”. Bass and Riggio (2006:1) explain that the discussion “about successful leadership and significant failures of leaders occupies a central position in every human endeavour from social, political, religious circles or in the work place”. Horner (2003:7) points out that in a definition of leadership “the traits, qualities and behaviour of leaders are taken into considerations and there is no limitation to leadership studies which span across cultures, decades and theoretical beliefs”.

Leadership as a concept is multifaceted with various definitions and perspectives (Alexandrou & Swaffied, 2012:159). Cuban (1988:190) claims that there is no agreed or “correct definition”, as there are more than 350 definitions of the term “leadership” without common agreement as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders. Hence, Yukl (2002:4-5) specifies that varied ideas have made leadership definitions arbitrary and subjective. A
number of different definitions of leadership indicate that leadership is a process of directing others, getting them to follow or do tasks freely or using authority in decision-making (Bateman & Snell, 2009:461; Mullins, 2007:363). Therefore, leadership is about transforming people and organisations towards a desired change. This is significant in the transformation of the Nigerian education system.

After summarising the different definitions of leadership, Vroom and Yago (2007:17) noted that “leadership is a process of influence, extending from leaders to followers”. I agree that leadership is an emerging issue and has to do with the influence leaders have on subordinates to achieve organisational goals. The necessary ingredient to improve performance and to effect a change is for a leader to develop respect by showing an appreciation and interest in the welfare of others. Bush (2003:5) offers three dimensions of leadership as a basis for developing an acceptable working definition. The three dimensions of leadership are: influence, values and vision (Bush, 2003:5). These dimensions are discussed in the following subsections.

1.4.1 Leadership as influence

Analyses of several studies indicate that there is influence in leadership (Maxwell, 2009:2; Weihrich, Cannice & Koontz, 2008:347). Leadership is a process by which a leader “influences others, inspires, motivates and directs their activities to help achieve the organisation’s goals and objectives, in spite of resistance” (Bateman & Snell, 2009:434). This definition shows that leadership is about goal attainment through the participation of group members. This is achieved by the “leader through mobilising and working with others in the group to achieve shared goals” (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003:3). The achievement of shared goals “involves taking risks and initiatives and applying leadership attributes, such as beliefs, values, ethics, characters, knowledge and skills” (Cuban, 1988:193; Weihrich et al., 2008:347). Accordingly, Northouse (2001) notes that leadership is “concerned with the personality of the leader and the dynamics between leaders and followers that result in a form of influence”.

This definition shows that “leadership is a process, it is not the property of a person but has a particular form of influence called motivating” (Vroom & Yago, 2007:18). Kondalkar
(2007:100) describes motivating as stimulating an employee to enable him or her to undertake activities to achieve more. This is possible when a worker wants to achieve something and diverts all his or her energies towards its achievement. Ali and Ahmed (2009:271) explain that motivation is an inner force that drives individuals to achieve personal and organisational goals. Similarly, it is an “inner burning passion caused by needs, wants and desires which propel an individual to exert his physical and mental energy to achieve desired objectives” (Kondalkar, 2007:99). These definitions show that the behavioural characteristics of motivation are sustained over a long period of time until it is eventually satisfied. Also, it is goal-oriented and seeks to achieve an objective and it results from a felt need directed towards a goal. These definitions show the correlation between how workers are treated and the achievement of organisation goals as well as the correlation between rewards and recognition.

Lawler (2003) declares that the way people are treated will increasingly determine if an organisation will prosper or even survive. The study by Ali and Ahmed (2009:278) revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between reward and recognition, motivation and satisfaction and that “if rewards or recognition offered to employees were to be altered, there would be a corresponding change in work motivation and satisfaction”. The implication of this is that if focus is placed on rewards and recognition, it could have a resultant positive impact on motivation and thus result in higher levels of job performance (Ali & Ahmed, 2009:278).

In a related study, Vijayakumar and Subha (2013:70) conclude that rewards and recognition, if improved in an organisation, could have positive effects on motivation and satisfaction as these play a vital role in enhancing the value for employees. I agree that motivation and satisfaction are important to achieve organisational goals. In schools, if teachers are motivated and recognised, it will lead to satisfaction and they will be proud of their profession. Leadership is a continuous process and multiple people can exercise leadership through demonstrating influence and effective leadership values in an organisation.

In demonstrating influence, Robinson (2007:15) explains that the more leaders influence teachers and focus on teaching and learning, the greater their influence will be on student outcomes. The study of Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom and Anderson (2010:5) revealed the influence of school leadership on schools, teachers and classroom conditions. They view
leadership as being central to enhancing teaching and learning as well as managing influences related to work outside the school.

1.4.2 Leadership as values

Irby, Brown and Yang (2006:1052) define values as “beliefs and attitudes held by individual persons or collectives or the principles that guide behaviour and inform leadership practices”. In organisations, there is an expectation that the leader must have good personal and professional values in order to attain organisational goals (Bush, 2003:5). Professional values are “regarded as the core of professional obligations and duties expected of registered teachers”. These values are enshrined in the 2013 revised edition of the TRCN, commonly referred to as the Teachers’ Code of Conduct. As stipulated in the code, teachers are mandated to have positive values as an integral part of their professional standard (TRCN, 2013:12-13). This code contains personal core values such as tolerance, objectivity, responsibility, empathy, respect, confidentiality, loyalty and integrity. Teachers are encouraged to develop these values in their relationships with colleagues, learners, parents and society in general (TRCN, 2013:15-22). Personal values are described as “internalised sets of beliefs or principles of behaviour held by individuals or groups. These are expressed in the way people think and act” (Jorgensen & Ryan, 2004:223). Clark (2000:4) relates personal values to the “very fibre of our being that shapes who we are and how we behave”. Personal values show the significance of values as part of the totality of leaders. The Teachers’ Code of Conduct contains ideals and practices expected of professional teachers in their relationships with stakeholders.

Greenfield and Ribbins (1993) emphasise that leadership has a lot to do with the character of the leader and is expressed in terms of a leader’s personal values, self-awareness and emotional and moral capability. Lichtenstein’s (2005) study revealed that executive values, “had a direct and significant impact on organisational performance, whereas age, tenure, functional experience and level of education did not”. The implication of this finding is that personal values are seen as fundamental attributes of a leader and are rated higher than his or her education qualification, years of experience or age. Treslan (2006:59) disagrees and states that accomplishment is what matters and not emphasis on personal characteristics and interpersonal relationships.
In a similar study, Irby and Brown (in Irby, Brown & Yang, 2006:1052) recognise the significant correlation that exists between attitudes, values, beliefs, leadership and organisations and propose an alignment among these factors to the success of the leader and the organisation. If this is not done, “it could create tensions with the organisation as those not sharing similar values and attitudes may resist any proposed changes in the organisations”. McGettrick (2000:10) maintains how teachers are facing increasing value conflict as “they struggle to find a balance between competing values prevalent in their professional and personal lives. Also how newly qualified teachers facing demands of policy and practice have no time for what it termed ‘personal inclusion’ in their approach to teaching and learning”.

1.4.3 Leadership as vision

Vision is significant in achieving success at an organisational, national and even an individual level. The National College for School Leadership (NCSL) (2003:8) advises that a successful leader, based on personal and professional values, must develop a vision for a school. Leithwood and Riehl (2003:5) argue that a vision is achieved through four key leadership responsibilities by which a leader must establish a direction for an organisation and put a strategy in place to achieve the vision. Also, the leader must align people to this vision by marketing and selling the idea to them so that they will “buy or key in” to this vision. Teachers are significant in achieving educational reforms and must be carried along to achieve organisational goals. In addition, it is by motivating and inspiring members through creating the energy and commitment to drive the process in the organisation that will achieve the vision for the school (Bateman & Snell, 2009:436-437).

I agree with the perspective that in achieving effective leadership in schools, there must be agreement and collaboration among stakeholders. The findings of Leithwood and Riehl (2003:5) show that effective school leaders help their schools to develop or endorse visions that represent the best thinking about teaching and learning. Leaders also inspire others in a school to reach for ambitious goals. In a related study, Kohles, Bligh and Carsten (2012:483) found that the leader-follower communication regarding vision is crucial in an organisation. Furthermore, how followers understand and integrate a vision into work behaviours and decisions significantly predicts commitment, job satisfaction and supervisory ratings of
performance. They suggest training leaders in the best way to communicate visionary content in a follower-centred and customised manner. Bush (2003:7) contends that the articulation of a clear vision can develop schools, but that the empirical evidence of its effectiveness remains mixed as school leaders who are to implement the values and policies are agents of government and its agencies.

Alexandrou and Swaffied (2012:159) state that leadership as a concept “is multifaceted with various definitions and perspectives”. This results in confusion in defining leadership as a concept. The working definitions of leadership adopted in this study show that in the school system, leadership is about a leader inspiring and giving direction to members of a group to achieve stated organisational goals and objectives. A leader must be able to influence others to follow his or her lead based on his or her personal and professional values and vision. A well-articulated vision endorsed by all members in a school can develop the school and enhance student learning. The model of leadership that relates to this study is discussed in Section 1.5.

1.5 MODELS OF EDUCATION LEADERSHIP

Many models of education leadership have been researched and most often models overlap or are given different terminology, which leads to confusion. As noted by Bush (2003:31), the models below have been given empirical verification and significant attention in education management literature.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANAGEMENT MODEL</th>
<th>LEADERSHIP MODEL</th>
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<tr>
<td>Formal (bureaucratic)</td>
<td>Managerial</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collegial</td>
<td>Transformational</td>
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<tr>
<td>Political</td>
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<td>Cultural</td>
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<td>Contingency</td>
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Source: adapted from Bush and Glover, 2002.
Bush (2003:33) explains that the vast literature available on leadership has generated a lot of alternative and competing models. The typology of leadership and management model proposed by Bush (2003) related to the study will be linked as formal versus managerial; collegial versus transformational; political versus transactional; and cultural versus moral. I also discuss a contingency type of leadership model as no single leadership model works in all situations.

1.5.1 Formal (bureaucratic) leadership

This model of leadership assumes that organisations are hierarchical in nature and that managers use rational means to pursue organisational goals. It is believed that leaders possess authority which is legitimised by their formal positions within the organisation and that they are only accountable to sponsoring bodies for the activities of their institutions (Bush, 2003:37). Thus, hierarchy is inherent in formal leadership models. NPSS have an organogram that shows the relationship between staff and which represents a means of control by leaders over their staff based on their positions (PP-TESCOM, 2003:32-37). One of the most important formal models of leadership is the bureaucratic model, associated with the work of German sociologist, Max Weber. According to Bush (2003:45), this model has become the preferred model of many education systems around the world. Weber (1989:16) argues that “in formal organisations, bureaucracy is the most efficient form of management”. This is well explained by Weber:

The purely bureaucratic type of administrative organisation ... is from a technical point of view, capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency. It is formally the rational means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. It is superior to any other form in precision, stability, in the stringency of its discipline and in its reliability. (1989:16)

Olsen (2005:3) describes bureaucracy as “an institution with the raison d’etre of organisational and normative principles of its own”. The mode of administration is adherence to the rule of law, the following of due process, codes of appropriate behaviour and a system of rationally debatable reasons. In relation to schools, Olsen (2005:6) observes that there are rules and regulations that guide the activities of the school for staff and students alike and this is typical in NPSS. Olsen (2005:13) notes that there are criticisms against bureaucracy as the structure is hierarchical with the principal at the apex. Moreover, there is a tendency for
administrators not to follow the ethos of the school and, for this reason; they may misuse their powers as leaders. In addition, rules are followed slavishly with no intervention at all at school level (Olsen, 2005:6). The features of the bureaucratic model are discussed below.

1.5.1.1 Features of the bureaucratic model

Hierarchical authority structure: According to Bush (2003:44), this is the legal authority vested in office holders that are responsible to the superordinate for the satisfactory conduct of their duties. In public secondary schools, teachers are accountable to their heads of department or the principal.

Goal orientation: In schools there are goals that need to be achieved and teachers are expected to work towards the realisation of these goals as set by the school leader without question.

Division of labour: There is a division of labour based on staff specialisation, expertise and experience.

Rules and regulations: Schools as formal organisations ensure that decisions and behaviour are governed by rules and regulations rather than by personal initiatives. Schools usually have rules that regulate teachers and student behaviour through the use of students and staff handbooks. There are prescribed sanctions if there are violations in these handbooks. These rules and regulations may also be extended to core issues of teaching and learning.

Impersonal relationships: The impersonal relationships between staff and students or with parents are emphasised. This is necessary to minimise the impact of individuality in decision-making. It is noted that effective schools depend on the quality of personal relationships that exist between staff and students.

Appointment based on merit: The recruitment and career progression of staff are determined on merit. In Nigeria, public secondary schools have procedures for the promotion of staff and the appointment of new staff. Appointments are based on qualification,

I concur with Peretomode and Bush that appointments and promotions should be based on merit, but these authors have not looked at the role that micropolitics play in determining how appointments and promotions are made in public schools in which qualified individuals are denied promotions or appointments. This is the gap in the current practice and thinking of leadership in schools that this study intends to fill. Bush (2003:54-60) shows the connection between the formal model of leadership and managerial leadership which will be discussed in Section 1.5.2.

1.5.2 Managerial leadership

According to Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999:14), the assumption of the managerial type of leadership is that “the focus of leaders ought to be on functions, tasks and behaviours”. They contend that if managerial leadership is carried out competently, it will facilitate the work of others in the organisation. Most leadership approaches assume that organisational members’ behaviour is largely rational and that those in formal positions are allocated authority and influence in relation to their status in the organisational hierarchy. Bush (2003:5) declares that, “It is significant that managerial leadership does not include the concept of vision which is central to most leadership models whereas, managerial leadership is focused on managing existing activities successfully rather than visioning a better future for the school.”

Bush (2003:186) reasons that this “approach is suitable in ensuring the implementation of the school’s vision and strategy”. In a review of leadership strategy in charter schools in the United States, Dressler (2001:175) argues that the “principal’s role has been focused on management responsibilities”. The limitation of this model shows the way in which people in organisations ought to behave and shows that schools are typified as goal-seeking organisations that use reasonable means to achieve objectives stated by officials (Bush, 2003:55). The collegial model of leadership is discussed in Section 1.5.3.
1.5.3 Collegial leadership

This model presents an opportunity for teachers to confer and collaborate with each other (Brundrett, 1998:350). Singh and Manser (2002:57) regard it as “a process of assimilation that involves encouraging personal visions to become part of a shared vision built on synergy”. Singh (2005:11) views it as “a process that encourages and accommodates shared decision-making and shared leadership in the spirit of enabling people to want to act”. This agrees with Bush’s (2003:70) assertion that all stakeholders should be involved in decision-making and “own” the outcome of discussions. Literature shows that when teachers collaborate, stakeholders benefit as experience and skills are shared (Moloi, 2004:79). There is a call in Nigeria for the exploration of the roles and responsibilities of teachers that will emphasise collaboration, trust and networking.

Bush (2003:65-66) states that “this model assumes a set of values that is common to all members of the organisation based on socialisation during training and early years in the teaching profession”. There are common sets of values that are taught to enhance shared education objectives. This model also assumes that teachers have the authority of expertise, which contrasts with the positional authority associated with formal models. Teachers are trained professionals and have specific skills and general competences to achieve teaching and learning outcomes. Accordingly, it is an appropriate model for school effectiveness and improvement because it provides an avenue for teachers to be part of decisions that affect their work (ibid: 64). However, in the context of Nigeria, Ivowi (2006:23) found that teachers are mostly not part of decision-making and not consulted on issues that affect them.

In their research, Singh and Manser (2002:63) show how collegial strategies are contemplated and implemented in schools. They found that a shared vision is regarded as a once-off activity rather than being seen as part of an evolutionary process of collegiality. Moreover, change in leadership strategy is regarded simply as a final product rather than an ongoing process. In the absence of collective attitudes and virtues, meaningful shared vision was attributed to the lack of direction and commitment at schools. In a study, Singh (2005:11) found that collegiality has a positive effect on learning and teacher participation and commitment. Thus, collegial practice must be evolutionary and emancipatory to achieve the values of collegial leadership. Singh (2005:11) reasons that for a school to provide quality education, “collegial leadership
should be carefully nurtured by those empowered to lead the transformation of the school and to address the challenges of the new millennium”.

1.5.3.1 Features of the collegial model of leadership

According to Bush (2003:66), collegiality assumes a common set of values held by members of the organisation which arise from socialisation and occurs during training and professional practice.

Furthermore, collegiality assumes that teachers have an authority of expertise based on their knowledge and skills and this is in contrast with the positional authority associated with the bureaucratic model. This shows that teachers have expertise as subject specialists and competent education professionals (Bush, 2003:66).

The collegial model of leadership has a particular link to the transformational model of leadership as discussed in Section 1.5.4.

1.5.4 Transformational leadership

Bush (2003:186) maintains that “transformational leadership is value-centred; it enables the leader and the followers to share vision, values, have mutual trust and respect with unity in diversity”. Bass and Steidlmeier (1998:3) indicate that there is a shared, developed agreement that bonds both leader and followers in a moral commitment to a cause that goes beyond self-interests. This is in agreement with Sahgal and Pathak’s (2007:264) study that showed that in transformational leadership, leaders and followers are held together by some higher level, which could be a shared goal or mission rather than a personal transaction. Halan (2004) contends that transformational leaders do not use their positions or abilities to achieve personal goals, but encourage followers to use their potential to achieve organisational goals.

Casteanheira and Costa (2011:2013) illustrate the basic functions of transformational leadership. The first function of a transformational leader is to sincerely serve the needs of others and to empower and inspire followers to achieve great success. The second function of a transformational leader is to be charismatic and develop a vision that instills trust, confidence and pride. The third function of such a leader is to promote shared goals and a
mutual understanding of what should be attained. A transformational leader also improves the
degree of commitment of a follower towards a common vision, mission and organisational
values by enhancing the relationship between the efforts of followers and the attainment of
organisational goals. In a school situation, transformational leadership is less bureaucratic and
functions as its own agent (Keevy & Perumal, 2014:930). The advantage of this model is that
instead of empowering selected individuals, a school becomes empowered as a collective unit.

Lewis (1996) observes that the goal of transformational leadership is to transform an
organisation and its members “towards new perception, vision and behaviour based on
organisational beliefs and principles that will result in permanent changes in the organisation
so as to achieve stated goals”. This agrees with Leithwood (1992:9) who states that this type
of leadership will help to “facilitate the redefinition of people’s mission and vision, a renewal
of their commitment and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment”. This is
in line with Bolman and Deal (2008) four distinctive frames on organisational management
and leadership which “empower managers and leaders to step back and have different and
clearer perspectives of their organisation”. I agree that transformational leadership will enable
teachers to empower students by asking questions and thus transform their classrooms and
environment. Bass (1990) outlines four behaviours that represent effectiveness in leadership:
individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation and idealised
influence. These behaviours are discussed below.

1.5.4.1 Features of transformational leadership

**Idealised influence:** Leaders who act as strong role models for followers and enable
followers to identify with the leaders and emulate them have idealised influence. These types
of leaders are appreciated and trusted because they do not seek personal interest through their
positions or abilities, but encourage followers to use their potential to achieve organisational
goals (Halan, 2004). According to Gill, Levine and Pitt (1998:54), idealised influence is
associated with a leader’s charisma.

**Inspirational motivation:** Leaders who communicate high expectations to their followers
and inspire them through motivation to be committed and be part of a shared vision of an
organisation use inspirational motivation. As noted by Sahgal and Pathak (2007:264),
inspirational motivation has a lot to do with a leader’s ability to inspire and motivate followers towards a desired behaviour through inspiring teamwork and focusing on positive results in achieving the goals and objectives of an organisation.

**Intellectual stimulation:** Leadership that stimulates followers to understand deeply and to challenge their beliefs and values uses intellectual stimulation. Gill et al., (1998:53) view intellectual stimulation as encouraging creativity, imagination and intuition and as a way of empowering people.

**Individualised consideration:** Leaders who provide a supportive climate to followers have individualised consideration. They listen carefully to an individual’s needs and coach and advise the individual while trying to assist him or her to become fully actualised (Northouse, 2004).

This agrees with the findings of Erkutlu (2008:719) that significant relationships exist between leadership behaviour and organisational and leadership effectiveness. Transformational leadership stimulates organisational commitment and job satisfaction and increases school improvement. DuBrin (2004:82) regards transformational leaders as charismatic, visionary and innovative and states that they provide positive feedback to their staff. Research indicates that transformational leadership changes teachers’ practices, influences and commitment to achieve organisational goals. It increases expectations for high performance and builds consensus to achieve group goals (Geijsel, Sleegers, Stoel & Kruger, 2009:411; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006:203-204).

Treslan (2006:59) declares that transformational leadership presents a paradigm shift in understanding leadership as it involves shared decision-making, collaboration, trust and empowerment essential to effecting change in achieving goals. Empowerment is a shared sense of ownership on the part of the leader and follower (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003:248). Treslan (2006:62) discusses the possibility of teachers being transformational in the classroom. He says that transformational leadership exists in classrooms where effective teaching is practised. Transformational leaders focus on restructuring a school by improving school conditions (Stewart, 2006:4).
Hopkins (2000:145) outlines the following conditions to enhance school improvement:

- a commitment to staff development,
- practical efforts to ensure the involvement of staff, students and the community in school policies and decisions,
- instructional leadership approaches,
- effective co-ordination strategies,
- attention to the potential benefits of enquiry and reflection, and
- commitment to collaborative planning.

These conditions underpin the need for leadership practices that are transformational, collaborative, supportive and build trust to engender effective teaching and learning. The findings of Moolenaar, Daly and Sleegers (2010:624) indicate that transformational leadership is positively associated with a school’s innovative climate and motivates followers to do more than is expected of them. One of the limitations of transformational leadership is that it has the potential to become “despotic” because of its strong, heroic and charismatic features (Allix, 2000:17-18). Transformational leadership is consistent with the collegial model in that it assumes that leaders and staff have shared values and common interests. The political model of leadership is discussed next in Section 1.5.5.

1.5.5 Political leadership

Political models refer to political activities carried out inside and outside a school (Bush, 2003:89). Bolman and Deal (2008) explained that in a political arena, an organisation can shape the rules of the game and as a player; an organisation is a “powerful vehicle to achieve the political agenda of whoever is in control”. There is a correlation between the political model and micropolitics, which is defined as “the interaction and political ideologies of social systems of teachers, administrators, teachers and pupils within school buildings” (Mawhinney, 1999:161).

1.5.5.1 Features of the micropolitical model

The micropolitical model focuses on group activity rather than on the institution as a whole. Central to all political approaches to leadership is the interaction between groups, whereas formal and collegial models stress the interactions at an institutional level (Bush, 2003:91).
Individuals and groups have varied interests that they tend to pursue within an organisation (ibid:91).

Power as a concept is at the heart of political models as decisions made are based on the relative power of individuals and groups. There is a process of bargaining and negotiation as interest is promoted in committees and numerous unofficial encounters and decisions are reached. It is here where differences are resolved after negation and bargaining. Power influences how, when and who gets what. The sources of power are rich and varied (Morgan, 1997:170-1). Moreover, it emphasises the prevalence of conflict as personal objectives may vary from the aims of other sub-units in an organisation which may lead to conflict (Bush, 2003:93).

The research undertaken by Liu, Wang and Cao (2011:16) reveal that the political skill of a leader influences team performance positively through quality communication. This finding is consistent with the study carried out by Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas and Ammeter (2004:321) that found that a leader’s political skills play a significant role in facilitating team performance. Ammeter, Douglas, Gardner, Hochwarter and Ferris (2002:755) observe that a leader’s level of interaction in an organisation comes from a political perspective and that contextual issues could enhance a leader’s political influence.

To understand the role power and politics play in social relationships, political scientist Jack Godwin offers, in his book *The office politics handbook*, an exploration of political theory and examples of eight different politically powerful archetypes to help people gain more power in their lives and achieve greater participation in decision-making. Godwin (2013) offers the following insights on micropolitics.

**People are political animals, therefore politics exists anywhere people are present.** Politics is about power. Politics exists in any social relationship that facilitates the control of one human over another.

**Politics is a social affair rooted in human nature.** Those who master micropolitics, or politics on the most basic and interpersonal level, do so by pushing their sense of objectivity outward into social space and downward into their primitive human nature.
The “political mystique” is composed of the acquisition of power and the distribution of power. To better understand how power is acquired and distributed, it is necessary to break micropolitics into its most basic components: political structures, power instruments and complex systems.

In order for people to master micropolitics, they must first journey inward. For people to gain more power in their personal and professional relationships, they must first get in touch with their inner political animals.

By putting forth a political persona, people protect themselves and make better strategic decisions. Political personas are masks, or the strategic way people present themselves to the world, that can be used to conceal a person’s vulnerabilities, such as their motives and interests.

By mastering the eight “gods of micropolitics” a person can learn how to win people over in any personal or professional situation. The “gods of micropolitics” are archetypes that represent the different ways people can use power and protect themselves against an adversary.

Everyone must assign themselves their own roles in life. Many people are assigned roles in life that have little significance. People must act on the foundation of freedom that is accessible to all humans and assign their own roles in life and work humbly toward fulfilling this goal (http://ebscolearning.com/2013/12/24/new-summary-available-for-the-office-politics-handbook/).

Section 1.5.6 discusses how the political model and the transactional model of leadership align.

1.5.6 Transactional leadership
The transactional leadership model aligns with micropolitics (Bush, 2003:18). Transactional leadership in schools is based on the relationship between teachers and school leaders for the
exchange of some valued resources. According to Bass and Steidlmeier (1998:3), transactional leadership is based on reinforcement where followers are motivated by “the leader’s promises, praise, and reward”. A leader corrects people with negative feedback, reproof, threats or disciplinary action. A leader’s reaction is based on whether or not the follower has done what the leader and the follower had “transacted” to do.

In addition with “contingent rewarding behaviour, leaders either make assignments or they may consult with followers about what is to be done in exchange for implicit or explicit rewards and the desired allocation of resources” (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998:3). In a school setting, principals may offer rewards or inducements to persuade teachers to support their plan or to undertake actions. Odumeru and Ifeanyi (2013:358-359) highlight some of the qualities of transactional leaders. They argue that transactional leaders use rewards as motivation for good performance and tend to maintain the status quo when followers fall behind expectations. Moreover, they tend to be directive and actions oriented and are ready to negotiate with others to achieve organisational goals.

There is a time limitation to the interaction between teachers and administrators as positions are for a limited period (Bush, 2003:188; Miller & Miller, 2001:182). Researchers have criticised transactional leadership for its “one-size-fits-all” approach to the theory of leadership, which disregards situational and contextual issues that are related to organisational challenges (Yukl, 2011; Yukl & Mahsud, 2010:89-90). In Section 1.5.7, I discuss the cultural model of leadership.

1.5.7 Cultural leadership

Bush (2003:156) points out that a cultural model is one of the ways of understanding organisational concepts. The model assumes that beliefs, values and ideologies are central to organisations. Individuals hold certain ideas and value preferences that influence their behaviour and the way they view the behaviour of others. These become shared norms and traditions that are communicated within the group and reinforced by symbols and rituals. Researchers like Hofstede (1980) and Taras, Steel & Kirkman, (2011:190) have shown that cultural values are related to workplace behaviours, attitudes and organisational outcomes. Hofstede (1980:25) offers an insight into culture as “the collective programming of the mind
which distinguishes members of one group from another”. Kinchelo and McLaren (2005:310) assert that “culture is viewed as a domain of struggle where the production and transmission of knowledge is always a contested process”.

1.5.7.1 Features of the cultural model of leadership

The cultural model of leadership focuses on the implicit and explicit values, beliefs, behaviour and individual attitudes in schools (Bush, 2003:160). Beliefs are difficult to discern as many beliefs are so deeply buried that individuals do not even know what they represent (ibid:160).

It usually emphasises the development of shared norms, beliefs and meanings (Bolman & Deal, 2008). An interaction between members leads to behavioural norms and culture that gradually becomes a cultural feature of a school. It is expressed through rituals and ceremonies that are used to support and celebrate beliefs and norms. Examples of these in schools are assemblies, prize-givings and other notable school functions. Moreover, it also assumes the existence of heroes and heroines whose achievements are consistent with school values and beliefs such as in sports, entertainment or leadership.

Mehta and Krishnan (2004:287) contend that culture appears to have a stronger effect than influence on shaping employee perceptions on transformational leadership. They suggest that leaders should understand the nature of their organisation’s culture and then use influence to enable them to be seen as transformational leaders. The link between the cultural model of leadership and moral leadership is discussed in Section 1.5.8.

1.5.8 Moral leadership

Bush (2003:170) indicates that the moral leadership model is closely linked with culture. This model assumes that leadership focus should be on values, beliefs and ethics. This model includes the premise that “authority and influence are to be justified on the notion of what is good or right” (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999:10). Sergiovanni (in Bush, 2003:170) maintains that “most notable schools have values and beliefs that take on sacred or cultural characteristics”. This model is also based on the values, beliefs and attitudes of principals and other educational stakeholders. It focuses on the moral purpose of education as well as the
expected behaviour of leaders within the moral domain. These values and beliefs are also combined into shared norms and meanings that either shape or reinforce culture (Bush, 2003:172). Quick (2014:132) stresses that leadership has “a moral task for school leaders due to the impact of their work on students who will be leaders of tomorrow”.

Thus, to be an ethical leader, Brown, Tevino and Harrison (2005:119) state that an individual must be trustworthy, honest, consistent and considerate. Similarly, Trevino, Brown and Hartman (2003:18-19) note that a leader “must be approachable, ready to provide information about the values and principles behind important organisational decisions, solicit input from members or organisational issues and practise effective listening skills”. This behaviour of the leader is closely related to openness, concern and reliability (Johnson, Shelton & Yates, 2012:7). In their study, Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman and Christensen (2011:211) state that ethical leadership is positively related to identification with an organisation.

Johnson et al., (2012:13-15) note that ethical leadership is positively related to trust, member satisfaction with organisation outcomes and their perceptions of organisational effectiveness as well as a leader’s success. In Nigeria, the TRCN’s Code of Conduct for teachers has an ethical framework that defines what cherished values, ideals and practices should be inculcated in schools. It also prescribes legal enforcement of violations of any of these ideals. Similarly, it includes prescriptions for acceptable professional and personal values for teachers (TRCN, 2013:ii). Researchers such as Klotz and Bolino (2013:292) and Malhotra and Gino (2011:25) emphasise that in spite of any code to guide behaviour or practice in the workplace, there is a tendency for leaders with wealth, power and position to exploit new situations and develop an entitlement mentality.

Sinha (2015:1) describe entitlement mentality as a “notion or belief of an individual that privileges are instead rights which is characterised by ‘me first’ or ‘holier than thou’ attitude”. This sense of entitlement it pervades human endeavour, be it in workplaces, homes and among colleagues and friends. The meta-analysis research findings of Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003:5) indicate that when “leaders concentrate on wrong school or classroom practices or miscalculate the changes they are attempting to implement, they can negatively impact on student achievement”. I agree with this view that unethical leadership affects
organisational goals as well as members in achieving their professional development. Next I discuss the contingency model of leadership in Section 1.5.9. This model realises that no single leadership method is appropriate in all situations.

### 1.5.9 Contingency leadership

Contingency leadership proposes that leadership is determined by the situation rather than adopting a “one-size-fits-all” stance (Bush, 2003:150). This theory suggests that different situations require different skills and tactics and that the most appropriate response to a situation should be adopted. In a school environment, the situation to be dealt with by a teacher or principal has to do with factors such as the size of the school, the school climate, culture and type of school. As situations change, a teacher’s leadership style must change to reflect the current realities to meet the different needs of the pupils. Accordingly, effective leaders will read and evaluate a situation and adapt their behaviour to it (Yukl, 2002:234). This model emphasises that the best leadership style depends on numerous factors such as the leadership characteristics, subordinates’ attitudes, tasks assigned to a leader and other prevailing situations (COMPASS/USAID, n.d.86).

The various models of leadership reflect the behaviours, skills and standard operating practices that leaders employ in exercising leadership. There are different approaches to leadership and there is no single theory that captures the reality of leadership in a school (Bush, 2003:50). The model used depends on what needs to be achieved, the situation at hand and the available resources. Research shows that leadership is about achieving stated organisational goals through people with a focus on the values, beliefs and ethics of an organisation (Barnett, 2006: 445-449).

Leadership is also described as a means to motivate workers to increase productivity and help them gain increased employee job satisfaction (Weihrich et al., 2008:348-349). Leadership emphasises links with the political ideology of systems with the mutual relationship of teachers, administrations and pupils in a school system. Traditional approaches to leadership reveal that those in designated leadership roles are best understood in terms of power, authority and influence. The tools of leadership dominant in organisations are discussed in Section 1.6.
1.6 TOOLS OF LEADERSHIP

Tools are processes or procedures put in place to achieve a stated goal. In the context of this study, tools of leadership refer to power, authority and influence that education leaders use to improve performance in their schools. In this section, I explain the basis of power, authority and its types and influence in organisations.

1.6.1 Power

Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2012:290) describe power as follows:

A daily occurrence of human endeavour by which managers in both public and private life acquire and use power to accomplish goals of the organisation or to strengthen their own position. To the authors, a person’s success or failure at using or reacting to power is largely determined by understanding power, knowing how and when to use it and being able to anticipate its probable effects. The authors are of the view that power is not a dirty secret but is actually a mechanism used continually to achieve organisational, group, and individual goals.

Watkins (2005:14) contends that leadership should be considered as a subset of power because everything is concentrated on a leader and the followers “like sheep before shearers are to be silent and not be heard”. However, Prilleltensky (2003:195-196) refers to power as “the capacity and opportunity to fulfil or obstruct personal, relational or collective needs”. Davidson, Evans, Ganote, Henrickson, Priebe, Jones, Prilleltensky and Riemer (2006:38) note that power is often discussed in the context of oppression. These authors view one aspect of power as oppression while other aspects of power include wellness, liberation or the power to resist oppression. Power is also a relative concept as people may be oppressed in one context, at a particular time and place, but may act as oppressors at another time and place. Also, there is the concept of power and perception that is gained by skill sets, personal reputation and personality trait such as coercion (Bolman & Deal, 2008). This study advocates for teachers to liberate themselves from hegemonic tendencies that inhibit them from leadership positions in public secondary schools.

Kondalkar (2007:210) describes power as “the ability of a person to possess what she or he feels as valuable and deprive another person of the same”. In a school setting, power is acquired through the position held by an individual. It is a tool as well as a resource used by a leader to achieve organisational goals, through promotion and appointments. French and
Raven (1959:263-268) suggest six bases of power that leaders use: coercive, reward, expert, legitimate, referent and information. Authority is seen in terms of legitimate power, while power is generally seen in terms of potential influence (French & Raven, 1959:265). The bases of power are briefly examined below.

1.6.1.1 Coercive power

This is based on the power of reward and punishment, and threats and sanction whereby the leader uses his or her position to force others to take action (Cunningham, 2007:202). It shows the level by which leaders can deny members desired rewards or administer punishments in order to control members of the organisation in some circumstances (Kondalkar, 2007:211). For example, in a public school system the principal may decide to hold on to staff salary if a target is not met. The principal may also want to use demotion, suspension or dismissal as well as oral and written warnings to reprimand the staff. Through the use of coercive power, the leader makes things difficult for others in the organisation and the subordinates try not to make him or her angry as a result of negative consequences. Therefore, they try to avoid him or her (Mullins, 2007:388; Luthans, 2011:315).

This coercive power rests on the application of physical or psychological sanctions on the offender. Lunenburg (2012:3) points out that coercive power should be used with caution in organisations as it tends to result in negative feelings towards those who use it. Moreover, the availability of established procedures on the code of conduct that governs how coercive power is used prevents superiors in leadership from using their legitimate power arbitrarily and unethically. Lunenburg (2012:3) believes that an efficient labour union in an organisation could weaken coercive power considerably. Furthermore, employees have coercive power such as the use of sarcasm and fear of rejection that ensures that team members conform to group norms.

1.6.1.2 Reward power

Lunenburg (2012:3) describes reward power as a “person’s ability to influence others’ behaviour by providing them with things they want to receive”. These rewards could either be financial or non-financial in nature such as pay raises or bonuses, promotions and appointments into positions or favourable work assignments or recognition. A manager can
use reward power to influence and control employees’ behaviour, as long as employees value the rewards. If employees can see a clear link between performance and rewards, reward power can lead to better performance (ibid:3). Nelson and Quick (2013) suggest that in order to use reward power effectively and meaningfully in an organisation, the manager should be explicit about the behaviour being rewarded and should make the connection between the behaviour and the reward clear to the employee.

Literature shows that employees also have power over their managers through the use of 360-degree feedback. This is a system in which employers receive confidential and anonymous feedback from people who work with them and typically from the employee’s manager, peers and direct reports (McShane & Von Glinow, 2010:303). Therefore, employee feedback affects managers’ promotions and other rewards. As a result, managers tend to behave differently towards employees after 360-degree feedback is introduced into an organisation (Mabey, 2001:50-51; McShane & Von Glinow, 2011:303).

1.6.1.3 Legitimate power

This is regarded as the power an individual receives based on his or her position in the formal hierarchy of an organisation. When a principal asks a teacher to take students on an excursion to a memorable place, instead of doing another thing, the teacher follows the principal’s directive. The principal is thus exercising his or her legitimate authority. Lunenburg (2012:2) argues that “legitimate authority includes the acceptance by subordinates in the organisation of the authority of the leader”. That is why Gibson et al., (2012:292) note the major “role subordinates play in the exercise of legitimate power is by complying with the directives of the leaders they view as legitimate”. Greenberg (2011) explains that “legitimate power covers a relatively narrow range of influence and, as a result; it may be inappropriate of the leader to overstep these bounds”. McShane and Von Glinow (2010:301) contend that “legitimate authority is a person’s authority to make discretionary decisions as long as followers accept this discretion”.

1.6.1.4 Expert power

In an organisation, expert power comes as a result of one’s experience, knowledge and skills (Lunenburg, 2012:4). This will make people respect and value the opinion of the person. For
example, medical doctors or lawyers are respected based on their expertise. In the school system, the expert power of the teacher plays an important role as students depend on the teacher’s superior knowledge and experience in their teaching and learning. Thus, “an individual with expert knowledge will always be respected in the community and by colleagues based on his or her knowledge, skills and experience” (Luthans, 2011:317). Kreitner and Kinicki (2010) argue that “knowledge is power in today’s high-tech workplaces”. I agree with the authors that knowledge is significant in leading schools in this era of the knowledge economy as it will assist both the leader and the school in achieving success based on the know-how.

Lunenburg (2012:4) contends that “expert power is based on the extent to which followers attribute knowledge and expertise to the power holder. Experts are perceived to have expertise in well-defined functional areas but not outside them”. Luthans (2011:317) explains “that to be granted expert power, followers must perceive the power holder to be credible, trustworthy, and relevant. Thus credibility is acquired by having the appropriate credentials such as knowledge, skills and experience”.

1.6.1.5 Referent power

This is based on the identification of a person with desirable resources or personal traits (Luthans, 2011:316). It is a person’s ability to influence others’ behaviour because they like, admire and respect the individual. It is related more to charisma when people admire and desire to be like this person in power (Bateman & Snell, 2009:440). Tosi, Misangyi and Fanelli (2004:407) assert that “a charismatic leader can ignite an entire organisation”. This could explain “why celebrities such as sportsmen and women, actors and actresses and musicians are paid millions of dollars for endorsement based on their influence and followership” (Hall & Langton, 2006:27). Literature shows that teachers often leave indelible impressions on their students (Gourneau, 2005:1-6).

1.6.1.6 Information power

This is based on information about people or events that assist in predictions about future behaviour and events (Kondalkar, 2007:211). Cunningham (2007:202) regards information power as an independent influence that relates to “a basic change in the way a person thinks
and its basis is information communicated by an agent”. Information communicated influences the reaction of the listener based on its content. Luthans (2011:318) contends that “a person who controls the flow of information or interprets data before it is presented to others has such information power”.

Information power is different from expert power because an individual merely needs to be in the “‘right place’ to affect the flow or the distribution of information, rather than have some form of expertise over the generation or interpretation of the information” (Luthans, 2011:318). Watkins (2005:15) contends that “the proponents of bases of power within organisations have taken for granted that resources in organisations should or will be distributed in some way and that any distribution of resources will be of an unequal nature”.

1.6.2 Authority

Lowe (2006:63) contends that “authority is often considered to be the ability to demand obedience or influence the action, opinion and beliefs of others. It is regarded as the legitimate power of a supervisor to direct subordinates to take action within the scope of the supervisor’s position. It is a socially given right to command and exert obedience. It is also a right and privilege attached to a position occupied in an organisation” (Lowe, 2006:63). This shows that there is a link between authority and leadership. In the public secondary school in Nigeria, the principal is recognised as the administrative, educational and social head of the school as well as the accounting officer of the school.

The principal has authority based on his or her position and is backed by law and has the right to enforce authority within the school (Section, 24, Lagos State Post-Primary Teaching Service Law, 2005; PP-TESCOM, 2003:32). Max Weber identified three types of authority: legal, rational authority, charismatic authority and traditional authority. These identified types of authority are based on the form of control in an organisation and regarded as legitimate by the subordinates and their acceptance of the powers of their superiors.

1.6.2.1 Types of Authority

There are different types of authority that are available for the leader’s use in school and these will be examined briefly.
**Legal-rational authority:** This type of authority is legitimated by written rules and laws, such as constitutions, and all members are subject to these laws. This type of authority is prevalent in government organisations and large corporations. Authority is not located in a person but in a position based on specific legal parameters of an office, such as a principal (Lowe, 2006:63).

**Charismatic authority:** This type of authority is legitimated by the belief in the exceptional qualities and characteristics of the leader, such as heroism or gifts of grace (Lowe, 2006:64). This type of authority is based on the strength, personality and inspiration of the leader. This leader, whose leadership is based on charismatic charm, decides what rules and laws must be followed in the organisation. The follower’s allegiance to this leader lasts only as long as the follower still ascribes to these special qualities of the leader (ibid:64). In their study in the Netherlands, De-Hoogh, Den Hartog, Koopman, Thierry et al., (2004:466-468) found that charismatic leadership is a predictor of subordinates’ positive work attitude as well as organisation profitability. To the authors, “charismatic leadership may be most important in situations where there are few situational cues, few constraints and few reinforcers to guide behaviour. Thus, charismatic leadership may lead to high employee performance and such higher performance may in turn increase organisational performance” (De-Hoogh et al., 2004:466).

**Traditional authority:** This type of authority is based on the established belief in custom and a long-standing belief in the natural right to rule. It is also regarded as a traditional position of authority (for example, patriarchy) (Lowe, 2006:64). This is based on the conviction in what has always been (Lowe, 2006:64). Vivid examples of traditional power are kings, sultans or people with royal blood. These leaders are in direct control of all rules and laws and are also bound by the same traditional regulations as the subject and any deviation from the established norms would erode the legitimacy of his or her authority (Lowe, 2006:64).

**1.6.3 Influence**

Luthans (2011:314) explains that “influence is usually conceived as being broader in scope than power. It involves the ability to alter other people in general ways, such as by changing
their satisfaction and performance”. This is in line with DuBrin’s (2010:299) assertion that “influence is the ability to affect the behaviour of others in a particular direction”. Luthans (2011:314) emphasises that influence is more closely associated with leadership than power is and both are obviously involved in the leadership process. As a result, authority is different from power because its legitimacy, acceptance and influence are broader. However, it is so conceptually close that the two terms can be used interchangeably.

Basit (2011:2) describes influence as “a force one person (the agent) exerts on someone else (the target) to induce change in the target, including changes in behaviour, opinions, attitudes, goals and needs and values”. The various definitions highlighted show that influence has “the ability to affect the behaviour of others in a particular way either towards accomplishment of organisation goals or the goals of the leader. Nevertheless, the power to influence comes from the employee within the organisation granting authority to the leader” (Luthans, 2011:344; Hall & Barrett, 2007:4). Higgins, Judge and Ferris (2003:90) note that there are many factors that determine which influence tactics a leader will use, under what circumstances the tactics would be used and the effectiveness of the choice of tactics. These factors include “the relative power of the parties, the direction and objectives of the influence attempt as well as the political skill of the influencer” (Higgins et al., 2003:90). The types of influence that will be considered in the study include tactics and leadership and influence for organisation change. These influences are discussed below:

1.6.3.1 Tactics

A leader uses tactics to influence subordinates. Tactics are actual behaviours designed to change another person’s attitudes, beliefs, values and actions (Basit, 2011:3). Hall and Barrett (2017:2) suggest that tactics can be grouped into hard tactics and soft tactics. Hard tactics are more forceful and push a person to comply. These tactics include exchange, legitimisation, pressure, assertiveness, upward appeal and coalitions. Soft tactics include personal appeal, consultation, inspirational appeal, ingratiation and rational persuasion. Soft tactics allow the person being influenced more latitude in deciding whether or not to accept the influence than hard tactics do. Soft tactics also allow a leader to show a higher consideration for the person being influenced and appeals to the ideals of the employees (Mehta & Krishnan, 2004:287).
Leaders often use a combination of both soft and hard tactics to influence outcomes (Mehta & Krishnan, 2004:282).

DuBrin (2010:229-230) notes that tactics can be ethical, unethical or neutral. Ethical influence includes leading by example, consulting with others and legitimising a request. Ethical tactics enhance trust and often go a long way in achieving goals. Other ethical tactics include exchanging favours, bargaining and developing a reputation as a subject-matter expert. In their study, Brown, Trevino and Harrison (2005:132) found that ethical leadership predicts outcomes such as the perceived effectiveness of leaders, followers’ job satisfaction and dedication and their willingness to report problems to management. I agree with Brown et al. Their thesis demonstrates that these can only happen in an atmosphere of love, equity and justice where stakeholders are aware of their personal and professional ethics in achieving organisational goals.

Unethical tactics include ruthlessness, gentleness, subtle manipulation of people and situations, the use of rewards and recognition as bribes, game playing and silent treatment (DuBrin, 2010:299). Such negative actions could create tension and conflict in an organisation and prevent an organisation from achieving its stated goals. It could also obstruct the personal development of the subordinates.

DuBrin (2010:229) notes that neutral influence tactics are ingratiation. This tactic adopts a spurious personal joking attitude that “attempts to soften the blow”, “laugh off the bad news”, appeal to people, co-opt the antagonist and win over opponents by making them part of the game. DuBrin (2010:3) has identified commitment, compliance and resistance as possible outcomes of influence attempts. These are moderated by a leader’s traits, behaviour and the situation.

**Commitment:** This is the leader’s highest goal and the most successful of the outcome of his or her influence. The target of the influence agrees with the leader’s influence efforts and makes an enthusiastic and voluntary effort in carrying out the request (Hall & Barret, 2014:5; DuBrin, 2010:299).
**Compliance:** Here, the influence’s attempt is partially successful. The person is apathetic about carrying out the task and thus makes only a modest effort. This may occur owing to the fact that a leader has only been successful in influencing the behaviour of the influence target and not his or her attitudes (Hall & Barret, 2014:5; DuBrin, 2010:299).

**Resistance:** The influence’s attempt is unsuccessful as the targeted person is opposed to carrying out the request and thus finds ways to avoid, ignore or actively resist efforts that influence his or her behaviour. Resistance could manifest through many forms such as making excuses, outright refusals, delaying tactics or active sabotage (DuBrin, 2010:299).

1.6.3.2 Leadership influence for organisational change

However, Kondalkar (2007:303-305) noted that change is a constant phenomenon where dynamic forces are at play and individuals must adjust to carry them out. Moreover, if change is not implemented, society will become stagnant and hopeless. Therefore, changes are beneficial as they bring about new challenges, new experiences and associated rewards. Despite this, change is always difficult to implement. It is generally resented due to job security, inadequate communication, loss of power and control, introduction of new technology, group resistance, rapidity and the extent of change and emotional turmoil.

DuBrin (2010) contends that top management often attempts to bring about change by overhauling the organisational culture. For example, this is done by sponsoring new training programmes that support the desired culture or select candidates whose values fit with the values of the desired culture for a position. It could also be the establishment of a reward system that reinforces the culture or serves as a role model for the desired attitudes and behaviours. Mehta and Krishna (2005:287) point out that organisational culture and influence tactics shape perceptions about leadership behaviour within an organisation. Strong cultures help leaders to exhibit greater consideration towards the employees and to be more charismatic. Leaders should understand the nature of their organisational culture and be able to influence others to bring about the desired change.

The above discussions have shown that leadership is about power, authority and influence. Leaders must use their power to ensure that goals are accomplished in schools. Leaders
should delegate work to their subordinates through the division of labour. If required, it might be necessary to modify organisational structure and give functional powers to all the individuals so that they feel empowered and develop a sense of responsibility. A leader must create favourable conditions in a school so that all staff members are free to contribute to the school’s goals based on their capabilities. Reward systems in a school should be equitable and based on achievements to motivate others to contribute to the school’s goals. Vesting power in a single leader will not help to explore teachers as leaders. A leader must use his or her authority to advance professional standards in an organisation. In addition, a leader must master the art of influence and understand the appropriate tactics to use in any given situation. In Section 1.7, I discuss the different styles of leadership prevalent in schools.

1.7 LEADERSHIP STYLES

Leadership styles are the various patterns of behaviour that a leader adopts to guide the efforts of subordinates towards the attainment of organisational or personal goals (Hoyle, 2006:594; Mullins, 2007:371). According to Mullins (2007:371), there are three general leadership styles identified in literature. These are the autocratic, the democratic and the laissez-faire or the free rein styles.

1.7.1 The autocratic leadership style

Leaders adopting this leadership style are leader-oriented, autocratic and dictatorial. A leader leads by using power and alienates his or her followers. A leader makes all the decisions and keeps to an inflexible, fixed schedule (Bateman & Snell, 2009:445). A leader uses only one-way communication and gives instructions that have to be followed. An authoritarian leader shows little trust in followers and leadership responsibilities are never shared or delegated (Hoyle, 2006:595). In addition, he or she emphasises strict control and adherence to procedures and ingenuity and creativity are discouraged (Weihrich et al., 2008:351).

Above all, group members are rarely involved in decision-making and little or no consideration is given to group welfare (Mullins, 2007:371). In spite of the authoritarian tendency of the leader, this style of leadership has some advantages which enable the tasks and objectives of the organisation to be finished on schedule. Resources are often judiciously
used thanks to this leadership style. It enables the leader to have great self-confidence, a clear vision of what needs to be done and how to get it done. Furthermore, it provides a degree of certainty and security for those beneath the leader as they do not have to be involved in solving problems (Weihrich et al., 2008:351).

Some of the disadvantages of this leadership style include a lack of co-operation between a leader and his or her staff, a lack of initiative and an inhibition of creative thought. Other disadvantages include inadequate communication among staff and a strained atmosphere in the workplace or classroom. There is a tendency for employees to lack commitment to the goals of the organisation, especially if supervisors are not around to monitor them (Weihrich, et al., 2006:351). Hoyle (2006:595) argues that in the school system, if excessive accountability is demanded by stakeholders, it can lead to an authoritarian climate.

1.7.2 The democratic leadership style

The democratic leadership style is people-oriented and group members are accorded with respect and their welfare is paramount. Individual and group initiatives and creativity are encouraged (Kondalkar, 2007:229). A democratic leader motivates with recognition, praise and group affiliation (Weihrich et al., 2008:351). In this form of leadership, a leader solicits input from staff and believes that they should be part of the decision-making process (Batemen & Snell, 2009:445). This leadership style is characterised by making decisions after consulting with staff and with pupils in a school setting. It facilitates participatory management and helps to foster collaboration and team spirit (Mullins, 2007:371). It allows for freedom of thought and action from followers within the framework of the mission and objectives of the school and helps the group realise its objectives, which results in a positive group spirit.

A democratic style of leadership enhances co-operation and trust among members. There is a sense of belonging to an organisation and crises are better managed and resolved. In addition, there is two-way communication among members in the organisation. In a classroom setting, the atmosphere is relaxed and pupils are free to contribute to the lesson while maintaining authority in the classroom is easy. Above all, it fosters pupils’ individual initiative and creativity. However, there are some disadvantages, such as delayed decision-making because
of the participatory nature of this leadership style and chances of group or individual dominance (Kondalkar, 2007:229).

1.7.3 The laissez-faire leadership style

The laissez-faire or free-rein leadership style is characterised by indecision, indifference or a lukewarm attitude to staff and the achievement of organisational goals (Kondalkar, 2007:229). Such a leader allows staff to have their way and listens more than speaks, leaving staff to set and pursue their own goals (Weihrich et al., 2008:351). It is a leadership philosophy characterised by an absence of managerial decision-making (Bateman & Snell, 2009:445). It is individual-centred and leadership is exercised by suggestion and delegation. The success of this leadership style depends exclusively on the contributions of the followers. There is hardly any leadership and group members are allowed maximum freedom and the leader actually stays in the background.

This leader believes that there should be no rules and regulations and that everyone has an inborn sense of responsibility. This style allows members freedom to be what they want to be and decisions could be delayed or swayed in favour of a particular group. The laissez-faire leader can be manipulated by members who are experts in micropolitics and individuals with domineering attitudes will always have their way in the organisation.

The above have shown that in public secondary schools, teachers should understand how to exercise leadership and to what extent their effectiveness as leaders can be improved. Leaders should adopt a style that emphasises effective human relations and creates a favourable environment that allows for initiatives from members in planning and the execution of goals. A leader should initiate change and encourage participation in order to maintain effective communication and should delegate roles and responsibilities based on aptitude. There should be a balance between a task-oriented leadership style and a people-oriented leadership style as this will enhance creativity and collaboration. I discuss the concept of policies in the context of NPSS in Section 1.8.
1.8 POLICIES ON LEADERSHIP IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

In Nigeria, a principal is recognised as the administrative, academic and social head of a school. He or she must use his or her professional expertise for the advancement of the school (PP-TESCOM, 2003:32). There are responsibilities, academic, administrative and social, and special regulations that a principal must undertake or perform with multiple management challenges (Ibid:32-34). Teachers are grouped according to their subject area under a head of department and are appointed by a principal (ibid:42-43). Appointment depends on seniority, qualification and performance (ibid:42). They work with the principal to ensure the realisation of education goals. The quality of the leadership makes a significant difference to school and student outcomes (Bush, 2009:375).

Leithwood and Riehl (2005:15-19) make four strong claims on the importance of school leadership and the way it contributes to the improvement of student learning. School leader responsibilities include developing and implementing education programmes through formulating curriculums, setting goals, planning school activities, developing the instruction of staff and delegating duties. Other responsibilities include maintaining good school relationships with the host community and other stakeholders. All these responsibilities come with accountability. The various duties of school leaders are specified in the Lagos State Teachers Handbook of 2003 (PP-TESCOM, 2003).

The prescribed duties enhance the efficiency, specialisation and training of subordinates (PP-TESCOM, 2003:38-47). Teachers serve as patrons or matrons of student associations or supervise school-based associations to aid the development of students. Above all, a principal is expected to monitor and supervise the activities and progress of the school societies (ibid:57). In public schools, some teachers are appointed or elected into teachers’ unions or subject associations and serve on committees set up by a principal. Thus, teachers gain informal teacher leadership experience. Education is based on a dynamic model of formulating education policies. The model is adaptable to changes and appropriate for a developing country and multi-ethnic nation such as Nigeria (Imam, 2012:194).

Jaiyeoba and Atanda (2005) maintain that “education policy represents definite courses of action proposed by the government in power or an executive authority and adopted as
expedient to the issues and problems of education”. Education policies may take the form of an ordinance, a code or even an act. All policies are subject to change because of changes in the political leadership of Nigeria. Thus, stakeholders in the Nigerian education system are often caught in this web when government changes existing education policy (Jaiyeoba & Atanda, 2005). Therefore, changes have resulted in three revised editions of the NPE in 1981, 1988 and 2004. The latest revised edition (2004) has the following peculiarities based on innovations and best practice (Imam, 2012:196). It made education in Nigeria the government’s responsibility in terms of centralised control and funding and it has a broad curriculum that aims to create learning opportunities for all children, irrespective of sex, background or ability.

On 11 July 2005, the Lagos State House of Assembly enacted a law to regulate the management of secondary schools in the state. The new legislation specified that teachers must rise through the ranks to become principals. Classroom teachers in Lagos State cannot become principals until they first become a vice-principal and have two-year’s experience in that position. Eligible vice-principals are then shortlisted and write a duty-post examination, which is usually conducted by the Teachers Establishment and Pensions Office (TEPO) in collaboration with the education district offices. The examination is both oral and written. Only university graduates can become principals and must have attained a grade level 15.

Principals may not necessarily be teachers, as it is possible for civil servants from ministries and local government services that have been transferred to schools to write the qualifying examination, be shortlisted and eventually become principals (Section 17, Lagos State Post Primary Teaching Service Law of 2005). There is no appeal process in the promotion exercise. The exercise is seen as a privilege and not a right and it is possible for a candidate to pass the qualifying examination and not be appointed as a principal. The policies guide conduct and promote professional development. However, such policies must ensure that it does not discriminate in any way or alienate any member of the group. It must be inclusive to all.

The above discussion shows that a principal is recognised as the accounting officer for a school. The policy emphasises the traditional model of leadership and does not take teachers into consideration as leaders in public secondary schools. There is a need for policies to
reflect best practice as a way of acceding to the growing demand for multiple leaders in schools. This study aims to examine policies that influence the practice of teacher leadership in public secondary schools. The review of literature has shown that gaps still exist in the models and types of leadership in schools. It is imperative to look at critical education leadership as the theoretical framework for the study. This is discussed in Section 1.9.

1.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Critical theory would provide a better understanding of the situation from first-hand experience. It is the belief of critical theorists that it is necessary to understand the lived experience of real people in context. Followers of this theory claim that critical theory shares the ideas and the methodologies of some interpretive theories. Choi (2007:490) explains that interpretive theory focuses on the meanings that shape human actions and social practices. Moreover, Freire (1974) describes critical pedagogy as “a radical approach to education that seeks to transform oppressive structures in society using democratic and activist approaches to teaching and learning”. Advocates of this theory insist that critical pedagogy is the transformation of a marginalised community and the empowerment of individuals faced with domination and oppression that returns to them their lost voice and identity (Giroux, 1998; Kincheloe & McLaren, 2005). It helps in raising awareness and in rejecting violations and discrimination against people (Gor, 2005:1).

This aligns with Davis’s (2008:140) assertion that critical theory aims to promote social justice among the oppressed and marginalised or disadvantaged people. It plans to disrupt traditional power structures inherent in an organisation through empowerment and struggle. According to Davidson, Evans, Ganote, Henrickson, Priebe, Jones, Prilleltensky and Riemer (2006:38), empowerment refers to people’s perception of the control over their lives and their actual capacity to effect a change through social action. Davidson et al., (2006:38) defines social action as the intentional effort of an individual or a group of people to instigate transformational change in others to overcome internal and external sources of oppression and to pursue wellness and liberation or to resist oppression.

Rush (2004:9-10) explains that critical theory “is not merely descriptive, it is a way to instigate social change by providing knowledge of the forces of social inequality that can, in
turn, inform political action aimed at emancipation (or at least at diminishing domination and inequality)”. This study is grounded in critical theory which tries to expose and question the hegemony of traditional power structures to promote change in public secondary schools (Davis, 2008:140). The theory is based on the assumption that society is essentially discriminatory but can be checked through purposeful human action (ibid:140). Therefore, the emphasis shifts to members of the group to think independently and then take action that can emancipate them from the shackles of hegemony. Teachers in public secondary schools need to take the bull by the horn through practical strategies that would emancipate them from hegemonic tendencies.

Gunter (2001:105) explains that “the contribution made by critical theorist in collaboration with educational professionals is to show through intellectual dialogue and reflexivity, alternate understanding and practice that can be generated”. Foster’s (1989) four demands of leadership connect critical theory to education leadership theory by suggesting the existence of and requirement for the enactment of a “critical leadership” (Bradley-Levine, 2008:4). Foster’s four demands and the ideas of critical pedagogy will be used to explore teacher leadership in public secondary schools. Neumann, Jones and Webb (2012a:8) maintain that critical leadership “attends to the issue of social justice and social responsibility”.

It attempts to “create as well as to maintain equitable social relationships and practices on a level playing field for all members of the organisation” (Neumann et al., 2012a:8). NPSS need to achieve equity through reflection and dialogue to reach school and education goals (Neumann et al., 2012a:8). Teachers’ understanding of critical leadership or teaching for social justice in NPSS will enable them to be more prepared to identify and resist outside control that comes from politicians or parents and threatens their professional expertise and professional knowledge (Neumann et al., 2012a:8).

The concept of teacher leadership challenges the hierarchical conception of education leadership and suggests a relationship between critical theory and “critical leadership” (ibid:4). It is only when teachers become critical leaders that it will be possible for them to effect change in teacher leadership strategies that involve collaborative leadership approaches for every public school’s stakeholders (that is, the principal, teachers, students, parents and
the community) towards achieving effective and efficient leadership that may enhance high learner academic achievement.

There is the need for Nigerian teachers to have a positive outlook, a good self-image and belief in their ability to effect a change. It is also of importance for them to have the knowledge as well as the necessary skills and attitudes to overcome stigma or inhibitions that prevent them from leadership positions. Thus, empowering employees and encouraging autonomy and participation is the key in achieving effectiveness in organisation (Bolman & Deal, 2008). In achieving this, Luthans (2011:323) opines that empowerment should become embedded in an organisation’s institutionalised cultural values that become operational through participation, innovation, access to information and accountability. Empowerment is achieved by questioning the implications of social and moral issues and by seeking shared understanding of the social action (ibid:140). Oakes and Lipton (2003) debate the role of teachers and the curriculum in the use of transformation:

If teachers are to be prepared, interested and educated participants of transformation and change, then teacher educators have a responsibility to inform teachers about how the use of leadership practices play out in political spheres of education reform and in relation to the kinds of curriculum and pedagogical knowledge they use. (Oakes & Lipton, 2003:20)

There is a link between critical theory and teacher leadership and the relevance of the theory to this study is hinged on the role it accords to the exploration and self-reflection of participants to bring about change. Teachers are discriminated against through action, words and policies that hamper their practice of leadership in schools. To transform the education landscape, teachers need to understand the way in which leadership works in schools and how to challenge and alter the various policies in school. This is consistent with Neumann, Jones and Webb’s (2012b:2) assertion that “leadership should be included in the teacher education curriculum to better inform teachers and enable them to navigate the micropolitical environment in the school”.

I intend to develop and explore Foster’s (1989) new perspective on the practice of teacher leadership as a relationship rather than as a behaviour or function. Foster (1989:46) argues that leadership “must be socially critical, it does not reside in an individual but in the relationship between individuals, and it is oriented towards social vision and change, not
simply, or only organisational goals”. Foster’s thesis aligns with this study that contends that leadership is not the preserve of an individual, but resides in a multiplicity of leaders in a school working collaboratively to achieve education goals. Exploring teacher leadership in this context is not only about emancipating teachers, but about releasing institutions and structures in schools and society from control, oppression and socio-political issues and religious beliefs that inhibit the practice of teacher leadership in public secondary schools.

Inequality of power arises in an organisational structure when the accumulation of resources is dominated by a person to maintain his or her position and power within an organisation. In this way, roles within an organisation are defined and patterns of authority become institutionalised (Watkins, 2005:15). Watkins (2005:19) maintains that by adopting a critical view of leadership within schools, by recognising that all human agents have some degree of knowledge and by un-masking manipulative, deceptive tactics, school administration can be founded on a more equal power basis. Moreover, many administrative practices would be demystified as the school community gained a critical understanding of those processes that are central to the reshaping of school administration on a more participatory and collaborative basis. This is in line with the aim of this study in exploring teacher leadership so that teachers can be transformational in and outside their classrooms.

The current education policies recast teachers as transformative intellectuals tasked with promoting the national education goals of Nigeria and not only as rendering a national service as state employees. Teachers are required to inculcate in learners the right types of values and attitudes such as respect for human dignity and the rule of law, equity, social justice, tolerance and responsibility (Perumal, 2014:5). Tarrant and Tarrant (2004:115) note that “critical pedagogy as a discipline with both egalitarian and emancipatory ideals holds that rather than being tailored specifically to the demands of the workplace, education should promote the critical skills which are required for learners to become active, reflective and political participants”.

Giroux (1997:104) maintains that critical pedagogy could be achieved when teachers, as transformative intellectuals, learn from students, appreciate their viewpoints and allow them to participate in debate. Teachers can enable students to become cultural producers that can rewrite their experiences and perceptions by creating appropriate conditions in the classroom.
Students will then be able to learn from each other, theorise and understand how to question the authoritarian power of the classroom. Giroux (in Perumal, 2014:5) notes that teachers can be transformative because they can combine scholarly reflection with practice in the service of educating students to be critical thinkers who participate in an informed democracy.

Perumal (2014:50) argues that “transformative intellectuals critically examine political and educational institutions that maintain social inequalities with the intention of transforming them”. Therefore, educators who see themselves as transformative intellectuals are identifiable by their subscription to critical pedagogies. Apple (2007:viii-ix) notes that “critical pedagogues agitate for a critical analysis of the cultural, economic, political, and historical nexus of schooling to acknowledge the lopsided power relations that one finds in race, class, and gender differences”. In the portrayal of teachers as transformative intellectuals, Yoon (2005:727) observes that “the discourse on critical pedagogy is grounded in forms of moral and ethical sensibilities which are predisposed to alleviate the suffering and struggles of the disenfranchised”. The discourse solicits teachers’ identification and internalisation of feelings of passion, appreciation and reward that should accompany their support, care, recognition and salvation of students. Such pedagogic philosophies and enactments should eventuate in an emancipated student identity. In expounding the moral and ethical characteristics of an emancipated identity, Brantlinger contends that:

Whether the target student is from a privileged or disadvantaged background, the ideal of a universal subject who has an emancipated identity should be the goal of critical understanding. Such individuals would eschew social bias and hierarchy as they endorse a social reciprocity moral code. Recognising their own and other’s innate human worth and interdependence, difference would not be equated with inferiority. Individuals with an emancipated identity would use their transformed (democratically and equity-focused) agency to fight oppression and improve world circumstances. (2010:336-337)

The critical pedagogy theorists, in spite of their difference in analysis, are united in the “belief that any sincere pedagogical practice necessitates a commitment to social transformation in solidarity with disenfranchised groups” (Risati & Mollaee, 2012:229). There is some opposition to the goal of critical pedagogy in emancipating the oppressed. One such contention comes from McLaren (2005:7), who shows that critical pedagogy is riddled with tensions and conflicts and is mired in contradictions and should in no way be seen as a unified discipline. Understanding the socio-political, cultural, religious, economic and political dynamics of the Nigerian school system in relation to the education landscape is important in
making sense of the status quo. Casting Nigerian teachers as transformative intellectuals is significant in the ideological and philosophical desire of the country’s national goals where their school roles are premised on the tenets of critical pedagogy.

Foster’s (1989) way of thinking and practice of leadership enable teachers to be critical of and reflective on policies or practices that hinder them and from reaching their leadership potentials. The struggle for freedom must begin with teachers being fully aware of the issues and ready to change the status quo. Teachers will need to understand the socio-political, cultural, religious, economic and political dynamics of Nigeria in relation to the education landscape. As Kinchelo and McLaren (2005:305) point out, critical pedagogy will enable people to think critically and recognise the forces that subtly shape their lives by being critical, educative, transformative and ethical in their dealings.

1.9.1 Leadership as critical

Critical leadership depends on school leaders democratising their practice, working towards social change and challenging their colleagues to do the same (Foster, 1989:35). Teachers can only be critical leaders once they understand themselves and the forces that have shaped their identity. Being critical is also about re-conceptualising common ideals such as freedom and democracy (ibid:35). Giroux (1997:265) asserts that “there should be political education in schools whereby students are taught to take risks, challenge those with power, honour critical traditions and be reflective about how authority is used in the classroom”. Political understanding helps learners grow. If education lacks political debate, “the role of teachers as intellectual is reduced to a technician engaged in formalistic rituals unconcerned with disturbing any urgent problems that confront larger society” (Giroux, 1997:265).

In NPSS, teachers’ perceive their roles and responsibilities as a technician. Freire (1970:48-49) stresses the need for awareness and reflection and states that it is only when teachers discover themselves to be “hosts” of the oppressor that they can liberate pedagogy. This is in line with Dengener’s (2001:1) postulation that teachers have a critically reflective role in producing an open and equal environment to enable them to engage in deep self-reflection about their position and the effects of their authority in the classroom. Crabtree and Sapp (2004:110) describe self-reflection as a “form of questioning one’s motives, purpose,
ideology and pedagogy as informed by theory and habit”. It will enable the “students to understand reasons behind the facts” (Dengener, 2001:4). Self-reflection enables teachers to make their classes student-centred by not accepting unsuccessful education ideas and oppressive forms in their own education practices (Higgins, 1996).

1.9.2 Leadership as educative

Foster (1989:37) maintains that educative leadership is intended for teachers to question traditions and aspects of their previous narratives. Questioning will help them to understand better alternatives of ordering their lives. Questioning will help to raise the awareness of the learners about their own social conditions (Foster, 1989:37). Questioning will help teachers to visualise alternative possibilities of present and past narratives and this will help to bring about change. Finley (2008:143) claims that by engaging in narrating their own lives, they will gain a better understanding about their lived realities. These narratives reveal the problems inherent in social structures that are played out in people’s lives.

1.9.3 Leadership as transformative

As noted by Foster (1989:36), the critical spirit of leadership leads to transformation and social change. Transformation occurs when “commonplace” leaders change their situations. Thus, “permanent transformation is needed in schools to change the social structures, languages, beliefs, cultural and ethnic norms used to describe teachers and which teachers themselves have unconsciously accepted as the norm, but must be challenged and changed towards a better and effective school”. Foley (2007:5) argues that teachers should challenge the current structure by rejecting long-standing cultural expectations and more of their own and the system. They must give up much of the power that is given to them through their titles (Foley, 2007). According to Freire (1998), teachers must deal with their own concepts of freedom and authority if they are to create autonomy for students in the classroom.

1.9.4 Leadership as ethical

Ethical leadership requires a leader to demonstrate both personal and corporate morality that aligns with the democratic values of a community. A leader must use his or her position to achieve communal benefits rather than personal benefits. In public schools, prescribed ethical standards are clearly outlined in education policies which teachers must pursue in line with
national standards of the country. The study of Trevino, Brown and Hartman (2003:15-17) revealed that ethical leaders use transactional influence processes, such as standard setting, performance appraisal and rewards and punishments, to hold followers accountable for ethical conduct and transformational leadership styles. The above discussions have shown that critical awareness will allow teachers to uphold democratic principles against dominant forces that hinder them from self-actualisation and help them to understand the alternatives that can bring about social change. Positive attitudes, honesty and integrity are crucial in transforming teachers and schools. Teachers need to jointly confront vices that tend to oppress others and themselves from achieving education goals. The context of teacher leadership is discussed in Section 1.10.

1.10 CONTEXTUALISING TEACHER LEadership

Angelle (2010:1) contends that today’s school leaders have a far more complex and demanding job than in the past and that one leader cannot do all the work of leadership in schools. The demands of day-to-day school leadership are on the increase as are the demands for school improvement and education outcomes (Abari, 2005:181; Gentilucci & Muto, 2007:219). In addition, there is growing sentiment among researchers that the traditional models of leadership are obsolete and inadequate in understanding both the dynamic and contextual nature of leadership in schools (Grenda, 2006:566; Gronn, 2002:425). The researchers advocate for a new way of thinking about school leadership that involves multiple leaders in schools (Smylie, Conley & Marks, 2002:165; Spillane, 2006:15).

The new perspective of leadership in schools goes beyond headship or formal positions and emphasises learning collaboratively, working together on school development and involving the community to bring about better teaching and learning processes. This new perspective of leadership is termed “teacher leadership” (Grant, 2005:45; Mayo, 2002:28; York-Barr & Duke, 2004:288). The various concepts of teacher leadership and the variety of definitions and concepts in literature is a major problem for researchers (Grenda, 2006:567). Perez (2012:2) argues that many administrators do not recognise or understand teacher leadership. As a result of this, there are various definitions of teacher leadership in literature that compete and overlap with each other (Harris, 2005:204). Leonard, Petta and Porter (2012:189) note that numerous researchers in the last 20 years have wrestled with the definition and
conceptualisation of teacher leadership. Teachers are defined according to their roles and positions with formal or informal authority.

In formal roles, a teacher acts as a departmental chair, curriculum specialist or leader of an accreditation committee, while in informal roles, a teacher is a mentor, coach, member of a school improvement team or facilitator of community partnerships or PTAs (Harris, 2003, in Leonard et al., 2012:190). In conceptualising teacher leadership, some researchers have focused on the traits of teacher leaders, such as having a “willingness to take risks, flexibility, intrapersonal and strong interpersonal skills and lifelong learning” (Angelle & Schmid, 2007:775). Harris and Muijs (2005:16-18) provide three phases of teacher leadership: first as formal positions such as departmental chairs, second as instructional leaders and curriculum developers and third as people “central to the process of generating organisational development and change through their collaborative and instructional efforts”. The paragraph below provides a broad definition of teacher leadership:

Teacher leadership refers to teachers’ individual agency, often with reference to classroom management and pedagogy but in some cases referring to wider collegial influence with colleagues, with curriculum development and policy making within or across schools. As well as being cast as an individual activity, teacher leadership may also refer to groups or teams of teachers with a leadership remit for aspects of policy or practice (Bangs & MacBeath, 2012:331).

Boyd-Dimmock and McGee (1995:1) state that teacher leadership is not a new concept, while Bradley-Levine (2011:247) argues that teacher leadership has been debated over for the last 40 years. The traditional leadership roles are inflexible and require lengthy, ongoing commitment of time and energy to change them. The concept of teacher leadership is guided by a conviction that all members in a community have knowledge and expertise that can benefit an organisation (NASBE, 2008:1). As a concept, teacher leadership invokes different ideas and concerns in people on issues such as professional development, accountability and learner outcomes (Murphy, 2005:144; Smylie & Mayrowetz, 2009:279).

Wasley (1991:4) suggests that “in a collaborative environment, teacher leadership has the ability to encourage colleagues to change, to do things they would not ordinarily consider without the influence of the leader”. To Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998:149), the concept of
teacher leadership is grounded in a teacher’s work with students and this is based on the fact that:

Teacher leadership involves the experimentation and examination of more powerful learning activities with and for students, in the service of enhanced student productions and performances of knowledge and understanding. Based on this leadership with and of students, teacher leaders invite other teachers to similar engagements with students in the learning process (1998:149).

Fullan and Hargreaves (1996:13) urge teachers to participate in leadership activities, since they are a significant part of the school. In addition, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001:5) state that teachers as leaders “lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teachers, learners and leaders who influence others towards improved educational practice”. Teacher leadership, according to the IEL, is:

Not about “teacher power”, rather, it is about mobilising the still largely untapped attributes of teachers to strengthen student performance at ground level and working toward real collaboration, a locally tailored kind of shared leadership, in the daily life of the school. Teachers must be an essential part of that leadership, never more so than when issues of instructional leadership are at stake (2001:4).

These definitions lay emphasis on teacher leader power over formal positions and in their contribution towards improved practice. This study agrees with scholars that leadership that is located in a position, age or job title is irrelevant to the new concept of leadership, which emphasises working collaboratively to achieve school goals (Neuman & Simmons, 2000:10). This position is supported by Harris and Muijs (2002:1) who point out that teacher leadership “is a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively”. Teachers that work collaboratively will develop mutual trust and share ideas. Crowther, Kaggan, Ferguson and Hann (2002:10) maintain that teacher leadership is “a facilitating principled action in order to achieve whole school success. It thereby relates to the distinctive power embedded in teaching which help in achieving whole success that will be meaningful for children, youth and adults which can also contribute to a long-term enhanced quality of community life”. Leadership is about developing high-quality teaching and learning in schools with a view of improving learning and is premised on professional collaboration, development and quality (Harris & Muijs, 2003:1). Teacher leadership is based on whole school success.
Murphy (2005:52) states that teacher leadership “borders on raising teachers’ sense of empowerment, thereby expanding their professional status and supporting local autonomy, so they can realise their professional worth”. Angelle (2007:59) regards teacher leadership as a vehicle for implementing school reform, which requires commitment from all members of the school community, while Grant (2005:416) views it as a form of leadership beyond headship or a formal position. Leadership implies teachers taking up informal and formal leadership roles in the classroom and beyond for school development and community involvement. Furthermore, it involves “courage, risk-taking, perseverance, trust and enthusiasm in the culture of transparency and mutual learning” (Grant, 2006:529).

Harris (2003:315) reveals the opportunities in sharing and distributing organisational responsibilities in teacher leadership, therefore providing better advantages over the conventional types of leadership practice. Poerkert (2012:171) says that “credible teachers exercise formal or informal influence over supervisors, colleagues and members of the school community through collaborative relationships that improve teaching and learning practices”. Miller, Moon and Elko (2000:4) maintain that teachers’ actions outside the classrooms “provide professional development to colleagues, by influencing their communities or policies or acting as adjunct staff to teachers in their classroom practices to effect changes”. Crowther et al., (2009:28) note that teacher leadership is “essentially an ethical stance based on the views of a better world and the power of teachers to shape meaning systems”. It presents a new form of thinking and understanding of what contributes to school improvement and quality of life in a community.

The different definitions of teacher leadership show that teacher leadership helps to improve the quality of schools and helps teachers to improve their professional practice which, in turn, helps students and communities to progress. The teacher leadership concept aligns with African traditional leadership as both concepts emphasise the rejection of hierarchy in favour of the collective (distributed) leadership. Traditional African leadership is enshrined in the concept of ubuntu “which embraces interdependence, human dignity and respect through consensus democracy and people mobilisation, solidarity and care”, all of which are key elements of the African leadership paradigm (Werner, 2010:303). Mbigi (2004) highlights the key principles of traditional African leadership: respect for the dignity of others, group
solidarity, teamwork, service to others in the spirit of harmony, interdependence and persuasion in contrast to conventional authoritarian leadership.

The principles of ubuntu can help assist in dislodging top-down leadership and oppression in schools as it advocates for empowerment, democracy, people mobilisation, solidarity and care of one’s fellow human beings. The philosophy inherent in ubuntu can help foster collaboration and dialogue which will enhance teacher leadership (Pretorius, 2004; Werner, 2010:303). This will lead to examining teacher leadership roles as discussed in the following section.

1.10.1 Teacher leadership roles

The TRCN has outlined both the administrative and academic roles of teachers in the Teachers’ Code of Conduct. Teachers are expected to inspire and motivate subordinates through exemplary character worthy of being a teacher and to empower them to advance and be the best in their professional career. The code also prescribes some characteristics expected of teachers in the discharge of their duties such as justice, self-respect, charisma, foresight, consistency and moral uprightness. Similarly, they are expected to be objective and fair in all their dealings and should not engage in any activities that will tarnish the image of the profession. In addition, they are expected to promote group decision-making in an organisation and should be interested in academic development by keeping abreast of best practices in their areas of academic expertise.

The code also enjoins teachers to participate in research and development. It obliges teachers to ensure the all-round development of learners, through a good mix of both curricular and co-curricular activities (TRCN, 2013:17). Teacher leaders are first and foremost expert teachers who spend the majority of their time in the classroom, but take on leadership roles by assisting in administration and managerial duties in a school system (Harris & Muijs, 2005:16; Harris & Lambert, 2003:44). Patterson and Patterson (2004:74) contend that teacher leaders also promote collaborative activities with colleagues whether in a formal or informal capacity to improve teaching and learning. Another teacher leadership role is to present information about curriculum, testing, textbooks and other school matters to groups of parents, community members and school boards (WestEd, 2003:4). Wilson (1993:25) claims
that teacher leaders are role models for students. Literature has shown that “many teacher leaders performed these activities in their formal leadership position while accomplishing these leadership roles without the benefit of a formal title” (Harris & Muijs, 2002, 2005; Smylie & Mayrowetz, 2009:278-80). The examination of various teacher leadership roles is presented below.

1.10.2 Teacher leader administrative roles

Teacher leaders’ administrative roles in Nigeria include participation in staff meetings, PTA meetings as well as meetings at the district level. The leadership role enables teachers to assist the school in implementing education policies and planning programmes that will be beneficial to the school. Teacher leaders’ other administrative roles are to act as patrons or matrons of student associations or to supervise school associations and clubs to aid the total development of pupils. Teachers also serve in various school committees such as disciplinary, examination, sports, timetable, guidance and counselling committees (PP-TESCOM, 2003:23). Some teachers are appointed or elected to teachers’ unions or subject associations and have leadership experience within the school. In addition, teacher leaders also serve as project implementation committee members and as liaisons between the school and the community.

These administrative roles performed by teachers are under the auspices of a principal. Principal and teacher must collaborate on these responsibilities (PP-TESCOM, 2003:32). For the collaboration to be effective, a principal must be ready to support and encourage teacher leadership by providing and distributing leadership activities to teachers (Crowther et al., 2002:33; York-Barr & Duke, 2004:273). However, a relationship is significant in distributing leadership and in teacher leader effectiveness (LeBlanc & Shelton, 1997:38; Silva et al., 2000:795-796). Research reveals that the main contributions of teacher leaders are in the areas of “mentoring, design and implementation of curricular work based on standards and benchmarks, working with teachers in professional development opportunities, organisational management as department or grade level chairs and influencing others through collaboration” (James, 2014:12; Owen, 2007:99-100).
1.10.3 Teacher leader collaborative roles

Teacher leadership roles also include working collaboratively with colleagues to improve teaching and learning in schools (Zeichner, 2003:319). Hausman and Goldring (2001:31) describe schools as potential, “communal organisations” characterised by “enhanced collegiality and collaboration”. Examples of collaboration activities in schools could include team teaching, peer-reviewing of articles or providing constructive advice on teaching to colleagues. Teacher leaders emphasise their relationship with colleagues and often connect with fellow teachers in a way administration cannot (Wilson, 1993:25). Zeichner (2003:319) maintains that collaboration allows teachers to “participate and contribute to the teaching and learning process by sharing ideas with each other and understanding issues from others point of view”. Collaboration helps teachers to develop new dispositions and skills that foster personal and academic relationships between teachers (Ibid:319).

Silva, Gimbert and Nolan (2000:801) observe that collaboration enables teacher leaders to discuss common problems and helps them share approaches to various learning situations by “exploring ways to overcome the structural constraints of limited time, space, resources and restrictive policies”. Collaborations help teachers investigate motivational strategies that will bring students to a deep engagement with their learning. Teacher leaders also mentor their colleagues and help them to be effective in their classrooms. They coach teachers on new practices or help them to familiarise themselves with changes (Day & Harris, 2002). Teacher leaders also collaborate on extracurricular activities by supporting colleagues and planning and implementing staff development programmes through training, workshops and sharing of best practices (Olujuwon, 2013).

The findings of LeBlanc and Shelton (1997:44) revealed the importance of collaboration among teacher leaders through committees and projects that help them to impact their school environments. This agrees with the study of Whitsett and Riley (2003:12-13) that central to teacher leadership is building relationships with peers and influencing colleagues’ work towards school improvement. Hickey and Harris (2005:16) state that teacher leadership’s “strongest contributions are in the areas of professional development, collaboration, as well as sharing of expertise and knowledge”. Lieberman and Miller (2004) assert that teacher leaders contribute to building school-wide vision. York-Barr and Duke (2004:266-267) state that
“teachers leaders’ collaborative roles extend beyond schools as they work to establish relationships with parents and the community”.

The findings of Goddard, Goddard and Tschannen-Moran (2007:892) suggest that teacher collaboration may improve a school’s ability to foster student achievement. Their findings also show that, because of the low level of collaboration, teachers may be unwilling to take personal risk, especially if they have worked in isolation for many years. In spite of this, they believe that collaboration can “encourage teachers to move beyond reliance of their own memories and experiences with schooling and toward engagement with others around important questions of teaching and learning” (Goddard et al., 2007:892).

1.10.4 Teacher leader pedagogical roles

A teacher’s professional role in the school is to teach students. However, a teacher also has other duties such as serving on committees to select textbooks and instructional material (WestEd, 2003:4). Teachers help to implement the school curriculum as part of their pedagogical roles (Okebukola, 1997:7) and engage in establishing standards for student behaviour and school-wide classroom management policies (Zeichner, 2003:309). Youitt (2007:1) contends that “teacher leaders lead learning by embracing new methods of teaching and learning; they understand the importance of the relationship between teachers and students”. They also, “frequently engage in the use of new technologies in their classrooms and understand the need for resourcing flexibility to support educational innovations” (Youitt, 2007:1).

In a summary review of teacher leadership practices, Schiavo, Miller, Busey and King (2010:3-6) note that teacher leaders’ pedagogical roles focus on providing support to teachers to improve their instruction, including supporting each other with classroom observation and giving feedback, leading workshops, engaging in joint lesson planning, or team teaching and leading teacher work groups. Zinn (1997:43) argues that the use of co-operative learning and enquiry teaching methods has an impact on teacher and student learning.
1.10.5 Teacher leader research roles

Wasley (1991:5) states that the teacher leader’s research role includes helping to redesign schools, mentoring colleagues, engaging in problem-solving at school level and providing professional growth activities for colleagues. They also identify and solve specific problems in schools (Ash & Persall, 2000:21; Zeichner, 2003:309). Research has shown that teacher leader research roles help teachers to become more flexible and open to new ideas in teaching (Zeichner, 2003:303). Teacher leader research roles also include collecting and analysing wider school data to solve problems (Halverson, Grigg, Prichett & Thomas, 2005:40).

When teachers conduct research they can enhance positive changes in the culture and productivity of schools and improve the status of the teaching profession in society. Research also enhances knowledge production about teaching and learning that is useful to teachers, academics, researchers and policy makers. These research roles help improve the effectiveness of teacher leaders and act as a model for colleagues to take on leadership roles (Harrison & Killion, 2007:75-76).

1.10.6 Formal and informal teacher leader roles

Traditionally, teachers are associated with formal titles that identify them as teacher leaders. The traditional method of gaining teacher leadership is through obtaining an administrative position, being involved in the activist movement, participating in union activities, being a member in an advisory committee or acting as a mentor (IEL, 2001:3). Nigeria has both non-positional (informal) and formal career progression avenues for teachers (Adelabu, 2005:17; Arikewuyo, 2009:89). Administrative teacher leadership roles involve nomenclature such as a lead teacher, master teacher, departmental head, union representative, mentor or a member of the school governing council (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999 in Kadela, 2009:1).

Teacher leaders are expected to perform many functions. Research has shown that teachers may engage in informal leadership without the benefit of a designated title (Smylie & Mayrowetz, 2009:285). Informal teacher leadership is gained through sharing expertise, volunteering for school projects, assisting colleagues with classroom duties and engaging in experimentation and examination of powerful instructional techniques with colleagues (Leithwood et al., 1999:10).
In the preceding section, I discussed the various roles of teacher leaders according to administrative, collaborative, pedagogical and research roles. The administrative roles of teachers include activities which help in the everyday administration of the school in achieving its set goals (Day & Harris, 2002). Teachers also work with administrators to develop education plans for school improvement (Harrison & Killion, 2007:76). In addition, teachers engage in collaborative roles as mentors, coaches and in sharing information with colleagues and the community (Day & Harris, 2002). The teacher pedagogical roles focus on instituting the best instructional practice by selecting textbooks, developing curriculum and helping to implement new instructional programmes (Barth, 2001:444). Teacher leaders also conduct research to solve problems in schools and student data (Ash & Persall, 2000:21).

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) suggest the following roles that a teacher leader should play in schools. The first is to be a leader to students or colleagues, a facilitator, coach, mentor, trainer and curriculum specialist. The teacher leader should also create new approaches, lead study groups, be a leader of operational tasks, keep the school organised and move towards achieving its goals through roles as either a head of department, action researcher or member of a task force. The second leadership role is to be involved in decision-making or partnership through membership of school improvement teams and committees. The teacher leader should also be an instigator of partnerships with businesses, higher education institutions, local education authorities and PTAs. Hickey and Harris (2005:14) argue that providing teachers with leadership opportunities improves both the school and the classroom. For this study, teacher leaders are those individuals who are committed to the goals of teaching and learning processes and have moved beyond the traditional roles associated with teachers to assume an informal leadership role in the school in order to improve schools, self and student learning. I discuss the phases of teacher leadership in Section 1.11.

1.11 THE PHASES OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Silva, Gimbert and Nolan (2000:779-780) have documented the phases of teacher leadership. They explain that teacher leadership has evolved in three waves and has “gradually de-linked the idea from the formal organisational hierarchy”. In the first wave, teachers serve in formal leadership roles such as departmental heads, union representatives and other traditional
methods of teacher leadership (IEL, 2001:4). In these roles, teachers are seen as managers, with the aim of furthering the efficiency of school operations. Wasley (1991:4) explains that teachers in formal roles ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of the school system.

Silva et al., (2000:780) claim that such teacher roles provide teachers with leadership opportunities in schools. Teachers focus on the effectiveness and efficiency of the system rather than on instructional leadership and this has limited the view of teacher leadership. This limited view of teacher leadership made Frymier (1987:11) conceive teachers as “neutered by the bureaucratic routinisation of teaching and learning that has grown out of administrative attempts to control schools as places with teachers as deskillled workers and students as uniform products”. Silva et al., (2000:780) explain that by viewing teachers as “managers” in the first wave, “teacher leader positions may ironically have contributed to the ‘neutering’ of teachers as well and in recognising this limitation, led them to the exposition of the second wave of teacher leadership”.

In the second wave, Silva et al., (2000) explain that the aim was to capitalise on teachers’ instructional expertise by appointing them into roles as curriculum leaders, staff developers and mentors of new teachers. This provided opportunities for teacher leaders to work informally and in a collaborative manner with peers – a feature not seen in the first wave (ibid:780). This form of leadership is prevalent in many public schools today. The second wave supports the ten roles of teacher leaders defined by Harrison and Killion (2007: 74-77). The roles are discussed below.

**Resource provider:** Helping colleagues share instructional resources with students that may include books, lessons, unit plans, websites or articles.

**Instructional specialist:** Helping colleagues to implement effective strategies that include collaborating on lesson plans with colleagues, studying research-based classroom strategies, exploring instructional methodologies appropriate for the school and sharing findings with colleagues.

**Curriculum specialist:** Developing common curriculum standards, assessments, pacing charts and ensuring the implementation of the curriculum throughout the school.
**Classroom supporter:** Helping teachers implement new ideas in the classroom by demonstrating a lesson, co-teaching or observing and giving feedback.

**Learning facilitation:** Providing opportunities to learn from one another making learning more relevant and focusing on the teacher’s classroom work to help to fill the gaps in student learning.

**Mentor:** Mentoring of new teachers, helping them to adjust to the new school, orientating them about the school’s instruction, curriculum, procedure, practices and politics.

**School leader:** Sharing the school’s vision and aligning a teacher’s professional goals with those of the school and sharing responsibility for the success of the school as a whole. Being a school leader involves being in a committee, such as a school improvement team, a department chair, supporting school initiative or as a representative of the school on community or district committees.

**Data coach:** Leading conversations that engage peers in analysing the data and using the information to strengthen instruction.

**Catalyst for change:** Looking for better ways to improve teaching and learning processes.

**Learner:** Participating in lifelong learning and using what is learnt to help students achieve their education goals.

Silva et al., (2000:780) believe that “even while these positions moved teacher leaders away from management towards teacher pedagogical expertise; these were still outside leadership positions”. They argue that the recognition of the curriculum could not be “teacher-proofed”, even if it was created by teachers. They emphasise the importance of empowering teachers who will work from within the classroom. The inadequacy of the second wave of leadership led to the identification of the third wave of defining teacher leadership (Silva et al., 2000:780). The third wave is based on an awareness of promoting instructional improvement, which has a link with the second wave. It entails an organisational culture that supports
collaboration and continuous learning and recognises teachers as the primary creators and re-creators of school culture (Silva et al., 2000:780).

Silva et al.,’s (2000:780) phases of leadership align with assertions that “teachers are leaders within and outside the classrooms, function in professional learning communities to affect students’ learning. Teachers also contribute to school improvement; this inspires excellence in practice and empowers stakeholders to participate in educational improvement” (Ash & Persall 2000:8; Childs-Bowen, Moller and Scrivner, 2000:28). In the third wave of teacher leadership, teacher leaders influence their colleagues through qualities, characteristics and approaches associated with transformational leadership theories.

A fourth wave of teacher leadership phases was suggested by Pounder (2006). This fourth wave includes transformational classroom leadership practices as one of the defining qualities of teacher leaders that could embrace school and university contexts (Pounder, 2006:542). To effect changes of this magnitude requires a fundamental re-examination and re-alignment of all aspects of the system (Wells, 2010:4-5).

The teacher’s commitment to core values of the teaching profession aligns with the idealised influence and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership (Pounder, 2006:537). Bass and Steidlmeier (1998:6) conclude that leaders are authentically transformational when they have an increasing awareness of what seems right, good and important. By helping followers to be self-actualised, they help to foster high moral maturity. Thoonen, Sleegers, Oort, Peetsma and Geijsel (2011:496-497) found in their study in the Netherlands that transformational leadership practices encourage teachers’ professional learning and motivation and improve school organisational conditions. They conclude that a combination of transformational behaviour is necessary among stakeholders to foster learning and improve teaching practices.

The various phases of teacher leadership highlight the different roles in furthering the efficiency of a school and engaging in professional learning communities that enhance school improvement. Teachers as creators and re-creators of school culture need collaboration and continuous learning to be functional in their professional practice (Silva et al., 2000:780). Transformational practices enable teachers to acquire self-reflection and work towards social
justice and democracy within and outside the school. It will also enhance member’s self-actualisation and foster high moral maturity in them (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1998:6). The following section discusses the dimensions of teacher leadership.

1.12 DIMENSIONS OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Harris (2002:79) identifies four distinguishable dimensions of teacher leadership roles: brokering, participative leadership, mediating and forging relationships. Brokering refers to a teacher translating the principles of school improvement into practice in individual classrooms. The participative leadership role occurs when teachers feel that they are part of the change or development in school improvement. Teachers gain a sense of ownership that fosters collaboration with colleagues to achieve a collective goal. Mediating involves valuing teachers as significant sources of knowledge and information that could be used when needed. Forging relationships with other teachers leads to shared learning of leadership techniques.

Researchers have identified other dimensions of teacher leadership roles such as undertaking action research (Ash & Persall, 2000:17-18), mentoring, induction and professional development (Sherill, 1999:59-60) and sharing new ideas that impact on a school as a whole (Little, 2000). Teacher leadership transforms schools into professional learning communities that improve overall school functioning (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). In Section 1.13, I discuss the link between teacher leadership and professional development.

1.13 TEACHER LEADERSHIP AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Hargreaves (1995:viii) explains that teacher development is often portrayed as a process of human development, involving personal growth and adult learning which can be achieved in practice. Thus, “the real world of schools is also regarded as a political world; a world of power, influence, bargaining and negotiation, assertion and protection. Here, an individual’s developmental needs must be pursued in tune with the needs and wishes of others and sometimes despite them” (Hargreaves, 1995:viii). There is a “relationship between professional development and teacher leadership because; professional development is both a cause and an outcome of teacher leadership” (Poekert, 2012:170). Bolman and Deal (2008) argue that “professional development will enhance teachers new skills required to compete
and understand leadership demands in schools”. Also, it will make staff retention to remain consistent thereby allowing for future growth of the school and the staff.

Therefore, professional development is required to develop teachers as leaders and to conceptualise their roles as “lead learners” that share leadership (Yen-dol-Huppey & Dana, 2010). Also, professional development serves as the impetus for the professionalisation of teaching and the development of teachers’ leadership skills towards influencing and improving the practice of their colleagues (Murphy, 2005:150).

Teacher leadership can result from effective professional development for teachers and principals. Teacher leaders can also create effective professional development that is embedded within the school context. Teachers that become leaders “facilitate effective, school-based professional development for their colleagues by leading communities of practice that collectively examine and improve teaching practice through ongoing enquiry” (Smeets & Ponte, 2009:189-190). Teachers’ participation in professional activities is about collecting new knowledge and innovations to stimulate both their own professional development and that of the school, which contributes significantly to improving teaching and learning (Geijsel, Sleegers, Stoel & Kruger, 2009:408).

Teacher leaders themselves continue to learn and develop in the enactment of leadership at schools, that is, teacher leaders learn through their own leadership (MacBeath & Dempster, 2008). Poerkert (2012:170) sums up by stating that teacher leadership leads to improved professional learning for colleagues and teachers themselves. Available empirical research on teacher leadership illustrates its potential as a successful school reform strategy that can improve teaching and learning (Poekert, 2012:120). To achieve this, there are factors that must be put in place in an organisation, such as community of practice.

1.13.1 Community of practice

Leadership as a community of practice entails the location of leadership in processes among people, rather than in the particular skills or dispositions of one leader. It is about interactions and the involvement of people within a community (Lambert, 2003). Braimoh, Olujuwon and Keshinro (2012:4) have noted five elements of practice of professional learning communities:
shared norms and values, collective focus on student learning, collaboration, de-privatised practice and reflective dialogue. These elements provide a sense of common values and expectations of and for each other. Professional communities do not constitute a hierarchy and a school-wide professional community demands at least a minimal level of each of the elements. In this definition, school leadership practice focuses on leadership activities generated through collaboration, instead of zeroing in on a particular leader and his or her actions.

Thus, professional learning communities are regarded as “an endeavour where people work together to collaboratively and critically reflect on their practices, to learn together and to plan for improvement” (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas, 2006:223). Similarly, it is a powerful tool in developing the capacity of schools and individual teachers that promotes school improvement and educational change (Edwards, 2012:25-47; Stoll, et al., 2006:221). This is achieved, when leaders motivate, inspire and create a sense of confidence and optimism regarding success among colleagues (Eaker & Gonzales, 2007:11). Also, the success of professional learning communities depends on the skill and will of those who lead the process (Eaker & Gonzales, 2007:11).

Community of practice should enhance self-efficacy and have a positive effect on a teacher’s participation in a professional learning community (Geijsel et al., 2009:409). In addition to self-efficacy, teacher commitment to a school as an organisation has been identified as positively related to increased effort, performance and professionalism (Ibid:409). One of the key issues arising from the study of Flores (2004:314) is the provision of learning opportunities in the workplace and viewing teachers as lifelong learners and schools as professional learning communities. This depends on the “process of activity, reflection, emotion and collaboration, supported and nurtured in a community that values such experiences and creates many opportunities for such to occur” (Shulman, 1997:101).

Literature has shown that the purpose of school leadership is to improve school and student performance (OECD, 2011:10). Similarly, it has shown that quality leadership enhances student outcomes and school improvement (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006:3). This study is based on the assumption that exploring teacher leadership will improve schools and enable teachers’ expertise to be used at all levels in a school and that education
leaders at any level can lead and contribute to the growth of a school. Schools as formal organisations are regarded as sites for power, influence, bargaining, negotiation, assertion and protection (Hargreaves, 1995:viii). An individual needs to learn how to align his or her needs and wishes with those of others in the organisation. Murphy (2005:150-152) asserts that “professional development develops teachers as leaders and improves their skills by influencing and improving the practice of colleagues”. Leadership is about people and not about one leader; it involves the interaction and involvement of people in a community (Lambert, 2003). Professional development provides a sense of learning for teachers in collaboration with others to improve the practice of teaching and learning (Fullan, 2008:4-5; Lambert, 2003). The community of practice positively affects a teacher’s participation in a professional learning community and enhances teacher performance and professionalism (Geijsel et al., 2009:409). Literature has shown factors that enhance teacher leadership in schools and this is discussed in Section 1.14.

1.14 FACTORS THAT SUPPORT TEACHER LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOLS

Harris and Muijs (2003:18-21) have listed factors that can enhance the practice of teacher leadership in schools. These include strong leadership and support from the head, school management teams and boards of governors, commitment to action enquiry and reflection with investment in professional development and a co-ordinated effort with clear management structures and structural support for collaboration (such as time and resources).

1.14.1 Collaboration

Collaboration is a process by which two or more people work together in a productive relationship to enhance student learning. Collaboration encourages exchanging best practices which drive teachers away from a narrow classroom perspective (Leblanc & Shelton, 1997:34). The study of Goddard, Goddard and Tschannen-Moran (2007:892-893) revealed that schools where teachers collaborate and foster learning have significantly higher levels of student achievement.
1.14.2 Trust

Trust is recognised as a significant feature for leadership success and a positive factor in promoting school effectiveness, student achievement and collaboration (Coleman, 2012:83-84). Trust is described as confidence in the integrity and abilities of another and serves as a basis for individual or collective action (ibid:87). Trust is fundamental to promoting effective professional learning communities among schools (Ibid:85). Tschannen-Moran (2004:13) states that “without trust, schools are likely to flounder in their attempts to provide constructive educational environments and meet the lofty goals that society has set for them because energy needed to solve the complex problem of educating a diverse group of students is diverted into self-protection”. Trust promotes “mutual respect and credibility between professionals from different backgrounds within the context of extended schools as well as supporting informal interpersonal networks which underpin formal inter-organisational partnership” (Muijs & Harris, 2007:119; Coleman, 2012: 87).

Bryk and Schneider’s (2003:40) longitudinal study of 400 Chicago elementary schools, reveals a strong link between school improvement and trust between teachers, parents and school leaders. They contend that trust is “the connective tissue that binds individuals together to advance the education and welfare of students” based on respect and personal regard for one another. Trust also demonstrates competence and integrity and the absence of trust can “provoke prolonged controversy”. Voulalas and Sharpe (2005:197-200) identify honesty and trust as important interpersonal communication and listening skills that are vital tools for developing leadership across organisations. Harris (2008:184) contends that trust facilitates the development of a congruent culture and generates forms of leadership that promote improvement in an organisation.

Trust can enhance co-operation, mutual understanding and co-operation among members in achieving stated goals. It will enable people to feel safe in sharing knowledge and taking risks (Furman, 2004:222). Studies by Burke, Sims, Lazzara and Salas (2007:623-625) and Yang and Mossholder (2010:51-54) have shown that individual relationships embedded in trust are linked to the positive climate outcomes of higher job satisfaction, cohesion and commitment to the organisation (Price, 2012:43).
1.14.3 School culture

School culture is described as the “way we do things here” and it is defined as “the basic assumptions, norms and values and cultural artefacts that are shared by school members, which influence their functioning at school” (Maslowski, 2001:8-9). School culture manifests itself in rituals, customs, stories and ways of treating one another, as well as artefacts such as language and dressing in a given society (Zhu, Devos & Li, 2011:320). Peterson and Deal (2009:10-11) note that a school’s source of culture lies “beneath the surface of everyday life … an underground river of feelings, folkways, norms and values that influence how people go about their daily work”. Culture shapes interactions and decision-making and increases a sense of community in schools. A school culture that provides opportunities for collaboration, participative decision-making, co-operative, friendly and collegial relationships, open communication and a free-flow of ideas increases a teacher’s commitment and identification with a school (Geijsel et al., 2009:140).

The attitudes and orientation of leaders and members of the group need to change so that distributed leadership can be achieved. This is what Fullan (2001:7) terms “reculturing” and it is the process of changing the way things are done in order to create a culture with a “capacity to seek, critically assess and selectively incorporate new ideas and practices, all the time, inside and outside the organisation”. This indicates that beliefs and practices that hinder teacher leadership in public secondary schools could be questioned and changed.

1.14.4 Principal’s support and teacher leadership

Principals in public secondary schools in Nigeria are responsible for the development and implementation of education programmes through formulating the curriculum, setting goals, planning school activities, learning experiences and developing the instruction of staff through delegation. Other responsibilities include maintaining good school relationships with the host community and stakeholders in the education industry. These responsibilities come with accountability in achieving education goals (PP-TESCOM, 2003:38-47). Experts have argued that school operations are too complex for one person and additional people are needed to assist in the running of a school (Beauchum & Dentith, 2004:277). Barth
(2001:445) emphasises that teacher leaders are useful and reliable as a source of professional help to a principal. Thus, “when teachers lead, principals extend their own capacity”.

Day, Sammons, Hopkins, Harris, Leithwood, Gu and Brown (2010:17) confirm the active and instrumental role a head plays in the distribution of leadership and how it increases the commitment and self-efficacy of staff. Distributed leadership has a direct impact on team development (Bush & Glover, 2012:24). A principal should be ready to extend leadership roles to teachers and accept them as professional colleagues. Moreover, teachers should be ready to accept leadership roles based on expertise, mutual respect and the goals to be achieved. Coleman (2012:101) concludes that “head teachers play a significant role in consistently modelling elements of professionalism and thereby contributing to the (re)construction of the context in which trusting relationships and collaborative work may flourish”.

Research reveals that organisational situations such as participative decision-making processes, teaming, teacher collaboration and an open climate and transformational leadership foster a teacher’s professional learning in school (Silins, Mulford & Zarins, 2002:634-635; Leithwood & Louis, 1998). The research by Ezera-Lusena (2010:140) shows that collaboration, effective communication and trust as well as the establishment of a better school culture, enhances the involvement and participation of school personnel in school management processes. The highlights above are needed in the practice and thinking of teacher leadership in NPSS. It will engender effective communication, co-operation through sharing of ideals and working collaboratively in achieving education goals. It requires the principal as an instructional leader to free themselves from bureaucratic tasks and focus their efforts on improving teaching and learning (Jenkins, 2009:34). That is why, instructional leadership is regarded as “leading communities, in which members of staff on a regular basis meet to discuss, collaborate and reflect on their work to solve problems (The National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2001). The benefits accrued from the practice of teacher leadership are discussed in Section 1.15.

1.15 BENEFITS OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Teacher leadership benefits a school directly by supporting the organisational structure and the culture of collaboration that supports pupil learning. A significant factor that supports
school improvement is teacher collaboration and professional development (Poekert, 2012:170). Muijs and Harris (2007:118-119) contend that effective leadership is a central component of school culture. Furthermore, improved student learning is influenced most by teachers that exercise quality leadership (Fullan, 2006:4; Harris & Muijs, 2002:1). York-Barr and Duke’s (2004:255) study observes that teacher leadership encourages the “continuous improvement of teaching and learning … with the result being the increased achievement for every pupil”. They categorise the benefits of teacher leadership as decision-making, teacher expertise, recognition, growth and student achievement. These categories are discussed below.

**Decision-making:** This occurs when teachers contribute to development and school organisational policies. It improves their sense of commitment thereby empowering them. Barth (2001:455) states that “teachers that lead have the opportunity to sit ‘at the table with grown-ups’”.

**Teacher expertise:** Teachers, due to their professionalism, provide students with an opportunity to understand their abilities, motives, needs and aspirations (Cuban, 2003:54-55; Shulman, 1997).

**Recognition and growth:** It is necessary to recognise a teacher’s work.

**Student achievement:** The work teacher leaders engage in on the curriculum and instruction improves their knowledge and skills which contribute to student achievement. Literature has shown that teacher leadership benefits teachers, the school, colleagues and students.

**1.15.1 Benefits of teacher leadership for teachers**

Teacher leadership benefits teachers through their ability to share ideas. In addition, it instils confidence in teachers and increases their skills, competencies and effectiveness in schools. Similarly, it reduces isolation as opportunities are provided for teamwork. Moreover, it helps teachers vary their responsibilities and expand their influence (Donaldson, 2005:29; Johnson & The Next Generation of Teachers, 2004).
1.15.2 Benefits of teacher leadership for schools

Copland (2003:394) asserts that where leadership is distributed it provides the capacity, coherence and ownership needed to sustain and deepen reforms. In addition, it impacts on school-wide policies and procedures and provides opportunities for teachers inside and outside a school (Donaldson, 2007:27). Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris and Hopkins (2006:6-7) provide a picture of the way in which leadership influences learning through establishing directives and articulating a vision for shared organisational purposes, setting high expectations and monitoring performances. Moreover, people development can be achieved by creating and stimulating opportunities and providing models of effective practice and individual support. Above all, an organisation could be redesigned through strengthening its culture and modifying its organisational structures and practices.

1.15.3 Benefits of teacher leadership for students

Leithwood and Jantzi (1998:61) observe that distributing a large proportion of leadership to teachers would positively influence their effectiveness and pupils’ commitment to learning. The essence of any educational reform process is to improve student performance. The studies of Ovando (1996) report that leadership positively affects a teacher’s ability to innovate in the classroom, which in turn leads to improved student performance. Effective school leadership impacts on students’ education outcomes and school improvement (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004:5). Similar research findings of Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008), Portin, Alejano, Knapp and Marzolf (2006) and Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2005; 2003) revealed that leadership improves student learning outcomes.

This is consistent with the findings of Leithwood and Riehl (2003:4) that state that leadership has significant effects on student learning based on quality instruction and positive effects of strong school leadership. Student improvement is also possible by galvanising efforts around ambitious goals and establishing conditions that support teachers and lead to successful student improvement. A meta-analysis by Waters, Marzano and McNulty (2003:3) shows that there is a correlation between leadership and student achievement. The sharing of leadership in school has also shown to positively influence and increase student engagement (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000:416; Silns & Mulford, 2002:562). Teacher leadership increases teacher efficacy (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Similarly, empowering teachers to take on leadership
roles enhances their self-esteem and work satisfaction, which leads to higher performance and an increased level of retention in the teaching profession.

All these are needed to achieve the shared vision of effective teaching and learning. These strategies will help in exploring the way and manner that will lead Nigerian schools to check if they align with the present operational standards of teacher leadership. Leithwood and Jantzi (1998:61) observe that by distributing a large population of current leadership activity to teachers, it would have a positive influence on their effectiveness and pupils’ commitment to learning.

1.15.4 Benefits of teacher leadership for colleagues

Teacher leaders can assist colleagues in overcoming resistance to change (Liberman & Miller, 2005:161; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Leadership development is powerful in school when teachers collaborate to foster collective learning. In addition, Murphy, Elliot, Goldring and Porter (2007:187) argue that teacher leadership “actively promotes the formation of a learning organisation, the development of staff cohesion and support and the growth of communities of professional practice”.

This section discusses the benefits of teacher leadership to teachers, schools, colleagues and students. The discussion shows that teacher leadership increases pedagogical skills and boosts teacher morale (Frost & Harris, 2003:493-494). Teacher leadership helps to increase teacher effectiveness and positively affects a teacher’s job satisfaction and student performance (Leithwood et al., 2006; Ovando, 1996). NPSS can benefit from teacher leadership as it can improve student learning, improve teacher quality and ensure that educational reforms work. Teacher leadership will also ensure that there are opportunities for professional growth in career development and create a more democratic school environment (Barth, 2001; Childs-Bowen et al., 2000; York-Barr et al., 2004). In spite of these benefits, there are obstacles identified in literature that hinder its practice as discussed in Section 1:16.
1.16 OBSTACLES TO TEACHER LEADERSHIP

Teacher leadership remains a compelling force in sustaining educational reforms based on the various roles teachers play inside and outside the classroom. Several obstacles have been identified that can hinder the development of teacher leadership. Obstacles include teachers’ poor health, commitment to religious and family issues, administrators withholding information and unwillingness on the part of a teacher to take up leadership issues (Zinn, 1997:2-3). Smith (2012:1) notes that the “inability of the follower or the leaders inability or unwillingness to take risks can have a paralysing effect both on the individual and organisation’s ability to learn”, which affects teacher leadership.

In a study carried out in the Western Cape in South Africa, De Villiers and Pretorius (2012:217) indicate that barriers to teacher leadership include a lack of open communication, participation and collegiality and state that these hinder the emergence and enhancement of teacher leadership. In a study carried out in seven schools in Maine, United States, Fairman and Mackenzie (2012:244) find that teachers are reluctant to be regarded as “leaders” and do not want to take on formal titles of leadership. They prefer to work through informal channels to effect a change. Harris and Muijs (2002:2) categorise the obstacles of teacher leadership as organisational and professional barriers. Zinn (1997:17) identifies another obstacle of personal considerations or perceptions that can impede teacher leadership. This will be examined in the following sections.

1.16.1 Organisational barriers to teacher leadership

The hierarchical and bureaucratic structures in schools affect the development of teacher leadership in schools. As a result, teachers often cite lack of time and remuneration as barriers to teacher leadership (Barth, 2001; Zinn, 1997:9). This corroborates with the findings of De Villiers and Pretorius (2012:217) that “lack of time and experiential training as part of a process for continuous professional development on teacher leadership are evident barriers to teacher leadership”. In addition, roles are not well defined in schools when it comes to the issue of teacher leadership. Principals see teacher leaders as a source of extra help in a school where there is inadequate human resources. As a result, most teacher leaders spend their time engaging in administrative work rather than using their time for instructional expertise to improve teaching in the school (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007:9).
Another barrier is a hierarchical school culture which turns teachers into mere followers of the dictates of the head and policies mandated from above. Teachers often work in isolation with little opportunity to interact with peers. Blaise (1991:1-2) contends that “the average classroom is highly bureaucratised and teachers work under constant threat of judgement and criticism from every direction”. Bureaucracy limits teachers’ autonomy to methods of teaching and denies them of having a voice in policy development (Mullins, 2007:48-49).

In most Nigerian public schools, the top-down leadership approach still dominates (Harris & Muijs, 2002:3-4). Harris and Muijs (2002:2) observe that teacher leadership depends on the readiness of senior management to transfer power to teachers and the extent to which teachers accept the influence of their colleagues. Professional norms in teaching are also barriers in efforts to change the leadership culture and the efforts of teacher leaders to share their expertise or offer to improve colleagues’ work could be daunting.

Johnson and Donaldson (2007:9-10) suggest that colleagues may see such offers as “unwarranted intrusion” or that the teacher is not more knowledgeable or that the teacher’s promotion to a leadership role was an unjustified promotion. The “norms of autonomy, egalitarianism, and deference to seniority that have long characterised the work of teaching remain alive and well in schools”. Johnson and Donaldson (2007:8-9) state that teachers are often subject to external pressures from teacher unions and other bodies to become leaders. There are also professional barriers that hinder the practice of teacher leadership.

1.16.2 Professional barriers to teacher leadership

The lack of school leadership expertise for those assuming leadership positions in public secondary schools is seen as a barrier to teacher leadership as teacher preparatory courses do not prepare teachers for leadership roles (Zinn, 1997:34). There has been a call for innovations in the training of teachers to prepare them for leadership roles (Lind, 2001:12-13). According to Barth (2001:445), teachers are focused on improving student academic performance rather than taking on leadership roles. Teacher leaders may not have the approval of colleagues and administrators and may be subjected to passive or active resistance. Above all, a lack of leadership training for those who assume leadership positions
is a huge barrier to the promotion of teacher leadership in schools (Barth, 2001; Pelicer & Anderson, 1995; Zinn, 1997).

1.16.3 Personal considerations of teacher leadership

Researchers have identified many different reasons and personal considerations that hinder teachers from taking up leadership positions. Most teachers are not part of decision-making in schools and not consulted on issues affecting them. Teachers often do not see themselves as leaders and perceive leadership as someone else’s job (LeBlanc & Shelton, 1997:34). Chrispeel (2004) argues that the fear of failure and the fear of the unknown are other personal barriers that hold teachers back from extending themselves. Furthermore, societal perceptions of teachers as unprofessional and their low professional status and lack of respect for the teaching profession from the community also influence teachers (Zinn, 1997:2). There are also personal factors such as religious affiliations and family constraints that can hinder an individual from taking on a leadership position. The various obstacles discussed in the preceding section affect the practice of teacher leadership. There is a need to modify education policies to include an exploration of roles and responsibilities for teachers as this would enable teachers to accept changes that will benefit them. Different meanings and practices of teacher leadership will be examined below in Section 1.17.

1.17 CONTENTIONS IN TEACHER LEADERSHIP

The concept of teacher leadership is variously defined in literature. This depends on “who is doing the defining of teacher leadership” (Leonard et al., 2012:191). In a study carried out by Angelle and Schmid (2007:780) in the south-eastern United States on teacher leadership, participants perceive teacher leadership from different perspectives, either as positional designer, role model or exemplary leader. The study shows that participants are more likely to name personal characteristics such as charisma or influence rather than naming the process of leadership in defining teacher leadership (ibid:784-785). Angelle and Schmid conclude that defining teacher leadership is based on how it was lived in the context of the individual schools, which is described most of the time in terms of a person (ibid:793).
Different perceptions affect the conceptualisation of teacher leadership and disconnect it from critiques of wider policy imperatives that shape the contexts in which leadership is constructed (Stevenson, 2012:345). Cultivating teacher leadership takes time and expert facilitation. The theory of teacher leadership as discussed in this chapter reveals that teachers on their own can engage in innovation strategies, build their professional knowledge and develop their own leadership capacity through critical education leadership. Frost (2012:223-224) argues that, “They can influence colleagues as well as the practice in their schools, with the proviso that they have the appropriate support, structures and strategies in place”.

The top-down leadership approach, hierarchy and bureaucracy inherent in public schools tend to isolate teachers from each other and from administration and limit the practice of teacher leadership in schools (Ash & Persall, 2000:15-16). The top-down leadership approach should be replaced with a culture of collaboration, trust and networking in schools (Bryk & Schneider, 2003:41). There is a need for teachers to be adventurous and open to change and to align their personal considerations with their commitment to the teaching profession. The identified obstacles affect teacher leadership in schools and these obstacles can be mitigated by exploring teacher leadership through the roles of teacher leadership in schools.

1.17.1 Roles of teacher leaders in school leadership

The role of teachers, either formally or informally defined, is to improve schools and student performance. Maduewesi (2005) outlines the various contributions of teachers “in instructional activities such as the translation and interpretation of educational policies, course offerings, instructional material packages and assessment of learners learning outcomes. Teachers also exert influence on students’ character formation as well their process of socialisation”. Boyd and McGee (1995:1) point out that “teachers are in the best position to make critical decisions about curriculum and instruction, and are better able to implement changes in a comprehensive and continuous manner”. That is why Barth (2001:444) regards teachers as “movers and shakers” of the school.

Based on literature, leadership is no longer the exclusive preserve of a principal or those in formal authority roles, but is the responsibility of all the key stakeholders. Distributing leadership will enable teachers as agents of change to be motivated and achieve their potential
in an atmosphere of trust and respect that will enhance professionalism. A facilitative organisational culture can remove teachers’ isolation or lack of co-operation in solving problems in schools. This will make teachers step out of their boundaries and make the school beneficial to them and the students. In spite of the various contentions in distributed leadership, its benefits to all stakeholders outweigh the contentions as it promotes collaboration, initiatives and co-operation among staff in the school and creates a distributed leadership culture in schools that may help stakeholders in education to achieve improved education outcomes. In the next section, I discuss the context of exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools.

1.17.2 The context of exploring teacher leadership

The increasing demands in schools have led experts to call for exploring the teacher’s role and responsibilities (Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2010:45-46). This will enable teachers to be leaders inside and outside the classroom as well as at an organisation level (Darling-Hammond, 1999; IEL, 2001:2; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001:8). Clarifying the concept, Sternberg (2005:352-353) states that “exploring is about using already existing ideas in a new form or way or give it a new name or description. This could also be a way of looking at existing ideas from a new perspective”. Smylie (1994:131) is convinced that “exploring teachers as leaders will bring about improvements in the classroom, with new skills, knowledge, attitudes for teachers through opportunities for sharing ideas, collaboration and collegiality. It will also help retain talented teachers and enhance teaching outcomes through support and continuous professional learning”.

This view is supported by Spilkova (2011:118) who maintains that professional competencies are necessary for mastering the high quality of the profession in conditions of a changing paradigm of school education. This is regarded as the starting point for “formulating theoretical transformation of a teacher education curriculum and for elaborating a system of teacher professional development”. The exploration of teacher leadership is a justification for new perspectives of leadership in schools tied to collaboration and collegiality among teachers that lead to school improvement. This agrees with Childs-Bowen, Moller and Scrivner (2000:8) who assert that the “exploration of teachers as leaders leads to school improvement and improves student learning outcomes”.

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The study of the International Alliance of Leading Education Institute in 2008 in nine developed countries emphasises that teachers’ work should be re-conceptualised owing to the complex and demanding nature of school leadership and that the teaching profession is committed to an explored professionalism to enable teachers to better meet instructional and professional challenges. Moreover, education systems should be innovative to attract high quality and representative applicants and the design and delivery of teacher education programmes need constant improvement. It calls for the adoption of a broad framework for teacher induction built on foundational skills and the creation of opportunities for more relevant, powerful and teacher-owned professional developments in the education system. The new challenges and ways to improve schools and student achievement require new partnerships.

The study also suggests that “the government can help by providing resources, facilitate and where appropriate, initiate with enhanced involvement of key stakeholders in achieving these objectives” (IALEI, 2008: 96-97). An exploration of teacher leadership will assist teachers to meet their professional obligations and provide a basis for a robust teacher education programme to enhance teacher development. The exploration of teachers as leaders should encourage team building and shared leadership among all levels of school leadership, improve society’s perception of teachers, emphasise self-development through professional development and provide an enabling environment for collaboration, accountability, trust and respect.

Above all, it will help to strengthen teachers’ values, skills and knowledge that are central to effective teaching and learning in the 21st century. Teachers and students should participate fully in their classrooms and create, re-create, adapt and engage in a full range of human interactions (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto & Faris, 2005:52). Therefore, exploring teacher leadership as a democratic process will enable teachers to adapt their teaching methodology to the needs of individual learners’ interest, abilities, learning style and social and cultural background. Furthermore, exploring teacher leadership will provide opportunities for teachers to collaborate with colleagues in solving professional problems.
Another way of exploring teacher leadership is through providing new tools and environments for teachers. Larnier (2014:2) says that the exploration of leadership requires changing the environment in which teachers work and relate to colleagues, students and parents. Larnier (2014:2) notes that the structure of the school in which teachers are isolated in a classroom should be changed so that teachers can move into wider school activities to effect change. Moreover, schools should adopt techniques to facilitate teaching and learning and to help students to learn and develop their ability to think critically, solve problems and make informed decisions. Similarly, team teaching should be promoted so that teachers can share the responsibility for groups of students, which should foster unity and collaboration among teachers.

The above discussion shows that the exploration of the teacher’s role and responsibilities could result in significantly better schools with better educated students that can challenge oppression within and outside the school. There is a need for stakeholders to accept teachers as professionals and provide them with the necessary support to transform schools for the better. The next section discusses the context of distributed leadership in schools.

1.17.3 Distributed leadership

Teacher leadership is embedded in distributed leadership. Muijs and Harris (2007:112-113) contend that teacher leadership concepts are based on set of behaviours, practices that are undertaken collectively. Thus, it is “centrally concerned with the relationships and connections among individuals within a school”. Furthermore, literature has further shown that most theoretical conceptualization of distributed leadership has stressed emergent and collaborative leadership that would incorporate teacher leadership as one of its manifestations. York-Barr and Duke (2004:288) concept of teacher leadership is centered on a vision of leadership built on influence and interaction, rather than power and authority. Gronn (2000:317) and Southworth (2005:162) noted that distributed leadership is an emergent property in which a group or network of individuals pool their expertise together to achieve educational goals. The two concepts involves collaborative leadership approach of every public school’s stakeholder (i.e., principal, teachers, students, parents, community) towards achieving effective and efficient leadership that will enhance high academic achievement of
learners. This made Poekert (2012:170) to affirm that distributed leadership informs teacher leadership practice.

Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001:25) propose “a less formalised and positional concept of understanding leadership which emphasises leadership as being stretched over leaders, followers and their situations” (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001:25; Spillane et al., 2004:11). Distributed leadership is viewed as a leadership practice rather than another technique, blueprint or practice (Bennet, Wise, Woods & Harvey, 2003:8; Spillane, 2009:70). These authors posit that all individuals in an organisation, and not merely those at management level, can exercise leadership and influence the overall direction of an organisation (Bolden, 2004:12; Spillane et al., 2001:25). Bolden (2004:12) states that distributed leadership “offers the concept of team leadership where behaviours are enacted by multiple people instead of sole leaders in formal leadership roles”.

Whitby (2010:2) explains that distributed leadership involves the leadership functions of a school being shared by many people in ways that strengthen the whole school community, intensifying a sense of engagement and shared responsibility while making the workload more manageable. Spillane and Sherer (2004: 30-31) explain that leadership practice “is stretched over people and aspects of the situation such as organisational structures, routines, and tools that shape leadership practice but they are also shaped by it through interactions and discussions among school leaders using these tools in distinctive ways. Therefore, organisational routines, artefacts and tools are all part of the process that links the interactions of multiple leaders to their situation or context”. Spillane et al., (2004) describe organisational routines as “repetitive, recognisable patterns of interdependent actions carried out by multiple actors” and they include, for example, grade level meetings, faculty meetings, teacher evaluations, school assemblies and literacy committee meetings (Feldman & Rafaeli, 2002; Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001:27). Spillane et al., also recognise the contribution, positive or negative, that organisational structure can make to leadership practices. Thus, “artefacts and tools serve as go-betweens in interactions among people; examples include curricular frameworks, templates and observation protocols”.

Bennett et al., (2003:7) suggest that, in spite of variations in definition, distributed leadership is based on three main premises. The first is that leadership is an emergent property of a group
or network of interacting individuals. This is a departure from the traditional leadership theory. The second is that the openness to the boundaries of leadership is undefined. This shows that there is no limit to how wide the boundary should be set or which individuals or groups should be brought into leadership or be contributors to leadership. Moreover, there are other key players in the school system whose roles need to be taken into consideration. The third is that varieties of expertise are distributed widely in a group. The idea is that numerous perspectives and capabilities of individuals abound in an organisation that can be brought together to achieve organisational goals.

The conditions needed for distributed leadership to work include a collegial climate, professional development, trust and clear communication (Meyers & Johnson, 2008:480; Rice, 2006:99). Hall (2001:339) asserts that for distributed leadership and teamwork to be effective, “group members must understand their individual roles and not underestimate the complexity of a distributed leadership arrangement”. The NSCL (2009:13) emphasises that there is success when leadership is distributed across an increasing variety of roles. Louis, Marks and Kruse (1996:787) observe that in the more successful schools, teachers are given more time for collaboration. According to Silns and Mulford (2002), student outcomes are more likely to improve where leadership sources are distributed throughout the school community and where teachers are empowered in areas that are import to them.

Bush and Glover (2012:21) show that high-performing leadership teams in British schools are characterised by “internal coherence and unity, a clear focus on high standards, two-way communication with internal and external stakeholders and a commitment to distributed leadership”. In addition, Bush and Glover (2012:34) assert that “distributing leadership is essential not only to ensure that all leadership activities are handled competently but also so that the collective talents and experience of all School Leadership Team members are deployed to best effect”.

Furthermore, Harris (2005:4) has provided a list of barriers that make implementing distributed leadership difficult. He argues that distributed leadership “requires those in formal leadership positions to relinquish power and control to others” (Harris, 2005:4). Researchers (Bush, 2010; Gronn, 2010; Harris, 2010) claim that distributed leadership depends heavily on the willingness of principals to share power. Top-down management and internal structures in
schools are regarded as the main impediments to the development of distributed leadership. This management style militates against teachers attaining autonomy and taking on leadership roles within a school. Distributed leadership roles cannot successfully be imposed by management and poses a major challenge on “how and who” distributes responsibilities and authority in schools. An answer to this conundrum is that distributed leadership is the function of the school heads and it is distributed based on experience, qualifications and commitment. Leadership is distributed through, for example, committees and the delegation of duties and responsibilities in schools. This enhances commitment to the teaching profession. Furthermore, an amalgam of teacher skills will enhance trust and goal achievements in school.

1.18 CONCLUSION

Literature has shown that in many parts of the world teachers are respected members of society (Darling-Hammond, 2000:1; Strong, 2007:1). However, in Nigeria, teaching is still poorly regarded and the working environment is unfavourable. These challenges affect the identity of a teacher as a professional. A teacher’s identity is an outcome of his or her professional, personal and situated interactions as well as the socio-cultural values, beliefs and practices of the dominant ideology in the environment (Day et al., 2006:149). The various discourses used by teachers to define themselves impact negatively on them and their profession. These scenarios affect teacher self-awareness and self-respect and allow society to look down on them as non-professionals, in spite of their training and contributions to national goals. According to Foster (1989), for teachers to free themselves from these negative portrayals, they have to be critical, educative, transformative and ethical in their dealings. This will enable them to think independently and question traditions and customs used to describe them and thus work towards social justice and ethical standards that align with the democratic values of the community.

Literature has shown that in the context of Nigeria, the principal is recognised as the accounting officer for a school. Similarly, the policy emphasises the traditional model of leadership and does not take teachers into consideration as leaders in public secondary schools. However, leadership is no longer the exclusive preserve of a principal or those in formal authority roles, but is the responsibility of all the key stakeholders. The various perspectives of education leadership theory reveal that interactions, participation and
relationships among members and leader attitudes play a significant part in achieving organisational goals. Achieving these goals, however, depends on the styles of leadership employed by the leader. Thus, leadership distributed in an atmosphere of trust and respect will enhance professionalism and motivate teachers to achieve their potential. This will enable teachers to step out of their boundaries and make the school beneficial to themselves and the students.

Teacher leadership could bridge the leadership gaps in Nigerian schools through mentoring, sharing of expertise, professional development and mutual trust. Leadership is seen as the intellectual capital of the organisation residing within its members (Hopkins & Jackson, 2003:97). The idea of teacher leadership is based on the concept that all teachers can and must lead because they have the potential and the ability to contribute meaningfully towards leadership (Barth, 2001:85; Hopkins & Jackson, 2003:100). Houghton, Neck and Manz (2003:135) contend that the “distribution of leadership roles among team members can be a key factor in maximising the effectiveness of team-based structures”. The realities of facilitating distributed leadership positions in employees that have been trained and seasoned in traditional hierarchical structures may be difficult to realise. In spite of the various contentions in teacher leadership, its benefits to all stakeholders outweigh the contentions as it promotes collaboration, initiatives and co-operation among staff in the school and creates a distributed leadership culture in schools that may help stakeholders in education achieve improved education outcomes. In the next chapter, I discuss the research methodology.
CHAPTER TWO: GETTING TEACHERS THROUGH THE LINE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the methodology used in the study. This is significant in research as it describes the “process of steps used to collect and analyse information to increase understanding of a topic or issue” (Creswell, 2012:3). I chose an appropriate research design for the study which enabled me to achieve the aims of the study and answer the research questions I set to explore teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria. The details below highlight the steps and the data analysis procedure I adopted in the research process.

This chapter is presented in seven main subheadings.

1. The research design with a focus on (i) qualitative research and (ii) case study methodology.
2. The sample with a focus on (i) the research participants, (ii) the research district, (iii) familiarisation with participants and sites and the researcher’s positionality.
3. A contextualisation of the research sites.
4. The data collection procedure which describes the (i) semi-structured interviews, (ii) documentary analysis and (iii) data timetable.
5. The data analysis and theory generation which explain the (i) data analysis and content analysis and the (ii) critical discourse analysis.
6. The ethical considerations of the study relating to (i) consent, (ii) confidentiality, (iii) anonymity and pseudonyms and (iv) data management.
7. The credibility and trustworthiness of the participants with a focus on (i) triangulation, (ii) dependability, (iii) credibility, (iv) transferability, (v) confirmability, (vi) member checks (vii) external audits and (viii) conclusions.

2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design is described as “the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:14). This view is shared by Ritchie and Lewis...
(2003:71) who says that research design “is a set of guidelines and instructions to be followed in addressing the research problems which includes the aim of the research, the procedure in selecting research participants and the consideration of trustworthiness”. Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen and Razavieh (2010:32) explain that research is deemed to be relevant if different components of the study are integrated in a logical and coherent manner, thereby addressing the research problems, answering the research questions, collecting and analysing data and adhering to ethical principles.

Ary et al., (2010:32) advise that it is necessary for a researcher to outline a plan for his or her study, indicating the methods to be used, the data that needs to be gathered and where, how and from whom it will be collected. The aim of this study is to provide an understanding on the way in which the roles of teachers in Education District V (EDV) could be explored for them to become leaders in their schools. The aims of the study are to

- examine teachers’ perceptions about leadership in public secondary schools,
- examine policies guiding leadership in public secondary schools,
- explore the current understanding and practice of teacher leadership in public secondary schools, and
- identify strategies that are needed by participants to promote teacher leadership in public secondary schools.

The use of qualitative research for the study helped me to document the participants’ views through verbal and document analysis and to understand their perceptions of leadership. Moreover, it helped me to know the policies that guide leadership in public secondary schools and the current thinking and practice of teacher leadership in schools. This insight helped me to evolve strategies for promoting teacher leadership in schools. The study elicited information from a wide variety of participants from the Tutor General-Permanent Secretary (TGPS), principals, vice-principals and teachers of five urban secondary schools. Semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis were used to gather data (see Section 2.6.1 and 2.6.2 for comprehensive discussions). I opted for a multiple case study, also known as a collective case study, to uncover the interactivity and the interconnectedness of participants’ stories about teacher leadership (Creswell, 2012:465; Stake, 2005:450-452). A detailed discussion on qualitative research strategy is presented in Section 2.2.1.
2.2.1 Qualitative research

Qualitative research methodology was used in this study because it gives the researcher an opportunity to study and collect a variety of empirical material from participants in their own environment. It also provided me with an in-depth understanding of teacher leadership practices in schools. One of the strengths of qualitative research is “its richness, depth of explorations and the descriptions it yields” (Maree, 2007:51). In addition, “it has focused attention on an aspect of a phenomenon in order to gain in-depth understanding of the nature of a social setting and behaviours from participants’ point of view through the use of multiple methods” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:151; Paterniti, 2011:5-6). Similarly, qualitative research helps to describe the social settings of the participants so as not to isolate their views from their context (Struwig & Stead, 2004:56). Furthermore, it enables data analysis with participant involvement (Creswell, 2012:16). These characteristics of qualitative research help to enhance the credibility of the study.

Denscombe (2003) has identified the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative research. The advantages are that the descriptions and theories of qualitative research are “grounded” in reality, meaning that the analysis has its roots in the conditions of social existence. Also, there is a richness and detail to the data that allows a sound analysis of the subtleties of each individual’s life story. In addition, there is a tolerance of ambiguity and contradictions that reflect the social reality of what is being investigated and there is a possibility of alternative explanations because it draws on the interpretative skills of the researcher rather than the presumption that there is one correct explanation (Denscombe, 2003:280-281).

However, Denscombe (2003:280-281) has identified some disadvantages of qualitative research. One disadvantage is that it is difficult to “generalise in qualitative research and it may be less representative than in quantitative research” (Denscombe, 2003:280-281). He also states that qualitative research findings are the creation of the researcher rather than the discovery of facts. In addition, the meanings may be decontextualised, as quotations in the analysis may well take the spoken word out of context, resulting in the meaning becoming lost. Furthermore, there is a danger of oversimplifying an explanation if anomalies identified do not “fit with the themes constructed”. Above all, the interpretation is linked with the “self” of the researcher.
However, Gray (2004:23-24) states that the validity of results in qualitative research can be strengthened by eliciting the views of research participants, using multiple methods, verifying the analysis using other researchers or supporting assertions using numerous examples. To ensure the credibility of the study, I transcribed the words of the participants verbatim and allowed them to see the transcriptions as well as the analysis so that they were not quoted out of context. In spite of the disadvantages of qualitative research, this method helped me to gain an understanding of the participants’ knowledge about teacher leadership in schools and how to promote distributed leadership in schools. The assumption of qualitative research is that reality is constructed by individuals interacting within their society. Thus, this method helped me to interact with the participants and focus on the specific context of their environment to discover themes around teacher leadership in schools (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:397).

The qualitative method of enquiry enabled me to gather information directly from participants who are teacher leaders in schools (Huberman & Miles, 2002:277). Therefore, the information gathered from the participants reflects on the actual events in schools. Furthermore, the qualitative method of enquiry helped me to write from their perspectives (Huberman & Miles, 2002:277). Qualitative research is exploratory in nature and provides implications for future research in exploring teacher leadership in schools. The qualitative research is descriptive and adds to the body of literature by building rich, in-depth descriptions of different situations under study. The qualitative method involves collecting and capturing accurate, descriptive details of participants’ perceptions of teacher leadership, the policies that influence teacher leadership and the participants’ experiences of leadership. This is done with particular reference to current thinking and practice of teacher leadership in schools and with reference to the strategies that need to be adopted to promote teacher leadership in schools. The exercise also gives participants insight into the opportunities available in the distribution of leadership in schools and the teacher leadership roles. Participant responses were reported without any manipulation of the data. The qualitative research paradigm used in this study is of a case study design and is used to present the multiple cases. A comprehensive discussion on case study is presented in the following section.
2.2.2 The case study methodology

Babie and Mouton (2001:640) define case studies as “an intensive investigation into a single unit”. Creswell (2012:465) points out that case studies are an in-depth investigation of a “bounded system” that could involve people, activities, events, processes, individuals, documents or aspects of the media based on extensive data collection (Creswell, 2012:465; Henning, Rensburg & Smit, 2004:32). It provides a detailed contextual view of a situation, social setting or relationship with the aim of describing and explaining the phenomenon of interest through the use of multiple methods (Creswell, 2012:465; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:54). Case studies also offer examples of real people in their true situations which enable readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles (Cohen et al., 2007:253).

The hallmarks of a case study are that it is concerned with a rich and vivid description of events relevant to the case. It provides a chronological narrative of events relevant to the case and blends the description of events with the analysis. It also focuses on individual actors or a group of actors and seeks to understand their perceptions of events and highlights specific events that are relevant to the case. Furthermore, it recognises and accepts many variables operating in a single case through the use of multiple tools for data collection and many sources of evidence. Above all, when writing the report, an attempt is made to portray the richness of the case studied (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011:289).

Johannson (2003:3) states that “the study should have a ‘case’ which is the object of study”. The “case” should be a complex functioning unit and should be investigated in its natural context through multiple methods and it should be contemporary. Creswell (2012:465) notes that the “case” may be a single individual or several individuals (for example, a teacher or several teachers) separately or in a group, event or programme. The case may represent a process consisting of a series of steps (for example, a college curriculum process) that form a sequence of activities. The case study method was used in this study to answer “how” and “why” questions (Yin, 2009:1). It also helped me to explore the issue of teacher leadership in five public secondary schools in-depth (Creswell, 2003:15). Additionally, it helps to explain, describe, illustrate and enlighten the practice of teacher leadership in schools (Yin, 2009:19-20).
Furthermore, the “case” about teacher leadership could not be considered without the context of school leadership and, more specifically, without the roles and responsibilities of teachers as leaders. This helps to situate the current practice of leadership in schools that precludes teachers from leadership positions because of hegemony and words that transmit power that shape the character and identity of teachers, as this affects the practice of teacher leadership in schools. I used the collective case study method in this study in which I present the views of participants from the five different schools in EDV and use the study to draw themes from several cases.

Literature has identified a weakness of case studies. This weakness is that case studies may not be generalised. Similarly, case studies are also not easily cross-checked and may be selective, biased, personal and subjective as a result of the interpretations and meanings given by the researcher. Above all, case studies are prone to problems of observer bias, despite attempts made to address reflexivity (Cohen et al., 2011:293). According to Pannuci and Wilkens (2010:1), bias in research is any systematic error in the design, conduct or analysis of a study during interviews as a result of the way in which information is solicited, recorded or interpreted. In solving bias in this research, I ensured that the research questions were in line with the aims of the study. I also ensured that the participant’s voice was the only one recorded and transcribed so that each participant’s voice cannot be taken out of context.

However, Larsson (2009:30) argues that there is no need for generalisations because certain kinds of empirical research are meaningful without generalisations. Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Razavieh (2010:502) point out that it is the responsibility of the researcher to provide rich, detailed and thick descriptions of the contexts to make it easier for other researchers to make judgements and transferabilities. Researchers explain that data collection in a case study is usually extensive and draws on multiple data collection techniques such as interviews, participant observation, documents or archival records, artefacts and audio-visual materials (Creswell, 2012:465; Williams, 2007:68). I spent eight months on site, interacting with the participants to study them in their own environment. I collected data during face-to-face interaction (Mouton, 2002:107). In Section 2.3, I discuss the samples of the study, the research sites as well as how I gained entry into the research sites.
2.3 THE SAMPLE

2.3.1 The research participants

In this study, I have used purposive sampling to identify and select research participants. Purposive sampling ensures rich information that can enhance the study and its findings (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003:104-105; Struwig & Stead, 2004:122). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:114-115) describe purposive sampling as samples chosen according to specified needs and typicality. Ary et al., (2010:156) advise that researchers should use purposive sampling cautiously because “there is no reason to assume that the units judged to be typical of the population will continue to be typical over a period of time” as participants institutional positions may change either because of transfer, promotion or retirement. Moreover, the small size of the representative sample may not reflect the substantial diversity that may occur leading to concern around the validity of the data.

In the study, I solicited participants based on their knowledge, experience, seniority and leadership position in the teaching and learning process in EDV as well as their willingness to participate in the study. They were able to provide insight and understanding into the issue of teacher leadership by providing relevant information. All the participants were experienced and professional teachers and suitable for the study. Eleven of the participants had more than twenty years of teaching experience and four of them had been in leadership positions for more than ten years.

All of the participants hold leadership positions, such as the position of a TGPS, principal, vice-principal, head of department, year tutor or union representative. Four of the participants have undergraduate degrees and nine have master degrees in education, while three have postgraduate diplomas in education. One participant has only two years teaching and leadership experience and was selected owing to his enthusiasm and eagerness to participate in the study. Teachers selected for participation in the study were volunteers. The selection process involved a sensitisation session. All of the participants are certified by the TRCN. The study comprised of eight female and eight male participants. The profiles of the research participants are detailed in Table 2.1.
Table 2.1: Profiles of research participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>NS</th>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clark</td>
<td>Egun Awori Senior Secondary School Badagry</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Vice-principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bayo</td>
<td>Egun Awori Senior Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>undergrad degree</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Officer in charge of special duties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adebayo</td>
<td>Egun Awori Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orji</td>
<td>Highway Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Head of department for arts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okoli</td>
<td>Highway Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Butter</td>
<td>Red High Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Publicity Sec, zonal teachers union and head of curricular activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winners</td>
<td>Red High Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>undergrad degree</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Year tutor SS3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>Red High Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Vice-principal academics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massarawa</td>
<td>Nigeria Senior Grammar School</td>
<td>undergrad degree</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Asstistant Head of department for science</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saida</td>
<td>Highway Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Vice-principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aladelola</td>
<td>White and Blue Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayeola</td>
<td>Education District</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>TGPS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Njoku</td>
<td>White and Blue Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boladale</td>
<td>White and Blue Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Undergrad degree</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ade</td>
<td>Nigeria Senior Grammar School</td>
<td>PGDE</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Classroom teacher and School librarian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loveth</td>
<td>Nigeria Senior Grammar School</td>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Year tutor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The names of the participants have been changed in order to maintain anonymity.

KEY:
- **NS**: Name of school
2.3.2 The research district (Education District V)

The choice of EDV was partly based on its educational significance as the cradle of formal education in Nigeria and partly because I was familiar with the district as it is where the College of Education and my place of work is located. The EDV has 135 public secondary schools, 3 government training institutions, 2 public tertiary institutions and a post-graduate medical college. The district is economically viable, but many of the schools are still facing challenges and require transformation and improved student performance.

Therefore, the study endeavours to contribute to improving teacher leadership practices in this district. EDV is one of six education districts in Lagos State which is made up of four local government areas (LGA), known as municipalities in South Africa. These LGAs are: Ojo, Badagry, Amuwo-Odofin and Ajeromi-ifelodun. The district headquarters is at Agboju in Amuwo-Odofin. Two schools were selected from Amuwo-Odofin because it is the seat of the district, the largest in EDV in terms of population and has the highest concentration of schools. Amuwo-Odofin is a cosmopolitan area with high literacy rates. Furthermore, one school was selected from each of the three remaining LGAs as seen in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: School location

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>LGA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*Egun Awori Senior College</td>
<td>Badagry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Highway Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Ajeromi-Ifelodun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Red High Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Ojo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*White and Blue Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Amuwo-Odofin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Nigeria Senior Grammar School</td>
<td>Amuwo-Odofin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* These are pseudonyms.
2.3.3 Familiarisation with participants and research sites

After getting the approval to conduct the study from EDV, I telephoned each of the principals and introduced myself as a lecturer in the Department of Educational Foundations and Administration at Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education in Otto/Ijanikin, Lagos. I also informed them that I was a PhD student in the Department of Education Leadership and Management at the University of Johannesburg and explained the objectives of the research to them. I then visited the schools with letters of introduction, letters of approval and consent forms. One of the schools would not allow me to take photographs and the principal was not willing to be part of the research and claimed that her refusal was because of an “order from the ministry” and that “she will be retiring in two months time”. The new principal also declined to be part of the research, but directed me to the vice-principal, who directed me to the year tutor.

This same scenario played out in another school because of the retirement of the principal. Consequently, I was able to interview only three principals out of the five schools. The participants in the various schools were then sensitised (Appendix 10). On the interview date, to put the participants at ease and to establish an appropriate atmosphere for communication and interaction (Kvale, 1996:147), I reintroduced myself and restated the objectives of the study and the guarantee of confidentiality and other ethical issues. I also explained to them the requirements, the essence of the data and the likely duration of the interviews.

The schools I selected are widely distributed around EDV and are true representations of public senior secondary schools in Lagos State. They evince the typical characteristics of principals as solitary leaders in schools (Egwu, 2009:30). The principals of the selected schools are well disposed to this type of research and attended in-service effective leadership training organised by the Lagos State Government and Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education in 2010.

2.3.4 Negotiating entrance into the research field

I was given an introduction letter from the University of Johannesburg’s Faculty of Education to the TGPS in Lagos, Nigeria (Appendix 1). I then wrote to the TGPS for permission to conduct the study in the schools (Appendix 2) and received an approval letter from the TGPS.
to conduct the study (Appendix 3). I also received relevant approval from the University of Johannesburg’s Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Education (Appendix 4). Moreover, the title of the thesis was changed in order to focus on an exploration of teacher leadership instead of a redefinition of the term (Appendix 5). I also wrote to the school, principals and teachers to notify them of the research (Appendices 6, 7 and 8). The participants all completed consent forms (Appendix 9).

The success of any research depends especially on how the researcher negotiates entrance into the field as the major instrument for data collection. The term “research instrument” in qualitative research refers to the key role of the researcher as the main “research instrument” in data collection and an “active participant” in the research process (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:80; Patton, 2002:14). Thus, Patton (2002:14) stresses the importance of the researcher having a social relationship or “human-to-human” relationship with the research participants during the research. This is required to embed the researchers’ role and status within the group (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000:19). I put aside all preconceived ideas and allowed the participants to speak without restraint so that I could more easily capture their experiences and perceptions on the practice of teacher leadership in their schools.

My role as a researcher was to explore ways of improving teaching and learning processes in teacher leadership and not to impose judgement. In my role as a participant in the research process, I endeavoured to build a relationship of trust with the participants. I attempted at all times to be sensitive to ethical issues and to respect their views. Ary et al., (2010:500-501) caution that a researcher’s personal bias, values, interests and experiences must not influence the research findings and processes. To avoid ethical issues, Stake (2000:372) advises that a researcher needs the participation of stakeholders and the research community.

Nigerians have experienced the harsh realities of a strict and often brutal military regime for many years and it would therefore not have been surprising for the study participants to be reluctant to openly voice any criticisms or concerns. I had to work hard to gain their trust as that was essential for the success of my research. I was gratified when I was rewarded for my openness through a willingness on the part of the participants to wholeheartedly embrace my research. I was fortunate to lose only one candidate who was reluctant to participate.
Frustrations, fears and anxieties in fieldwork are often spawned by logical issues and access in an unstable environment (ibid:6). However, as Bailey (2007:37) notes, “fieldwork can be systematic, flexible and enjoyable and at the same time can be frustrating, chaotic, emotional and dangerous”. All the optimism of the researcher may disappear because of unanticipated problems (Ely, Anzul, Friedman, Garner & Steinmetz, 2003). Lawson (2000:135) observed that, “I felt, much as other fieldworkers before me, unfamiliar with the social world under investigation and a resulting sense of edginess, uncertainty, discomfort and anxiety.” Such feelings become exacerbated in a politically unstable environment. In such circumstances, the likelihood is that fears and prejudices may inhibit an unbiased approach (Mukeredzi, 2012:11).

In accessing participants, I experienced additional challenges apart from those mentioned above. In Egun Awori Senior Secondary School, the secretary to the principal read the approval letter from the education district before signing the photocopy. In addition, when I asked for certain information (such as the date of when the school was established, their major achievements and the total number of staff and students according to gender), she declined and said that “such information can only be given by the principal”. At Nigeria Senior Secondary School, the principal was at a meeting at the ministry, but I was able to talk to her over the phone. She declined my request to take photographs and was unwilling to provide any information on the school. According to her, the ministry had passed a circular banning any form of interview. This reveals the culture of secrecy in public institutions as most staff members are afraid of losing their jobs or being seen as “anti-government”. In open societies, the information about the school would have been on the website or in any publication so as to project the image of the school.

Another challenge I experienced was during the 13 month period (October 2011 to October 2012) before data collection started in earnest, when I visited the participants to sensitise them to the research. The post-election violence in Nigeria in 2011 also contributed to the hiatus in my research (see “Nigeria: Post Election violence killed 800/Human Right Watch (www.hrw.org/news/2011/05/.../nigeria-post-election-violence-killed- 800). In addition, the diplomatic row between Nigeria and South Africa delayed my visa renewal application at the South African High Commission in Lagos.
Above all, I tried to connect with the study participants by demonstrating a sincere interest in their views. At the beginning of each interview, I always introduced myself and provided my interviewee with a brief autobiography. I also explained the purpose of the research and assured them that it was for academic purposes only. At the end of each interview, I thanked them for their participation. I elaborate on the profiles of the schools for the study in the next section.

2.4 CONTEXTUALISING THE RESEARCH SITES

In this section, I provide profiles of each school with their history, aims, missions and achievements. I also describe their physical and socio-economic environment.

2.4.1 Profile of Egun Awori Senior Secondary School

Photograph 1: Prototype of a new block of classrooms

2.4.1.1 History of the school

This school was established as a co-educational school by the Lagos State Government in 2003. It is located near a major highway, fenced and manned by local security officers. The school shares the compound with Egun Awori Junior Secondary School. It comprises of one block of classrooms, a two-storey building for all the senior secondary classes and the administrative office and staffroom. There are toilets and two mini-laboratories for science students in the building. In addition, a new block of classrooms has been completed but has
not been furnished yet. The school does not have an auditorium or seminar room and assembly is conducted outside in front of the main building. The school does not have a clinic or dining hall, but has a shed close to the fence where food vendors sell food to students and staff. The school has a small playground surrounded by used motor tyres where students play football. The school has 879 boys and 783 girls and the teaching staff consists of 20 male teachers and 13 female teachers.

Data shows that in this school, there are more male students and teachers than female students and teachers. Contrary to the findings of this study, there is a general assumption in Nigeria that there are more females than males in the teaching profession and that there are more female than male students. This assumption has not been backed with any empirical findings. The objective of the school is to produce students of high skills, academic and moral standards worthy of emulation, while its mission is to create a favourable atmosphere that will produce students that can face life’s challenges. Some of the achievements of the school include coming in second place at the choir competition in 2010, winning the school debate at zone level and taking fourth position at district level, representing the zone at district level in football and coming second and having the principal named the best principal in the zone in 2011.

All public secondary schools have a school management committee comprised of the principal, the vice-principals, heads of department, and, sometimes, year tutors and a community leader. Schools operate strict lesson timetables. Public secondary schools are required to maintain certain statutory documents such as the education laws, log books, admission and attendance registers, account book files, visitor books, inspection report files and punishment books.

2.4.2 Profile of Highway Senior Secondary School
2.4.2.1 History of the school

This school was established as a co-educational institution in 1987 by the Lagos State Government. It is situated in a school complex of 15 other public schools. The idea of a “school complex” comprising of a primary, junior and secondary school within a single location came into prominence in the 1980s in Lagos State. This school can be accessed by boat or by land. The school is closed to the two seaports in Lagos and the area is home to many ethnic groups. The school has a sizeable population of 556 students, 240 of which are males and 316 of which are females with 17 staff members comprising of 11 male and 6 female teachers. The school is fenced and manned by local security and there are only three bungalows in the compound that are shared by the senior and junior high schools. One of the three blocks of bungalows is used for administration by both the junior and senior secondary schools.

The principal informed me that approval has been given by the government for new school buildings to be built. The school has a very small area where students play football and there are no laboratories. The school’s vision is to provide quality education that will produce well-grounded students and its mission is to be the best among others in all areas. In 2011, the school came third at the district quiz competition and in 2009 it won the best vice-principal award at the district and state levels.
2.4.3 Profile of Red High Senior Secondary School

Photograph 3: Old two-storey classroom

2.4.3.1 History of the school

This community school was established in 1982 as a co-educational public institution. Access to the school is via the compounds of two primary schools. The school gates are guarded by local security and neighbourhood watch personnel. The school has the old Jakande buildings (Alhaji Lateef Jakande was elected as the first civilian governor of Lagos State in 1979). The school has two old, prototype buildings as seen in photograph 3. There are classrooms and staffrooms on all floors of the building. The academic staff consists of 21 male and 21 female teachers while the student enrolment of 1461 students comprises of 881 girls and 580 boys. The school has a functional computer, agricultural laboratories and Eko Project rooms.

The school is committed to hard work through effective teaching and teacher empowerment, child-centredness and teamwork, while the vision of the school is to create an enabling environment that focuses on academic excellence. Moreover, the school aims to develop citizens that will make a living, a life and a difference. In 2012, the school won a science quiz organised by the local government and came third at the district level. The school had a 57% pass rate in the May/June West African Examination Council (WAEC) examinations in 2012.
2.4.4 Profile of Nigeria Senior Grammar School

2.4.4.1 History of the school

This school was established as a public co-educational institution in one of the best laid-out estates in Nigeria. This school has two gates, one of which is permanently locked while the other is manned by security guards and a neighbourhood watch. The administrative blocks house the principal’s and the vice-principal’s offices. There are six buildings in total, a Jakande-type building, three bungalows and a two-storey building. The school has a small sandy pitch for sporting activities and mini-science laboratories. The principal citing “orders from above” prevented me from taking photographs of the school.

I was also unable to access the school’s aims and objectives or its achievements. During the research process, there was a widely circulated newspaper report about unconducive teaching and learning environments of schools in Lagos State. The report noted that in spite of huge budgetary allocations to education in the state, coupled with the 90 million US dollars World Bank loan for school improvement, there is little improvement in conditions in schools. The government went on the offensive by suspending the principal of this particular school and later transferred her to another school. In addition, it placed an embargo on interviews with teachers or principals in schools. Owing to public pressure, the schools were furnished with desks and benches (see The Punch, December 21, 2013 page 12 with a rider: “Furniture scandal: Lagos government bows to Punch, public pressure”).

2.4.5 Profile of White and Blue Senior Secondary School

Photograph 4: Twin blocks of classrooms
2.4.5.1 History of the school

This school has a high indigenous population of Nigerians with many children from military personnel. Everyone entering the school must pass through a checkpoint manned by security personnel. The school has three prototype buildings, one of which belongs to the junior school while the remaining two belong to the senior school. The first building facing the gate is used as an administrative office with offices for the principal and vice-principal. Also on the first floor are classrooms and the Eko Project room. The second floor and ground floors accommodate the staffrooms and classrooms. The second building has the toilets on the ground floor, the computer room, a mini science laboratory, classrooms and staffrooms. There are sheds near the wall that serve as food venues for vendors.

The vision statement of the school is to be a model of transparent excellence while its mission is to nurture knowledgeable and God-fearing children with sound characters in a pleasant and conducive environment. The school achievements include a third merit award in district V in 2008, the school received the Eko Project Award of two million naira in 2009/2010 and it was adjudged the Best Performing School in EDV in 2011.

The above descriptions show that the schools in the study are funded solely by the government. In spite of the yearly budgetary allocation to education and special intervention grants from government and agencies, facilities in schools remain inadequate and staff to pupil ratios are extremely poor. Also, school leaders are unable to challenge the status quo for fear of being demoted, retired or transferred. This shows that gaps still exist in school leadership which this study intends to address. In Section 2.6, I discuss the data collection procedure with the use of semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis.

2.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Patton (2002:5) states that data collection methods in qualitative research findings should grow from in-depth, open-ended interviews, to direct observations and written document analysis. In this study, I made use of semi-structured interviews and document analysis as a
way to explore teachers’, principals’ and an education administrator’s perception of teacher leadership.

2.5.1 Semi-structured interviews

According to Berg (2001:69), interviews are “designed to elicit information using a set of predetermined questions that are expected to elicit the subjects’ thoughts, opinions and attitudes in order to gain insight about study-related issues”. Seidman (2006:9) asserts that it helps in understanding the lived experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience. Finley (2008:143) affirms that interviews present opportunities for learning about individual lives and are “a forum for critical dialogue”. Furthermore, Finley (2008:143) notes that meanings are co-constructed but always controlled by the person telling his or her story. Interviews present an opportunity to question culturally preferred terms of language and interrogate cultural systems that have influenced a person’s life.

I used semi-structured interviews to understand the participants’ thoughts, perspectives and knowledge of teacher leadership. It enabled me to ask predetermined questions and to seek further clarity on some of the responses of participants. It also helped to provide context to other data, thus offering a more complete picture of what is happening in teacher leadership in schools and the various reasons or factors associated with leadership (Boyce & Neale, 2006:3). I conducted the semi-structured interviews in English as it is the official language of Nigeria.

I carefully probed the answers to clarify participants’ concepts and responses to enable me to ask more detailed follow-up questions and supplement the answers given by the participants (Patton, 2002:372). One drawback to semi-structured interviews is the amount of time it takes to develop an interview guide or gain access to the research site (Seidman, 2006:12). I asked all the participants the same questions with only slight variations in the questions for the TGPS. Earlier, I explained how I gained entrance into the research field. A participant from White and Blue Secondary School agreed to be interviewed, she read the interview protocol and I discussed the issue of anonymity with her. She signed the consent form and when the interview commenced, she withdrew without giving any cogent reason. The reason I could deduce was a fear of being seen as a “critic” of the government and its policies, as this could
result in job loss. In addition, several reasons have been advanced by researchers for this type of behaviour.

Participants may hold anti-authoritarian feelings, feel embarrassed or ignorant, “dislike the topic under review”, be afraid of the consequences of participating or “feel inadequate” or feel that they do not know the right answers (Cooper & Schindler, 2001:300). During the interviewing process, I used the seven stages of conducting an in-depth interview suggested by Kvale (1996:88): thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, verifying and reporting.

2.5.1.1 Thematising

I explained to the interviewees that the purpose of the interview was to seek their understanding, ideas, opinions and perceptions of teacher leadership. The interviews were used to complement other research methods, such as documentary analysis, used in this research. The information gathered from the interviews provided me with an insight into the current thinking and practice of leadership in public secondary schools. It also afforded me with the opportunity to learn about teachers’ perceptions of leadership as well as the policies guiding teacher leadership in schools. Similarly, it enabled me to know the strategies in which leadership could be promoted in public secondary schools. Furthermore, it helped me to understand the forms of power and hegemony inherent in schools. Finally, it illustrated that teachers reflect and take steps to free themselves from the limitations that preclude them from advancement.

2.5.1.2 Designing

I designed an interview guide to ensure consistency and to make sure that the right questions were asked (Seidman, 2006:91-92). The interview guide consisted of three parts. Part 1 was the factsheet which comprised of the actual questions and post-interview comment sheet. This contained the date, place of the interview and the position of the interviewee (Appendix 12) as well as demographic information about the interviewee such as sex, leadership position, education qualifications, years in the teaching profession and years in the current leadership position (See Table 2.1 on profiles of research participants). Part 2 was the actual questions
posed (Appendix 12) and Part 3 was the post-interview comments sheet where I recorded my impressions and interpretations.

2.5.1.3 Interviewing

The interview process consisted of sensitisation followed by the actual interview and the recording of the outcomes of the interview (see Appendices, 11 & 16). During the sensitisation sessions, I informed the participants about the research objectives, the research procedures and assured them of their anonymity throughout the research process. I used the session to establish a relationship with the participants and emphasised the need for honest and frank discussions throughout the research process. I used the sessions to discuss the issue of informed consent and the option to withdraw at any time from the research (Appendix 10). I also told the participants that they were free to ask any questions, make comments or ask for clarifications concerning their participation in the research or on any issue concerning the research.

The second part of the interview was the confirmation of acceptance by the participants and the consent form. All necessary measures to put the participants at ease and to reduce the sense of intrusion during the semi-structured interviews were put in place.

During the third part of the interview, I asked permission to use an audio recorder during the interviews. Not only did the semi-structured interviews enable me to gain rich data from the participants, but they found it rewarding as it assisted them in developing a new understanding about teacher leadership. It also afforded them an opportunity to voice their own opinions of the practice of teacher leadership in schools. However, semi-structured interviews can be affected by researcher bias. I tried to limit any bias by allowing the participants to speak their minds freely and by not judging their answers.

2.5.1.4 Reflections on semi-structured interviews

The semi-structured interview helped me to probe for more specific answers and to observe non-verbal behaviour (Middlewood, Coleman & Lumby, 2001:145-147). This methodology provides first-hand experience in understanding the perceptions as well as the challenges of teachers as leaders in schools. I encouraged the participants to talk freely about their
experiences, the challenges they face and the impact of the policies of education on them. I used pseudonyms to protect the identity of the participants and the research sites. This enhances the quality of data generated and helps in the confidentiality of the analysis. It also encourages the spirit of openness, frankness and collaboration between me and the research participants. The questions asked enabled new concepts to emerge as I asked the participants for examples or followed up questions by asking them: “what more can you tell me?” Details were obtained by asking for specific examples. This made the data rich in explanations and analysis of leadership in schools.

At the end of each interview, I would ask myself if I had asked the right questions, probed an issue further or could have employed better ways of asking questions for the next interview. This enabled me to ponder on these issues throughout the interview process as well as in the analysis of the data. Another key issue was the verbatim transcription. The participants agreed to see the verbatim transcriptions but when I got to their various schools, I encountered expressions such as: “oh you shouldn’t have bothered” or “printing this costs you money and transportation, you that are a student”. I was expecting that some of the participants would experience shock or dismay reading through the verbatim transcriptions, but to my surprise, seven of them read through two pages and said that they were satisfied, while the rest said that “it is okay” without reading through it. This proves that the issue was topical and served as a relief for teachers to bare their minds based on the platform that was provided.

I reflected on the venue for the study because public secondary schools need to have seminar or boardrooms where interviews or short training sessions could take place, as this would minimise the background noise encountered during the transcriptions. I was sensitive to the fact that the tape recorder may go flat and that data could be lost. I ensured that I had extra batteries and after each interview I transferred it to my laptop and desktop immediately. On the whole, some of the participants wanted to know about the possibility of pursuing a postgraduate course abroad and I hope that I have given them the best advice based on my experience. My experience is that doctoral study requires thorough planning, open-mindedness, regular means of sustenance, honesty, fairness and changes in weather conditions especially during winter. Section 2.6.2 discusses the documentary analysis as one of the data collection methods used in the study.
2.5.2 Documentary analysis

Documentary analysis is another important source of data collection employed in the study. It refers to the review of legal documents such as education policies, newsletters, work descriptions, minutes of meetings or any other kind of official or legal written material, film or photographs (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:201; Middlewood, Coleman & Lumby, 2001:14-145). Examples of the documents that could be reviewed in schools are: curricula, course outlines, timetables, notices, letters to parents and inspection reports (Gray, 2004:388-390). Stake (1995:68) describes documentary analysis as a substitute for records of activity that the researcher cannot observe directly. It provides useful insights into past events (Burton & Jones, 2008:75). I also analysed teachers’ work schedules and the NPE of 2004 and consulted the Lagos State Teacher’s Handbook (2003), TRCN Teachers’ Handbook (2005) and the National Teacher Education Policy (2009). These are statutory documents for schools in Nigeria.

The advantage of studying documentation is that it can help the researcher to fill in missing data or raise a host of new questions on the accuracy of observations and interpretations gathered during the interview process (McEwan & McEwan, 2003:82). Other advantages of documentary analysis is that it provides an opportunity to inform the topic further, provide valuable data for research and help contextualise a study (Ary, et al., 2010:443). It is an unobtrusive approach to qualitative research as it does not make demands on people and can be conducted as part of a study that includes other forms of data collection (ibid:443). In addition, it provides good background information and is a stable source of data (ibid:443).

There are also disadvantages to documentary analysis. According to Ary et al., (2010:433), public documentation is not produced for research purposes and may be manipulative or unrepresentative. In addition, it may not provide accurate accounts of events or settings and, above all, public documents may be biased. Ary et al., (2010:433) advice that researchers take note of the history of the document, its completeness and its original purpose.

The documents analysed are statutory documents to be kept in schools as they outline the aims, goals and the objectives of education in Nigeria. I used documentary analysis to corroborate the principals’, vice-principals’, TGPS’s and teachers’ interviews and to provide basic descriptions of teacher perceptions towards teacher leadership in public secondary schools, the influence of policy guiding teacher leadership as well as the current practice of
teacher leadership and the current strategies to promote leadership. A detailed description of the documentary analysis for the study is in Section 3.9 of the study.

### 2.5.3 Data collection timetable

I spent a minimum of one hour sensitising the participants and followed this with a question-and-answer session. I then returned to the schools for the semi-structured interviews. I collected data between February and November 2012. It should be noted that during this period, the schools had an extended vacation and the participants insisted that the interviews could only take place during school time. The vacation was followed by protest action, which delayed the research even further. The timetable is detailed in Appendix 15.

The breakdown of research procedures as documented in Appendix 15 is important because a researcher needs to create an inventory of the entire data set for data management purposes (Corti, 2008:194). The data collection timetable serves as a guide in performing relevant tasks during the research process. This helped me to organise my time effectively and to cover all the procedures that had been planned as this affects the validity of the data (Giffels, Vollmer & Bird, 2010:632). The process of how I analysed the data for the study and how I derived the themes is presented in Section 2.6.

### 2.6 DATA ANALYSIS AND THEORY GENERATION

#### 2.6.1 Data analysis

Miles and Huberman (1994:50) define data analysis as the process of systematically searching and arranging raw data with the aim of increasing one’s own understanding of the data. Denscombe (2003:271) describes data analysis as a process of breaking data into bits and pieces by “coding” or “categorising” it. Data analysis in qualitative research is an “ongoing, emerging and an iterative process” (Henning et al., 2004:127). Ary et al., (2010:465) contend that “data analysis is the heart of qualitative research and is a process that distinguishes it from quantitative research”. They suggest that a researcher should ensure that data is arranged in a coherent and logical manner for clarity and presentation.
In analysing data, I followed Miles and Huberman’s (1994:10-12) three interrelated phases: data reduction (this involves identifying, coding and classifying data into categories), data display (this involves assembling the information so that the themes and patterns are displayed) and data verification (this involves interpreting the data, verifying and drawing conclusions). According to Cohen, et al., (2011:493), a researcher would understand more about the phenomena being investigated if a constant comparative method of data analysis was used. This allowed me to focus on the participants’ perceptions, thoughts and actions as it related to the focus of the study.

The constant comparative method begins with an inductive coding and a simultaneous comparison of all the units of meanings across categories. Ritchie and Lewis (2003:217) note that analysis is essentially making sense of the data collected and using the results to answer the research questions. Henning et al., (2004:127) advice that before a researcher begins data analysis, the data from interviews should be transcribed. The transcriptions can then be analysed either manually or using a computer program. I analysed the data manually using the following stages.

**Stage 1:** After collecting and recording the raw data, I transcribed the semi-structured interviews verbatim. The transcriptions took a minimum of one hour each (see Appendix 16 for a sample of the duration of interviews and hours of transcription). After transcribing the interviews, I checked each of the transcribed files against the audio recording to ensure accuracy.

**Stage 2:** After reviewing the transcriptions from the interview questions, I identified codes from the interviews as illustrated in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: Example of coding**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question: What is your understanding of teacher leadership?</th>
<th>Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response: Clark: Well my own understanding is that as the teacher is teaching in the classroom, a teacher is also a leader because he is making</td>
<td>Formal leadership roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role model</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
himself as a role model before the students that he is teaching.

**Stage 3:** The codes were later turned into categories as shown in Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4: Categories**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What is your understanding of teacher leadership?</td>
<td>Formal leadership roles (FLDR), Role model (RM), Teacher attitudes (TA), Discipline (Disc)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 2.3 and 2.4 illustrate data analysis and theory generation. The excerpts show that participants’ responses were based on their understanding of leadership in a Nigerian context. I used the responses to generate themes. To ensure that I did not omit important information in the form of perceptions and experiences, I formulated a research question matrix as seen in Appendix 17.

**Stage 4:** I identified themes that correlated with major themes on teacher leadership identified by other researchers to provide a conceptual orientation for the data. An example is presented in Table 2.5. Abbreviations were used to denote themes within a particular category.

**Table 2.5: An example of coded themes for research question 1**

Research question 1: How do teachers perceive leadership in schools?

Code Theme 1: Perception of teacher leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FLDR</td>
<td>Formal leadership roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM</td>
<td>Role model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA</td>
<td>Teacher attitudes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disc</td>
<td>Discipline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TER</td>
<td>Teacher established roles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSM</td>
<td>Mastery of subject matter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDR</td>
<td>Through delegation of responsibilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLTM</td>
<td>Distributing leadership through merit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEE</td>
<td>Teacher effectiveness and efficiency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.6 provides a sample of coded themes on research question 1 that I asked: “How do teachers perceive leadership in schools?” This process was used in all of the semi-structured interviews to develop themes and subthemes from the research questions.

**Table 2.6: Sample of coded themes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FLDR</td>
<td>It has to do with the activities in the classroom situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM</td>
<td>You must be a role model in all ramifications.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DISC</td>
<td>As a colleague, we work together to enforce discipline in the school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TER</td>
<td>That is what I meant by the organogram.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSM</td>
<td>Always be a leader in their areas of qualification. In their subject area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TDR</td>
<td>Well, it is through delegation of responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLTM</td>
<td>The moment the right peg is put in the right hole, definitely things will work out very well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEE</td>
<td>Various committees which should be headed by an experienced hand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Stage 5**: Based on the codes, themes and subthemes were generated for each research question. For example

1. How do teachers perceive leadership in schools?
2. What are the policies guiding leadership in public secondary schools?
3. How do the current practices of school leadership influence teacher leadership in public secondary schools?
4. How can the practice of teacher leadership be advanced in public secondary schools?

**Table 2.7: Themes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception of teacher leaders</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence of policy on teacher leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current school practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancing teacher leadership</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The themes identified in the research are explained in Chapter Three and form part of the recommendations in Chapter Four. The discussion of the data is supported by earlier studies and the literature review in Chapter One. An example of content analysis can be seen using the question I posed to all participants: “What is your understanding of teacher leadership?”
Table 2.8 is an example of the content analysis used in the study. I picked reoccurring words from participants’ responses and coded them. This enabled me to code and identifies themes as shown in Tables 2.6 and 2.7.

### Table 2.8: Examples of content analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excerpt</th>
<th>Coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Researcher: What is your understanding of teacher leadership?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ade (a teacher) It has to do with activities in the classroom.</td>
<td>Formal teacher leader role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clark (vice-principal) Well, my own understanding is that as the teacher is teaching in the classroom, he’s also a leader.</td>
<td>Formal teacher leader role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adebayo (a principal) Teacher leadership specifies that teachers should always be a leader in their subject area.</td>
<td>Formal teacher leader role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayeola (a TGPS) It is based on professionalism.</td>
<td>Formal teacher leadership role</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I used content analysis to interpret the data as detailed in Section 2.6.2 as well as critical discourse analysis as explained in Section 2.6.3.

#### 2.6.2 Content analysis

Neuman (1997:272) refers to content analysis as a procedure for gathering and analysing the content of texts. The content could be words, meanings, pictures, symbols, ideas, themes or any message that can be communicated. Similarly, it is “any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings” (Patton, 2002: 453). Stemler (2002:5) describes content analysis as a powerful “data reduction technique” by compressing many text words into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding. All these have been explained in Section 2.6.1.

Elo and Kyngas (2008:113-114) note the criticism against the use of content analysis in research in that “it is flexible and there is no simple ‘right’ way of doing it and the excessive interpretation on the part of the researcher poses a threat to successful content analysis”. Denscombe (2003:222) argues that “it has an in-built tendency to dislocate the units and their meaning from the context in which they were made, and even the intentions of the writer”. In
order to immerse myself in the data, I went through the entire transcribed data one after the other for possible errors. Moreover, in order to make sense of the data, I went through each transcribed interview one after the other and used red marker to denote the answers that participants had given.

Each participant’s responses were assigned codes and the most frequent codes were categorised. I later collapsed some of the categories and simplified the matrix. In conducting the study as qualitative research within an interpretive paradigm, I relied on my research notes, summaries of the documents I analysed, the interview protocols and transcriptions of the audio recordings. To reduce any possible data loss, I began coding and categorisation immediately following transcription. According to Seidman (2006:281), transcription “is a crucial step for there is the potential for massive data loss, distortion and reduction of complexity”. The identified themes are presented in Table 2.7.

2.6.3 Critical discourse analysis

Weninger (2008:145) describes critical discourse analysis “as a critical perspective geared towards examining the subtle ways in which unequal power relations are maintained and reproduced through the use of language”. Its focus is on “how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts in communities, schools and classrooms”. Thus, the goal is to understand the contribution of language (discourse) and the way in which it replicates social inequalities. Weninger (2008:145) asserts that globalisation, power, ideology and hegemony are often revealed in critical discourse analysis studies that attempt to capture the interconnections among discourse, power and social organisations. Traynor (in Shaw & Bailey, 2009:413) informs that discourse offers ways of investigating meaning, whether in conversation or in culture.

Discourse analysis helped me to focus on the interaction of words and the literal meaning of language among school leaders. Discourse helped me to understand the complexities in the everyday management of schools (Bloome, Carter, Christian, Otto & Shuart-Faris, 2005: xvi-xvii). Discourse analysis also helps to document the interplay of power among school leaders as well as their perception and understanding of teacher leadership. Moreover, it helps to document the various factors that inhibit exploring teachers as leaders and the changes
required to explore teachers as leaders. Shaw and Bailey (2009:413-415) note that discourse analysis involves the explicit interpretation of the meaning, as well as the functions of human actions, the product of which mainly takes the form of verbal descriptions and explanations. The study reveals the way in which school leaders use power in their interactions with teachers and their perceptions of teachers. Table 2.9 shows the use of power in Egun Awori Senior College and Highway Senior Secondary School. I identify and highlight some power discourses.

Table 2.9: Power in discourses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Excerpt</th>
<th>Discourses identified</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Researcher</strong></td>
<td>What kind of perceptions do you have towards teacher leaders? Please give examples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Okoli (a principal)</td>
<td>Huh … un, well I’ve not experienced such before because like year tutors now, I change them, I used to change them. Like in my SS1 this person now even on Monday, my clerk was saying that this man and this woman, ooo, they have never assumed this kind of position before. So I used to change them, I used to reshuffle them. I’ve never had experience like that. Like the person that is in SS2 year tutor for now, I told him, be studying SS3 year tutor anytime from now, it may be your turn. So I have not experienced such ehh thing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Researcher</strong></td>
<td>What can you tell me from your experience of the strengths and weaknesses in the management of public secondary schools?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adebayo (a principal)</td>
<td>I place myself as a role model to make my teachers and students look up to me. I am very punctual so I can punish teachers that habitually come late to work.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.9 shows the discourses identified as seen in the the phrases “I change them, I used to change them”, “in my SS1”, “so I used to change them, I reshuffle them” and “so I can punish
teachers who habitually come late to work” show the type of leadership strategies adopted by school leaders in their relationships with the teachers. They also illustrate oppressive tendencies or subjection of school leaders of their colleagues and the power wielded as school leaders. In Section 2.7, I discuss the issue of ethical considerations as well as the credibility and trustworthiness of the research.

2.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations are vital in research. Ethics encompass on what is right and just and what is in the interest of the research and its participants (Flick, 2009:36). I applied the principle of informed consent as laid out by the Ethical Committee of the University of Johannesburg. Participants were informed about the whole research process, what was expected of them and how the research results would be used. Once I had received my approval letter from the education district to conduct the study in schools, I phoned each of the principals and explained the research process and what would be expected of them. I also received approval from the principals and the teachers concerning the research in their schools.

I visited each of the schools and was allowed to attend the staff meetings in which they were informed about the research and given the consent forms. I emphasised the issue of confidentiality, anonymity and the right to withdraw from the research at any time. No false promises were made to the participants. All sources of information cited in this study were referenced and acknowledged. I have respected the rights, interests and well-being of the participants. Copies of approval letters are in Appendices 3, 4 and 5. In the following section I outline the research considerations concerning consent, confidentiality, anonymity and the use of pseudonyms.

2.7.1 Consent

Consent simply means agreeing that something should take place or conversely, an agreement, compliance or permission (Patrick, 2011:86). In research, it means giving the participants the necessary information relating to the research and giving them the opportunity to give their consent before the commencement of the research. It is a form of agreement
between the researcher and the participant to share in the research. I followed the University of Johannesburg’s guidelines by obtaining the consent of the participants and I explained to them that they could withdraw from the research at any time if they so desired. I gave each participant the consent form to sign indicating that they understood the research and were willing to participate (Appendix 10).

Patrick (2011:86) states that the purpose of seeking consent is not merely a regulatory requirement, it is also about partnership based on trust, confidentiality and the promotion of sound educational principles. I stressed the issue of confidentiality and anonymity to each participant. Above all, they were informed about the opportunities to ask questions or seek clarifications on any issue concerning the research before signing the consent form.

Participants were able to select interview times and venues and some interviews were conducted during break periods or during free periods while others were conducted after school hours. Finding a quiet venue was sometimes difficult, as most schools did not have meeting rooms. Some of the venues included classrooms, offices, laboratories, staffrooms, Eko Project rooms and even the security gatehouse. For permission to conduct my research in the school, I got an approval letter from the TGPS which was sent to the principals of the participating schools. I was also given approval from the school principals as well as the consent of each participant.

2.7.2 Confidentiality

Confidentiality is a way of protecting participants’ right to privacy by not disclosing information from a participant in any way that might enable the individual to be traced or identified (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011:92). I informed the participants that any information obtained from them would be kept confidential unless otherwise agreed through informed consent. I informed the participants in writing and verbally that their anonymity and privacy would be treated ethically and confidentially (Appendix 11). I assured the participants that the transcribed interviews would be kept in a secure database and destroyed two years after the completion of the research report. I also reassured them that none of the information used for the purpose of this study would in any way reveal their identity.
However, people are often identifiable through the stories they tell, and I told them that if the authorities requested any information, I would be obliged to reveal it. I also explained that they could view the transcribed interview before publication. The questions are attached as Appendices 12, 13 and 14. These semi-structured questions promoted a conversational style that allowed the research participants an opportunity to guide the process (Yin, 2003). I also developed a Research Question Matrix (Appendix 17) linking interview questions to research questions to ensure that ample data was collected.

2.7.3 Anonymity and pseudonyms

Anonymity in research refers to a strategy adopted by a researcher to protect the identity as well as the responses of research participants (Ogden, 2008:16). Anonymity in research helps to make possible the disclosure of sensitive information from research participants. A pseudonym is a fictional name given to protect the identity of a person, group or place (Ogden, 2008:692). It is effective in protecting confidentiality and anonymity while researching sensitive topics. I used pseudonyms for both the schools and the participants in order to protect their identity, experiences and narrations.

2.7.4 Data management

The issue of confidentiality and the protection of participants’ rights in research are of major concern and relate to how collected data should be stored (Corti, 2008:193). The data for this study includes field notes, audio recordings, transcribed interviews, data analysis and discourse analysis files, consent and guarantee of confidentiality forms and all documents reviewed as part of the research process. All the data collected as part of the research process will be stored for two years and then destroyed. All data was saved on computer and password protected. According to Corti (2008:193), data management helps to ensure the safekeeping or future proofing of data. It also helps to reduce the risk of losing data which increases the accuracy and verifiability of data. In addition, it can be preserved for a longer time and there is an opportunity to re-analyse older data sets.
2.8 CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness in qualitative research supports the argument that the research findings are “worth paying attention to” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:290). Nieuwenhuis (2007:80) says that “validity and reliability” refers to research that is “credible and trustworthy”. In this study, I applied Lincoln and Guba’s (1985:991) criteria for trustworthiness which are credibility, applicability, dependability and confirmability “as the naturalists’ equivalent to the conventional criteria of inquiry of internal and external validity, reliability and neutrality respectively”.

Lincoln and Guba (1995: 316) claim that since there can be no reliability without validity, a demonstration of the latter is sufficient to establish the former. To Meriam (1998:198), trustworthiness is the ability to trust the research results and have confidence in its potential success. Moreover, it provides the reader with a detailed description to show that the conclusions make sense and that the people acting in events are real (Merriam, 1998:199). To ensure trustworthiness of the study, I used multiple methods of data collection such as semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:80). I also used member checks and external audit to enhance trustworthiness.

2.8.1 Triangulation

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:154) refer to triangulation as “the use of different data sources of data to corroborate research findings in a study”. Nieuwenhuis (2007:80) argues that triangulation is a traditional strategy for improving the validity and reliability of research or evaluation of its findings. I ensured trustworthiness of this study and its findings by conducting the research in a transparent manner. I provided in-depth descriptions to show the challenges and interactions of teachers and integrated them with data derived from the school setting, thereby guaranteeing validity.

I presented the findings truthfully and participants confirmed the results of the study. The trustworthiness of this research is established by the use of multiple sources of data elicitation strategies, such as semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:80). This enhances chains of evidence that are triangulated and compared for the purpose of data enrichment and credibility.
2.8.2 Dependability

This is the consistency in research findings, if the same research is to be replicated using the same context, participants and methods (Shenton, 2004:71). Ary et al., (2010:502) argued that to establish dependability in research, the researcher must use ‘an audit trail’. This entails keeping the records of the phases of the research processes. Dependability was ensured through the formulation of research questions and design, thoroughness in sourcing related literature as well as the sampling procedure, interview guide, research timetable and raw data and other descriptive materials that could be reviewed by other researchers. I kept the complete verbatim records of the transcription as well as my field notes. To guard against bias, I ensure that the actual words of the participants that informed the findings were presented in the study. In addition, I continually review the verbatim transcript and reflected on my data analysis.

2.8.3 Credibility

Credibility in research is the confidence that the interpretations of the data are original. Merriam (1998:64) states “that credibility is the congruence of the findings of the study with actual reality”. This is to show that the researcher has the self-assurance of the findings of the study. Lincoln and Guba (1985) explain that credibility is crucial to understanding and establishing trustworthiness in research. In ensuring credibility, I describe participants’ experiences as they were ‘lived and perceived’ by the participants themselves. In my field journal, I recorded the progress, frustrations as well as the pros and cons of the research process.

To ensure credibility, I used member checking and an external audit of the methods used in the research. The auditor examined my original transcripts, data analysis documents, comments from participants and the final result of the study. I also checked and double checked transcriptions and codes with my supervisor for possible errors during the research analysis. In addition, I triangulated all data collected during the research processes from semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis to reveal common themes to provide reliable findings.
2.8.4 Transferability

This is the extent by which the findings and the interpretations of research can be transferred or have applicability to other researchers using the same conditions, circumstances and methods (Shenton, 2004:70). This is a multiple case study involving five public secondary schools and findings may not necessarily be generalisable to other settings. This is one of the disadvantage associated with qualitative research due to its small samples (Denscombe (2003:280-281). I used rich, thick and detailed descriptions of participants’ views on teacher leadership as well as detailed descriptions of the setting in which they live and work to help other researchers replicate the study in a political and religious volatile environment such as Nigeria.

2.8.5 Confirmability

Confirmability in research is ensuring that the research findings are the ideas, words and experiences of the participants and not due to any preferences or bias of the researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:300; Shenton, 2004:72). Ary et al., (2012:504) noted that audit trail is one of the strategies for demonstrating confirmability as this would enable other researchers given the same data and context to arrive or not arrive at the same conclusions. In this study, I used purposive sampling by selecting participants that represent the target population and possess rich information that can enhance the study and its findings (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003:104-105; Struwig & Stead, 2004:122). I used multiple case study and adopted the qualitative research method to enable me understand the issue of teacher leadership from the participants point of view. The semi-structure interview posed to the participants were carefully formulated to reduce bias as well as to understand their ‘lived’ experiences (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:349-350). I quoted extensively the verbal accounts of participants in the analysis and it contributes to the study credibility. The verbatim accounts of the participants allowed me to understand the response of the participants in their totality (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003:190).

Throughout the research process, I remained objective. During interview sessions, I did not give the participants any indication, either verbally or through non-verbal gestures, that I was surprised or agreed or disagreed with their responses. Smalling (1995:22) advises that total objectivity cannot be achieved as a researcher knows that he or she has to respond to the
participants in an empathetic manner during an interview, since the nature of the data collection involves interaction between the researcher and the participants. The interaction was mutual and based on honesty and a quest for education ideals in the Nigerian society. Therefore, I used an external audit for the research, triangulation and member checking.

2.8.6 Member checks

Member checks allow the research participants to check or verify research interpretations. Denzin and Lincoln (2011:314) regard member checks as “the most critical technique for establishing credibility”. I allowed participants access to the interview guide and after transcription, the participants were able to verify if what they had said had been reported accurately. This provided the participants with an opportunity to add or remove any information in the typed interview transcripts.

2.8.7 External audit

This involves engaging a researcher who is not involved in the research process to examine the research procedure of the study to ascertain the accuracy and evaluate whether or not the research findings, interpretations and conclusions are supported by data. This is a crucial feedback mechanism that can lead to additional data gathering as well as the development of stronger and better articulated findings (Creswell, 2009:192). Although there are positive aspects to external auditing, it may lead to confusion rather than to confirmation of the accuracy of the research procedure. The external auditor may disagree with the researcher on the interpretation of the data. External auditing relies on “the assumption that there is a fixed truth that can be accounted for by a researcher and confirmed by an outside auditor”. The external auditor for this study was an educator at Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education in Otto/Ijanikin. He understands qualitative research and I value him as a colleague.

2.9 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I located the study in its wider framework and explained the motivation behind my choice of the qualitative paradigm adopted in the study. It enabled me to gather data form participants in their natural environment and to narrate their experiences with thick, rich descriptions. Moreover, I explain the methods I employed in data collection such as semi-
structured interviews and documentary analysis. I also explained how I solicited my sample and provided reasons for using purposive sampling. I described how I negotiated entrance into the research sites and focused on the researcher’s positionality. I ensured that I dealt with the issue of ethical consideration such as consent, confidentiality and data management throughout the research process. To ensure the credibility of the research, I employed member checking, external auditing and triangulation. Furthermore, I used content analysis and critical discourse analysis in analysing the data.

I had good interpersonal relationships with the research participants. This was achieved through open and honest communication and transparency which enabled them to see the interview guide and the verbatim transcriptions of the interviews. I reflected on the challenges I experienced on the research process in conducting the interviews as well as in transcriptions. Based on the above, data reveals that exploring teacher leadership is a form of collaboration among stakeholders in decision-making to enhance education practice.

Teacher leader skills, knowledge, orientation and perception play a crucial role in achieving organisational goals. Teacher leadership is performance oriented as it relates to student performance. The analysis and presentation of exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools is presented in Chapter Three. It reveals the way in which exploring teacher leadership will contribute to effective and quality NPSS.
CHAPTER THREE: TEACHERS’ VOICES OF SWEET AND AGONY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the field data I collected through semi-structured interviews and document the analysis in exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools. The themes derived for the study are based on the study research questions. The themes help to explain the perceptions and understanding of school leaders in redefining teacher leadership. The four main themes that emerged from the data are

1. The perception of teacher leaders
2. The influence of policy on teacher leadership
3. Current school practices
4. The promotion of teacher leadership

The chapter is presented in five main subheadings.

1. How teacher leadership is practised in the context of Nigeria with a focus on (i) distributing leadership among teachers and (ii) finding the interface of teachers’ understanding of distributed leadership in schools.
2. How policy influences teacher leadership in public secondary schools with a focus on (i) teacher identity, (ii) professional development, (iii) policy changes and (iv) micropolitics.
3. How the current understanding of school leadership practices in the Nigerian context aligns with the aim of the study. This section focuses on (i) teaching and learning, (ii) school community relations, (iii) mindsets on gender constructs and (iv) hindrances in current school practices.
4. How promoting teacher leadership in schools relates to the aim of the study. The strategies identified are (i) networking, (ii) succession management, (iii) coaching and (iv) trust.
5. How documentary analysis focused on the policy documents are analysed in the study.

3.2 PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHER LEADERSHIP

I was interested in understanding the perception of public secondary school teachers about teacher leadership. The first research question I asked in the interviews was: “How do
teachers perceive leadership in schools?” In the study, the 16 participants had various perspectives. Eleven participants (seven teachers, three vice-principals and a principal) defined teacher leadership as formal leadership roles, while one vice-principal equated teacher leadership with both formal leadership roles and role modelling. Similarly, the education administrator identified teacher leadership with the career progression of teachers. Moreover, two teachers defined teacher leadership from a positional point of view, while two principals perceived it to be the attributes of a teacher as well as the mastery of subject matter. I highlight a few examples below to show the way in which teachers perceive teacher leadership in their own context.

### 3.2.1 Formal teacher leadership roles

Formal teacher leadership roles refer to the assigned professional and administrative responsibilities of teachers in the teaching and learning processes. In this study, 11 similar responses from participants defined teacher leadership as formal leadership roles, which are about positionality and responsibility. These duties include instructional and curriculum development as well as the roles of departmental chairs in schools to achieve education goals. Butter, a teacher in Red High Senior Secondary School, stated that, “As a teacher, you assumed the role of leadership; you have undergone a series of training that qualified you to be a professional teacher”. Similarly, Clark, a vice-principal at Egun Awori Senior Secondary School, explained that, “As the teacher is teaching in the classroom, he’s also a leader”. This view is supported by Loveth, a teacher at White and Blue Senior Secondary School, who said that “once you stand before your students and give instructions, you are already leading”.

The excerpts show that participants relate teacher leadership to professional teacher training. In the participants’ opinions, a teacher assumes the role of a leader when teaching in the classroom. In the Nigerian context, teachers are identified by their teaching qualification and subsequent learning in schools. The issue of professional training for teachers is discussed in Section 72 of the NPE’s 2004 edition. It is believed that training will equip teachers for effective performance of their duties in schools. This study aligns with the first precepts of teacher leadership as identified by Silva, Gimbert and Nolan (2000:801) as well as the study of the IEL (2001:3) in the United States which describes the formal roles of teachers as lead
teachers and mentors. In line with this finding, Muijs and Harris (2006:962) state that “teacher leadership is defined as comprising of both formal and informal leadership roles”.

In a study on teachers’ formal leadership roles, Sun, Frank, Penuel and Kim (2013:610-611) found that formal leaders influence general teaching practices (such as setting standards, selecting materials and assessing students), while informal leaders influence specific pedagogical practices (for example, the use of particular strategies for teaching basic reading skills). Their study suggests the importance of, and strategies for, developing a strong instructional leadership team that recognises and supports the complementary influences of formal and informal leaders.

The participants illustrate that professional training is a prerequisite for teachers. In addition, the participants limit a teacher’s role to teaching in the classroom, whereas the study is aimed at exploring teacher leadership both inside and outside the classroom. This study argues that teachers and the teaching profession must be given its pride of place among other professions. Neumann, Jones and Webb (2012a:3) contend that inculcating the ideas of education leadership in teacher education would give teachers the understanding of leadership acts they perform daily and that this would make them reflect on their roles as teachers. This would instil confidence in them and result in improving teaching and learning as well as enabling teachers to be considered as professionals. In contrast, Anderson (2004:110) observes that formal teacher leadership roles impede some forms of teacher leadership and that formal leaders can sometimes exclude other individuals or groups from leadership roles, thereby reducing the sharing of decision-making and teacher leadership in schools.

### 3.2.2 Role models

A role model is someone to look up to for advice and guidance on professional, administrative or personal issues. Modelling, which is akin to mentoring in the study, is described by Smith (2011:14) as a “manager with experience, expertise and wisdom who teaches, counsels and helps a less experienced or less knowledgeable person to develop professionally and personally whether through formal and informal processes”. This aligns with the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct (2013:15) that explains mentoring as the responsibility of senior
colleagues to improve junior colleagues professionally in an exemplary manner worthy of the teaching profession.

Three study participants highlighted teacher leadership as role modelling for students and colleagues. Boladale, a teacher from White and Blue Senior Secondary School, explained that, “I see teacher leadership as role models for teachers and also passing down some experiences to those at the lower cadre.” Saida, a vice-principal of Highway Senior Secondary School, agreed and said that, “My understanding of teacher leadership is that any good teacher should lead by example.”

The responses describe the responsibilities of teachers to students and colleagues as having exemplary behaviour and an ability to teach effectively and efficiently. Literature has shown that prolonged interaction with students often leads to teachers making indelible impressions on the lives of their students. School experiences mould and impact the lives of students and influence their future decisions (Gourneau, 2005:1-6). Role modelling implies that teachers’ actions can make a life-time difference in the lives of students. This conclusion aligns with the social learning theory of Albert Bandura (1977 & 1991) that “human behaviour is transmitted largely through exposure to role models” and with the study of Lashley and Barron (2006:555) that “teachers identified by students as models in an educational context play a particularly important role in students learning process”. This is corroborated in Section 5 subsection 41 of the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct that enjoins teachers to be good role models to students in words, deeds and actions as they carry out their duties and portray the dignity of the profession (TRCN, 2005:21).

Nevertheless, Giroux (in Perumal, 2014:5) contends that teachers have the potential to be transformative intellectuals because they can combine scholarly reflection and practice in the service of educating students to be critical thinkers who participate in an informed democracy. This study shows that teachers are yet to move to the domain of transformative intellectuals in moulding students towards social and gender issues. Modelling students on these issues will enable students to challenge some of the problems in schools such as examination malpractice, violence and even rape and to provide solutions that can effect a positive change in their environment. Bayo, a teacher from Egun Awori Senior Secondary School, provided another dimension of defining teacher leadership. Bayo stated that, “Teacher leadership, to
me, means managing the available resources, human and material to achieve the expected institutional goals in and outside the classroom situation.”

He relates teacher leadership to the supervision of staff members as well as managing available material resources to achieve goals inside and outside the school. He views teacher leadership from a management perspective. However, the leadership and management concept overlap with the related idea of administration and both are required for organisational purposes (Bush, 2003:7-9; Earley & Weindling, 2004:6). According to Earley and Weindling (2004:6), management and leadership motivate people and provide a sense of purpose to others in the school environment. Earley and Weindling (2004:6) explain that leadership emphasises the values, vision and mission of an organisation, whereas management mainly focuses on the implementation of planned programmes and the deployment of resources to achieve organised programmes.

### 3.2.3 Subject matter mastery

A teacher is a subject matter master when he or she has good knowledge of the subject and possesses the ability to impact pupils. Three participants define teacher leadership as a teacher’s mastery of subject matter, a teacher’s personal traits and a teacher’s formal role. Adebayo, a principal at Egun Awori Senior Secondary School, explained that, “Teacher leadership specifies that teachers should always be leaders in their areas of qualification. In their subject areas, they must prove their competency and be able to respond to any challenge at any point in time.”

The principal notes that teachers must be proficient and competent in subject delivery at all times. Mastery of subject matter entails teachers having sound knowledge of their subject matter and being able to select appropriate and adequate facts in the planning and delivery of lessons. It also means keeping abreast of the latest knowledge in their area of professional practice as enshrined in Section 31 of the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct as well as in Principle 7(4) of the Nigerian Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) (2009). Literature has shown that teachers become leaders through the mastery of subject matter (Ayeni, 2010; Bennis, 2009:35). The findings of this research show that effective teaching depends on the teachers’ knowledge of the subject matter and supports the findings of Fakeye (2012:2) that there is a
high correlation between what teachers know and what they teach. Neumann, Jones and Webb (2012b:2) were of the view that teachers must understand and master the acts of leadership they practise daily. This would enable them to “navigate their micropolitical environment” and make them more informed so that they can correct hegemony, injustices and oppressive tendencies in schools.

In contrast, Ivowi (2006:33) observes that teachers are no longer masters of their subject matter and concludes that this affects teaching and learning outcomes. Hulpia, Devos and Rosseel (2009:308) and Ngugi and Thinguri (2014:646) offer some reasons for the lack of mastery of subject matter. They explain that teachers are handicapped if they are unfamiliar with the body of knowledge taught and that students prosper when qualified teachers and principals invest time and effort in their learning and development. Since mastery of the subject matter is a sine qua non in teaching and learning, teachers should be up-to-date with new developments in teaching and willing to share knowledge with their colleagues. In addition, they should have knowledge of their political environment as well as the constitutional provisions that protect self-freedom and should pass it on to students. This will make it possible for students to use constitutional provisions to fight injustice and oppression within and outside their environment.

Similarly, Ayeola, the education administrator, views teacher leadership from the perspective of career progression. She said the following about teacher leadership:

To me, teacher leadership is for those who are willing to get to the levels of TGPS because they are also teachers and managers. But to get the principal ship, year tutor, head of sessions, head of departments, vice-principal administration, vice-principal academics, those are leaders who must have gone through series of training.

The excerpt shows the need for eagerness on the part of teachers to get to this peak of a teacher’s career according to the hierarchical context in Nigeria. Moreover, teachers are leaders as well as managers through the various formal positions in the school and series of training available. According to Section 10 of the Lagos State Post-Primary Teaching Service Law (LSPPTSL) of 2005, any principal in any of the public schools is eligible to become the TGPS in any of the six education districts in the state. This is a motivation for teachers to
become education administrators. Teacher leadership practices are discussed in Section 3.2 as one of the subthemes of Theme 1 about teacher’s perceptions of leadership.

3.3 TEACHER LEADERSHIP PRACTICES

Teacher leadership practices are built on the belief that a teacher’s skills and knowledge are to enhance teaching and learning in schools and promote pupil performance. Harrison and Killion (2007:74-77) have identified ten leadership practices for teachers such as resource provider, instructional specialist, curriculum specialist, classroom supporter, learning facilitation, mentor, school leader and data coach (Refer to Chapter One, Section 1.10.1–6 of this study). Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Whalstrom (2010:66) point out that teachers and principals agree that the most instructionally helpful leadership practices in schools are focusing the school on goals and expectations for student achievement, keeping track of teachers’ professional development needs and creating structures and opportunities for teachers to collaborate. This can only be achieved in an atmosphere of discipline and if the teachers’ attitudes promote the achievement of goals. The study participants define teacher leadership practices through the lens of a teacher’s attitudes, discipline, teaching roles, teamwork and co-operation within a framework of policy changes. The teacher leadership practices expected of teachers are stated in Section 26 to 32 of the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct (2005). All of these aspects are explained in this chapter.

3.3.1 Teacher attitudes

Teacher attitude refers to the approach or mindset of teachers in the teaching and learning processes. An attitude is described as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably towards an object, person, institution or event” (Webster, Mavies, Timothy & Cordial, 2012:33). It is also defined as “very general evaluations that people hold of themselves, other people, objects and issues” (Webster et al., 2012:33). Teaching is a profession governed by rules and regulations and teachers are expected to exhibit the ethical standards as expressed in the Teachers’ Code of Conduct. It is clearly stated in the code that a violation of any aspect of the code attracts sanctions (such as a reprimand, advice, suspension or deletion of the violator’s name from the Teachers’ Register). Section 9 of the TRCN Act empowers the Teachers’ Disciplinary Council to punish any erring member if found guilty. In this study,
three responses from teachers highlight the attitude that some of their colleagues harbour towards teacher leadership. Massarawa, a teacher at Nigeria Senior Grammar School, explained that, “Many teachers do not want to take corrections especially from their heads of departments because they are aware that the heads of department cannot sanction them. So, it goes across like that.”

Orji, a teacher at Highway Senior Secondary School, supports Massarawa’s view on the attitude of teachers in schools. Orji commented that, “The lazy teachers, because I always insist on them to do their work, to write their lesson notes, they see me as a different thing.” The excerpts indicate a high level of teacher disregard for their leaders as well as a casual attitude towards work. It also shows that these teachers believe that they will not suffer any consequences for their actions. Irungu (2012) found that in Kenya the challenge faced by the head teachers is unwillingness from teachers to accept assignments. Moreover, there is often a negative attitude towards work. Nevertheless, teachers should model students on democratic attitudes that will enable them to fight oppression in their society, be tolerant and fight for the common good of all.

However, the findings of Price (2012:39) reveal that the positive attitudes of principals and teachers create an atmosphere for learning. This is often referred to as a school climate and it influences school effectiveness. In addition, an atmosphere of trust, shared vision and openness creates positive school climate conditions. Literature shows the reciprocity of thoughts, feelings and actions at work with people’s thoughts, feelings and actions in general (Brief & Weiss, 2002:280). An example in education leadership is Douglas Macgregor’s (1960) Theory X and Y. In Theory X, employees are viewed generally as having negative attitudes towards work. They are termed “lazy” and are motivated only by money. Theory X presents a pessimistic view of the nature of people in relation to work. In contrast, Theory Y employers develop ways to tap into the hidden potential of their staff, so that they become self-motivated and self-controlled. This theory can help school administrators to focus on the attitude which an individual carries to his or her work. It is also a guide of positive approaches towards management (Barnett, 2006:914-916).
3.3.2 Discipline

Discipline refers to the readiness or ability to respect authority and observe conventional or established laws of society or an organisation. Two of the teachers’ responses were similar as they viewed discipline as an understanding of right and wrong behaviour. They added that compliance is first and foremost determined by a leader’s obedience to a rule or instruction. Bayo explained that: “A well-written rule and regulation prescribes what a worker should do and what he ought not to do. The ability, or otherwise, of workers to comply largely depends on the leader’s compliance with the rules”.

Bayo states that teachers believe that discipline is a professional code of conduct that guides both an individual’s professional and personal behaviour. Discipline depends on respect for rules and regulations. Subordinates often feel no obligation to be disciplined if their leader fails to follow the rules. Leaders should always lead by example and be ready to obey organisational rules and regulations. Discipline has to do with morals, attitudes, self-control and practices in achieving set goals (Reyes, 2006:294). Discipline is a prerequisite for school and classroom management (COMPASS/USAID, n.d:34).

Discipline can be regarded as qualities inherent in rules and regulations, the established code of conduct in an organisation or acceptable standards and behaviours guiding the operation of an organisation. In Nigeria, the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct specifies both professional and personal conduct for teachers in their relationship with students, parents, colleagues, the community and employers (TRCN, 2013:15-22). Sanctions are imposed for violations irrespective of the position of the offender. Enforcement is made through measures that must be inculcated in all teaching staff (TRCN, 2013:9-10). Management of any organisation is ineffectual without control and discipline.

The Lagos State Government (LASG) (2010:33) identifies a well-disciplined school or classroom as one in which there are records of progress, peace and tranquillity and where pupils refrain from all forms of anti-social behaviour. A disciplined school will engender an effective and result-oriented teaching or learning experience. It will also encourage transformation to take place in the school and also in the pupils. Each school that participated in the study has rules and regulations that need to be followed by teachers and students in line with the prescribed professional ethics enshrined in the Teachers’ Handbook. Sections 70 and
71 of the handbook detail the expectations of stakeholders and the achievement of education goals. Section 44 of the TRCN code mandates teachers to ensure that pupils behave in a civil and disciplined manner at all times.

### 3.3.3 Teacher established roles

Teachers’ established roles are the legitimate roles and duties of teachers as defined by the institutional rules, schemes and norms of the teaching profession. There is a code of conduct that defines the minimum standards expected of professional teachers. This code of conduct specifies the professionalism, discipline, rights and responsibilities of a teacher and the ethical standards expected of professional teachers (TRCN, 2013:1). Teaching is recognised as a profession in Nigeria and there are prescribed roles or duties for teachers enshrined in the Lagos State Teachers’ Handbook (PP-TESCOM, 2003:32-38). Three of the participants noted the importance of the teacher’s handbook. One of the participants, Saida, mentioned that, “The teachers’ handbook is very detailed about what is expected of each teacher.” Winners, a teacher in Red High Senior Secondary School, shared Saida’s view of the importance of the teachers’ handbook. Winners explained that, “The teachers’ handbook enables us to know our duties as teachers.”

The teachers’ handbook is viewed as a valuable resource in understanding the roles and responsibilities of teachers in achieving education outcomes. A school, as a formal organisation, has clear-cut roles for its members. A teacher is expected to guide, instruct, monitor, help, assess and evaluate students to assist them in succeeding on their education journey.

### 3.3.4 Teamwork and co-operation

Teamwork and co-operation refers to people working together to achieve goals in an organisation. According to Tarricone and Luca (2002:641), teamwork relies on individuals working together in a co-operative environment to achieve common goals through sharing knowledge and skills. Two of the study participants emphasised the necessity of teamwork and co-operation to achieve education outcomes. According to Njoku, a teacher at White and Blue Senior Secondary School, “First, is your ability to carry them along; second is a good relationship with them and the execution of the main job; you have to co-operate with them
and believe in them knowing full well that you alone cannot do it. It involves teamwork.”
Equally, Ade, a teacher at Nigeria Senior Grammar School, pointed out that, “As colleagues, we work together to achieve organisational goals”.

Qualities such as trust, co-operation and mutual understanding are significant ingredients for achieving goals as well as having a tolerance for and encouraging others to achieve their best. All organisations are made up of people with diverse capabilities and interests and if everyone works towards a common goal, a workplace that is efficient, dynamic and productive is achieved. Singh and Anthony (2005:16-17) agree with the study participants that earning trust along with co-ordination among team members is important for fruitful results.

The study of Ezera-Lusena (2010:140) shows the importance of teamwork in increasing competitiveness in a school by improving productivity, quality and encouraging innovation among the teachers, facilitating interaction among school personnel and increasing an understanding of achieving school objectives. Trust also leads to co-operative behaviour among individuals, corporations and groups (Kyriazis & Rowland, 2004:4-5). Section 23 of the TRCN code enjoins teachers to seek assistance from colleagues in tasks beyond their abilities. Some researchers (Erickson, Brandes, Mitchell & Mitchell, 2005; Mccoter, 2001 and Putnam & Borko, 2000) note that “schools that make extensive use of teacher collaboration are particularly successful in promoting teacher learning”. Thus, the attributes required for successful teamwork include commitment to team success and shared goals, interdependence, interpersonal skills, open communication and positive feedback, appropriate team composition, commitment to team processes, leadership and accountability (Tarricone & Luca, 2002:641).

3.3.5 Policy changes
A policy change is a major modification of a course of action or guideline. Since the reintroduction of democracy in 1999 in Nigeria, the government has acknowledged the need to revise and update the NPE once more to ensure that the education system meets the needs of a new democracy. New promotion criteria for school management structures have been encapsulated in the Education Law of 2005 in Lagos State. Four study participants describe
the changes in both the education policy and the new promotion criteria. Okoli, a principal at Highway Senior Secondary School, stated that:

They have been practising this for long and we are still passing it on to others. Not much difference, the only difference now is that those who are heads of departments and year tutors are of higher levels, unlike before because, I remember when I was on level 9, I was head of department, but now it is not like that again because we have many people on higher levels 15, 16 and 13. So there is no way a level 9 can be a year tutor now or a head of department.

Bayo, pointed out that, “If I may use the word ‘curriculum’ which is in place changes every day, and we have polices formulated and before it is carried out it has been changed”.

Participants recall the difference between the old and new policy insofar as the new policy designates positions on the higher levels. Moreover, in NPSS there are many qualified people, but little space at the top for leaders. In addition, the frequent changes in policy affect implementation. Nigeria has undergone three revisions of its NPE. The revisions were made to accommodate the socio-economic and political aspirations of Nigerians and to align the country’s education with international standards (Imam, 2012:1; Saint, Hartnett & Strassner, 2003:259). Similarly, in the context of Tanzania, Nyirenda (2013:4-5) noted the frequent changes in education policies by politicians and found that some of these changes were sometimes of less importance to education goals.

Ayeni and Dada (2011:199) infer that the education policy in Nigeria was revised to address the perceived needs of the government in power and to ensure that the education sector supports government’s developmental goals. The authors further stated that the problem with policy changes in Nigeria is the lack of implementation. Meanwhile, the new Education Reform of Lagos State has stipulated a minimum of a university degree for entry into the teaching profession at the senior secondary school level. However, Nwangwa and Omotere (2013:168) found that teachers in Nigeria have problems implementing the new education policies because of a lack of training. The policy changes are detailed in Chapter 1.8 of the study. Section 3.3 is based on teacher’s perceptions of distributing leadership in school.
3.4 DISTRIBUTION OF LEADERSHIP AMONG TEACHERS

The delegation of responsibilities is one of the most important management skills in any organisation (Morake, Monobe & Mbulawa, 2012:153). The delegation of responsibilities is the downward transference of formal authority from superior to subordinate, or handing over an assignment or new or different tasks to a subordinate (D’souza, 2001:474; Yukl, 2010:150). Morake et al., (2012:1) describe it as the process of entrusting authority and responsibility to other people. Oduro (2004:17) explains that distributing leadership is initiated by a head teacher who identifies and delegates leadership responsibilities to individual teachers based on their expertise and skill. The head teacher expects the teacher to be able to accomplish the delegated role, while the head teacher is expected to provide support to the teacher. Mullins (2007:694-695) contends that by delegating, the principal gives teachers the authority to carry out the task of teaching and learning. This creates accountability and staff members assume responsibility for completing the teaching and learning tasks effectively.

Literature shows that delegation is a helpful aid for succession planning, personal development, seeking and encouraging promotion for subordinates and it saves time (Monobe et al., 2012: 153). In the context of Nigerian schools, delegated responsibilities could either be for teaching, evaluation of teaching and learning processes, curriculum development, student welfare or admission processes (PP-TESCOM, 2003:38-47). Delegation of welfare responsibilities could include being a patron of, or staff adviser, to student clubs and associations, being in charge of boarders and lodging of students or conducting environmental sanitation exercises in schools and school public relations (Ibid:56-59).

Responsibilities can be delegated in schools through a principal, vice-principal or committee. The school committee system comprises of, for example, the library, sport, disciplinary, examination and food committees. The committee system helps to obtain and share information among the teachers and members of committees have a sense of belonging to and participating in the decision-making processes of an organisation (Alabi, Mustapha & Abdulkareem, 2012:72). Study participants note that distributing responsibilities should be according to merit, efficiency and effectiveness, as well as through qualification and experience.
In the study, most of the participants’ responses were almost exactly the same as they expressed that the delegation of responsibilities enhances the accomplishment of achieving goals. Some of the excerpts that support this from the data are presented below.

Bayo explained that, “An individual cannot do it alone. It is through delegation of responsibilities; let us share the work among ourselves. The goal is to attain and achieve the goals within a stipulated time.” Moreover, High, a vice-principal at Red High Senior Secondary School, commented that, “As a head, you are not meant to kill yourself in that office, you should distribute leadership and you have singular role to ensure you train people coming behind and when they make mistakes you correct them and ... the synergy moves on”.

High understands that an individual cannot work alone, but must share the work among the teachers to achieve the goal of timeous, good teaching. Delegating responsibility also helps to train subordinates. Two other participants indicated that delegating responsibility enhances organisational effectiveness. Clark explained that, “Well, we cannot all be in one position like that. There are so many things to be done ... it has to be distributed to make the work more effective”. Equally, Boladale stated that, “Leadership and jobs need to be distributed for effectiveness in the system! One person cannot do all the activities.”

The study participants acknowledge that a leader cannot achieve the school goals except through distributing leadership. The demands of school leadership are far too complex for any single individual to provide answers for effective school leadership (Beachum & Dentih, 2004:277; NASBE, 2008:1). It is the duty of the principal to delegate roles in schools (PP-TESCOM, 2003:23). There are advantages and disadvantages to delegating responsibilities. Delegation supports professional development and succession planning, for example. However, it must take place in such a way as to assist the subordinate and it must be accompanied by proper supervision and accountability (Camp, 2006:174-177).

Dobraska, Billinger and Karim (2014:632) argue that “most researches focus on single instances of delegation and largely neglect that in medium or large organisations, there are multiple, interdependent occurrences of delegation within a complex task structure”. The question that should be considered is: “when does delegation occur?” and, if it occurs, “how
far down the hierarchy is authority delegated?” One of the main advantages of delegation is that it fosters co-operation among staff (Camp, 2006:174).

3.4.1 Distributing leadership through merit

In distributing leadership, leadership should be given to people who are qualified, or it should be given based on merit. Seven study participants agreed that by distributing leadership to the right person, it is possible to enhance organisational efficiency and that it leads to achieving the set goals of the organisation. Boladale pointed out that, “It brings about effectiveness; you have the round pegs in a round whole, and square pegs in square holes. Eventually, we would all achieve the set goals.” Similarly, Ade explained that, “You bring out the best out of the group. Each person specialises in the areas he or she knows best, and such results are often near excellent”.

The participants highlight the positive and significant impact of distributing leadership by merit and the way in which it enhances professionalism through specialisation. However, research on meritocracy by Rahnavard, Shirazi and Gheisari (2013:1031) in Iran revealed that nepotism, non-equality of opportunities and superficiality are factors that inhibit meritocracy in an organisation. To solve these problems, they recommended a focus on mental and physical abilities, experience and expertise as the main considerations when appointing (distributing) leaders in an organisation. The policy document reviewed (NTEP) is silent on distributing leadership, but emphasises the appointment of academically and professionally qualified persons as teachers and head teachers.

3.4.2 Distributing leadership based on teacher effectiveness and efficiency

Two of the teachers in the study pointed out that distributing leadership based on teacher performance and capabilities enhance effectiveness and efficiency, which leads to easy administration. Boladale explained that:

Leadership and jobs need to be distributed for effectiveness in the system! One person cannot do all the activities. Everybody has a little to do for the whole thing; I believe it should be done according to teachers’ effectiveness and efficiency. Individuals’ performance in the past should be strongly considered here and capability and not on mere sentiments.
In literature, teacher effectiveness is described in terms of “characteristics, experiences, cognitive and affective properties, the conditions to which the teacher has to adjust, the characteristics of the school, classroom and students” (Adegbile & Adeyemi, 2008:1; Fakeye, 2012:2). The findings of Day, Stobart, Sammons, Kington, Gu, Smees and Mujtaba (2006:2) reveal that “teachers’ effectiveness is mediated by continuing professional development, which has a consistently positive influence on teachers across all professional life phases, although needs and concerns vary in relation to the aforementioned”.

Furthermore, the extent to which teachers sustain their commitment, resilience in discharging their duties, quality of leadership, at school and department level, relationships with colleagues and personal support are all key influencing factors on their motivation, self-efficacy, commitment and quality retention. Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris and Hopkins (2006:12) argue that distributing leadership based on teacher efficiency and effectiveness will enhance the professional development of teachers which will lead to pupil and school improvement. However, the document analysed emphasises efficiency and effectiveness for all teachers in the education system (NPE, 2004:39).

3.4.3 Distributing leadership based on qualification and experience

Qualification and experience refers to professional degrees and years of service in a profession. Akinsolu (2010:99) shows that teachers’ qualifications, experience and the student to teacher ratio are significantly related to a student’s academic performance. The head of any committee at a school should be an individual with experience and a relevant academic qualification. One of the participants highlighted the need for qualifications and experience in delegating responsibilities. Aladelola, the principal at White and Blue Senior Secondary School, stated that:

There should be various committees which should be headed by an experienced teacher. And then everybody must have his or her own role to play in the school. As a teacher, counsellor and as a class captain, you have your role so the work does not have to get cumbersome for the principal.

Aladelola describes the committee system as a strategy for distributing leadership in schools. She states that the committee must be headed by a knowledgeable person. A committee enables others in the school to contribute by playing their role in assisting the principal. Experience as a factor in leadership cannot be overemphasised, since an individual would
have risen through the ranks and would have acquired experience to be able to lead other people (Nakpodia & Urien, 2011:353).

In line with this finding, Alabi, Mustapha and AbdulKareem (2012:71) found that the tasks of school principals are enormous and that they need to involve teachers and other administrative staff in the management process to ensure optimal production. Efficiency, satisfaction, adaptation and development cannot be overemphasised. Peter Drucker stated at the 1993 Drucker Foundation Advisory Board that, “The traditional hierarchical model of leadership will not work effectively for major organisations in tomorrow’s changing world.” This aligns with earlier research that calls for multiple forms of leadership in schools (see Section 1.10).

3.5 AN INTERFACE OF TEACHERS’ UNDERSTANDING OF DISTRIBUTING LEADERSHIP IN SCHOOLS

In terms of the interface of teachers’ understanding of distributing leadership, 12 participants’ highlighted distributing leadership through delegating responsibilities, while one teacher believed that leadership is distributed as a result of favouritism. One of the principals believed that leadership is distributed through established teacher roles while the TGPS stated that “teacher leadership has to do with established roles and distribution of responsibilities”. This has been explained in Section 3.2 and 3.3.

3.5.1 Favouritism in distributing leadership

Favouritism is a universal problem and Nigeria is no exception. Favouritism means to prefer someone or a group of people for a position on the basis of liking or disliking the person or group (Sadoza, Saman, Marri & Samay, 2012:762). Favouritism also involves using power unfairly in an organisation (Swenson, 2006:381). Favouritism is described as a natural human phenomenon and fluctuates from culture to culture (Ozler & Buyukarslan, 2011:275). In this study, two teachers highlighted the way in which leadership is distributed through favouritism. Orji said that: “Leadership that is dashed out as a result of an individual’s political connections. Leadership that is distributed to people, as a result of who they know, you they know and is not a kind of leadership that is achieved through merit.” Moreover,
Loveth said that, “It is a leadership that all do not agree to follow. It is disputed leadership where not everyone accepts its followership”.

These participants view leadership that is distributed to an individual on the basis of an affinity to a leader or political connection or leadership that is distributed without following proper procedures as leadership that is not achieved based on merit. Subordinates often refuse to accept any directives from such a leader. Favouritism may occur as a result of nepotism, ideology or seniority. Aydogan (2008:159-161) listed some factors that lead to favouritism among teachers and these factors include “a student’s social or economic status, gender, physical appearance, familiarity between student and teacher or student’s family and teacher (blood relations or friendship), and parallelism between the ideology (political or religious) of students or their family and the teacher”.

Examples of favouritism include teachers giving some students privileges, marking student examination scripts too favourably, enforcing selective dress codes or promoting colleagues based on affinity. The Nigerian Teachers’ Handbook states that “teachers should resist taking gifts, favours or hospitality from parents and guardians, which are likely to influence them by affecting the way in which they discharge their duties” (TRCN, 2005:23). In line with this finding, Aydogan (2008:159) found that favouritism abounds in Turkish schools, where teachers favoured friends, relatives and those who occupy powerful positions, hold similar political views or those who are physically attractive.

Favouritism decreases organisational integrity. It disrupts employee motivation and affects job satisfaction (Aydogan, 2012:4578; Keles, Ozkan & Bezirici, 2011:11-12). According to Kwon (2006), favouritism is recognised as an important source of conflict and stress in the workplace. Also, it often leads to ineffective decisions and loss of motivation and productivity among employees (Kwon, 2006:1). Oren (2007:84-85) notes that where favouritism is prevalent, labour performance will be affected negatively as it affects free-flowing interaction among colleagues and the co-ordination of work and information sharing. Favouritism and lack of proper procedures in distributing leadership based on merit, affects workers’ morale and self-esteem. It could lead to jealousy, hatred and unhealthy rivalry among colleagues.
However, from the perspective of the discourse on critical pedagogy, Yoon (2005:727) urges teachers to denounce feelings that render them weak in the face of hardship or feelings that overwhelm them by the complexity of transformative teaching. Instead, Yoon argues that “teachers as transformative intellectuals are encouraged to embrace such difficulty as an excruciating, but exhilarating joy and to remain resilient by dismissing or downplaying the personal and professional struggles they might face” (2005:727).

The above discussion shows that teachers often practise teacher leadership unknowingly. Teacher leadership as a concept has varied meanings and perspectives. Moreover, one person cannot achieve the goals of a school on his or her own and for this reason the delegation of responsibilities is important and helps to achieve education goals. The era of single leaders that run a school is over and the emphasis is now on multiple forms of leadership that enhances efficiency and effectiveness. However, there is a need for distributing leadership based on merit and not on affinity as this could lead to conflict. In Section 3.5, I discuss the influence of policy on teacher leadership.

3.6 INFLUENCE OF POLICY ON TEACHER LEADERSHIP

3.6.1 Introduction

During the interviews with the study participants, I posed the second research question: “What are the policies guiding leadership in public secondary schools?” The participants’ responses were varied on the way in which policies guide leadership in schools. Two teachers highlighted the way in which the education policy helped to shape their perception of teaching and learning processes by taking into consideration individual differences and allowing a certain amount of latitude. Five teachers indicated how the policy enhanced their teaching methodology and two vice-principals showed how the policy has helped teacher preparation. One teacher explained how the policy on teacher education helps with classroom management. Several of the participants acknowledged that the policy on professional development has benefited them, while four teachers criticised the new Lagos Education Law of 2005 and the frequent policy changes.
3.6.2 Individual differences

Individual differences occur in human beings due to many factors which could be economic, social, political, cultural or religious and the teacher must take these factors into consideration while teaching students. That is why the document analysed stated in Section (c) that “every Nigerian child shall have a right to equal educational opportunities, irrespective of any real or imagined disabilities, each according to his or her ability”. Two responses from teachers indicate how the teacher education policy has helped them to recognise individual differences in teaching their students. Bayo commented that:

The knowledge we had acquired, since we are to deal with human beings with varying behaviours, we have to understand individual abilities such as fast learners, slow learners and teach them at the same time. The education programme has helped us to see how to carry students along as academics and improve on our student-teacher relationship.

Similarly, Njoku explained that:

It has helped me to understand every individual the way that person is. It makes you understand that since people evolved from varying background and beliefs, they cannot be the same. Therefore, your own approach to them either as the teacher or as the student levels too must vary.

The teachers understand the way in which their education has enabled them to understand the uniqueness of individuals. They take into consideration individual learning abilities during the teaching process. Teaching requires teachers to use different teaching methods to sustain pupils’ interest (LASG, 2010:28). Teachers should consider the individual learning capacity of pupils and tailor their teaching accordingly. The research findings of Hockings, Cooke and Bowl (2008:12) reveal that students value teaching that recognises their individual academic and social identities and their particular learning needs and interests. They, however, suggest that “teachers need to develop pedagogic practices and curricula which take into account the diverse interests and needs of students in each class” (Hockings et al., 2008:12). In line with the study, Jonassen and Grabowski (2011:19) found that different learning outcomes require different skills, abilities or learning strategies as individuals differ in their abilities to process information, construct meaning or apply meaning to new situations. Giroux (1997:170) contend that teachers must turn their classrooms into a democratic space and make students learn at the same pace and allow students to ask and answer questions. Giroux (1997:170)
claims that teachers can empower students based on what and how they teach and the means by which knowledge learnt can be made worthwhile and interesting.

3.6.3 Teacher classroom management

Classroom management “encompasses managerial skills and classroom techniques in the arrangement and presentation of lessons in the manner that all pupils will be actively and meaningfully engaged in teacher and learning activities” (Quadry, Ogunyide & Oladejo, 2003:5). Section 74 of the NPE notes that, “Teacher education shall continue to take cognisance of changes in methodology and in the curriculum and that teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession.” One of the participants, Boladale explained the importance of classroom management: “It has helped a great deal. For instance, in this aspect of management, it has helped me to manage my class and students and in the way the class is structured”.

The Lagos State Government (2010:27-28) has noted that classroom management is beneficial to teachers and helps them to effectively organise the students and classroom. The government adds that classroom management is the sole responsibility of the classroom teacher who functions simultaneously as the classroom manager, planner, co-ordinator, mobiliser, organiser, director and controller of all activities of the classroom. The teacher should use his or her knowledge of classroom management as a foundation for democratic values and social justice in the classroom. In addition, Mucherah and Frazier (2013:1) argue that the “classroom environment shapes teachers’ relationships with their students, and students’ relationships with each other and with classroom concepts”.

Literature has shown that “everyday relationships, interaction and understanding between teachers and students provide opportunities for teachers’ good leadership tendencies towards implementing changes in a continuous and comprehensive manner in their classroom” (Darling-Hammond, 1997:1; Boyd & McGee, 1995:1). In line with this finding, Unal and Unal’s (2012:42) study has shown that a teacher’s ability to manage the classroom and organise instruction is one of the keys to success in teaching. These authors also note that “in the past 50 years, meta-analysis research on classroom management has identified classroom management as the most important factor, even above student aptitude, affecting student
learning” (Unal & Unal, 2012:42). Similarly, the research findings of Bushaw and Gallup (2008:11) reveal that classroom management “is identified as one of the top three problems facing public schools in the United States”.

In similar research, Bushaw and Gallup (2008:12) and Rose and Gallup (2005:44) posit that in the last six years, classroom management has been ranked second only to funding as the biggest problem in schools in the United States. Research has shown that teachers who know much about the pupils they teach and their personalities tend to fare better than the teacher who knows little or nothing about his or her pupils in respect to classroom management and learning activities (LASG, 2010:28). Classroom management is the most important aspect in achieving teaching and learning outcomes. Effective classroom management will help a teacher to achieve education objectives and ensure that meaningful teaching and learning activities take place. Pupils should be taught as unique individuals and teachers and pupils are partners in the teaching and learning process.

In applying critical pedagogy, the classroom management should not be dominated and tamed by the teachers, but should rather be democratic, based on the sharing and building of knowledge in a meaningful manner. This would generate discussions that will enable students to express themselves and make them develop “their own political opposition with emancipatory intent” (McLaren, 2005:17-19). In addition, the teacher must do less “talking to” and engage in guiding, facilitating and mentoring learners in independent learning.

3.6.4 Teaching methods

Teaching methods are the way in which teachers’ present content and skills that will enhance the opportunities for students to learn (Sajjad, n.d:1). Teaching methods help a teacher to impart knowledge to students. It encompasses planned activities for successfully impacting the school curriculum (Dashen, Buhari, Zuhumber & Maikano, 2005:106). Five participants explained the importance of teaching methods in the classroom. Butter said that, “Teacher education affords us that good opportunity to read, to understand the nature of the students, to counsel them and, at the same time, to put them in the right place they are supposed to be”.

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Policy provides opportunities for teachers to understand the nature of students and to provide guidance in reading and counselling to enable them to achieve their goals. Teaching methods have been described as the principles and methods used for instruction in the class. Experts in the field of education have identified various types of teaching methods and its uses in schools. According to these experts, its uses are dependent on factors such as “the nature of the subject to be taught, the number of pupils in the class, the interest and intellectual ability of the pupils, their age, availability of facilities or instructional materials, teacher’s personality and what is to be achieved at the end of the lesson” (Dashen et al., 2005:110; Sajjad, n.d.1). However, Dashen et al., (2005:110) state that “the use of teaching method is better enhanced with the personal qualities of the teacher and the relationship with the pupils”.

In their studies, Hackathorn, Solomon, Blankmeyer, Tennial and Garcynsk (2011:50) found that each teaching technique has its own unique benefits and is effective for various levels of learning. Moreover, they found that active techniques aid in increasing learning. Teaching methods assist teachers in imparting knowledge through the use of different methods that are suitable for what is to be achieved in the lesson. Therefore, they say that teaching methods are “better enhanced through the personal qualities of the teacher and the relationships with the pupils” (Hackathorn et al., 2011:50).

However, Perumal (2014) contends that critical pedagogists advocate a constructivist style of education which enables students to engage in dialogue with teachers and students alike, to test hypothesis and to challenge theories and ideas that are dominant in society. Finley (2008:143) contends that dialogue helps to bridge cultural differences by sharing narratives of lived experience in dialogue with others (Ibid:143). This would enable both the students and teachers to be critical, educative and reflective. Therefore, they would connect with knowledge in various subject areas. This made Giroux (1998:108) reason that the curriculum should be built on knowledge that starts with the problems and needs of the students in order to provide a basis of critique of dominant forms of knowledge.
3.6.5 Teacher preparation

Teacher preparation refers to the professional training of teachers for certification. Osuji (2009:298) reiterates that “teacher preparation (education) is the production of educators who are academically and professionally well-groomed to be able to translate theory of teaching into practice and vice-versa”. Two vice-principals agreed that teacher education is significant in helping teachers to be prepared for their classroom experiences. Saida commented that:

It has influenced leadership in schools in so many ways. Even now to be a qualified teacher, you must have undergone certain training which helps you to attain that level; you should be able to impart knowledge as expected. To that extent, I know it has very positive influences on teacher education.

While Clark agreed with Saida’s view that teacher preparation programmes help teachers to be equipped for the challenges of teaching, he also stated that, “In the school, passing through education prepares one for the task ahead.” Clark and Saida understand the significance of teacher education in preparing teachers to impart knowledge to students. Osuji (2009:296) explains that in Nigeria, teacher education refers to the “professional education of teachers towards the attainment of attitudes, skills and knowledge desirable to make them efficient and effective in their work in accordance with societal needs and aspirations”.

The goal of teacher education as spelt out in the NPE 2004 edition in Section 72 is the “encouragement of the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers and providing them with the intellectual and professional background that will be adequate for their assignment and also make them adaptable to changing situations”, among others. It is also noted in Section 8(74) of the policy that “teacher education shall continue to take cognisance of changes in the methods and curriculum and teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession”. According to this policy, the professional training of teachers is two-fold: pre-service and in-service training. The pre-service training prepares would-be teachers for varied concepts of teaching and learning and the content of different subject areas depending on the area of each teacher, while the in-service entails the professional training they encounter on the job.

The teacher training institutions have been critiqued by experts in the education industry for “their inability to produce teachers who are properly grounded in pedagogy and content as
well as having the ability to collaborate professionally in a working environment” (Obanya, 2004:6; Ololube, 2006:5). In addition, the transition from “academic theories in universities to classroom practice has often been very sharp suggesting that student teachers are not often properly grounded into the practice of current pedagogy” (Adeosun, 2009:105). Similarly, there is “the contention that teacher education cannot cope with the demand and the attrition of those leaving the profession due to low salary and a disregard for the profession” (Amedeker, 2005:101). Experts have also critiqued the lowering of entry qualifications for the in-service upgrading of qualifications. Moreover, the in-service programmes are either official or recognised distance education so that teachers can obtain teacher certification while working in school. Above all, “the teaching practice assessment of would-be teachers is weak or is not done at all in schools” (Mattson, 2006:21).

A study by Du (2007:205) suggests that teacher education should offer training in a task achievement and social and emotional skills for pre-service and in-service teachers. Furthermore, Du (2007:205) states that there should be training on leadership skills for pre-service and in-service teachers with emphasis on team and consensus building, conflict resolution and collaborative skills. Similarly, Groux (1998:108) contends that the curriculum should expose and deconstruct the processes through which dominant ideological representations are produced, legitimated and circulated in society. It could be inferred based on the above that an effective teacher education programme is a sine qua non for improving the teaching profession in Nigeria.

3.6.6 Professional development

Professional development is the acquisition of skills and knowledge for personal and career advancement in an organisation to achieve productivity. The essence of professional development, as noted in the NTEP, is to “motivate teachers and provide opportunities for their continuing professional development, retention, advancement and improvement in their chosen career” (NTEP, 2009:6). In the Nigerian education system, the focus of the aims and objectives of the NPE on teacher education is to provide programmes that are career-oriented and practical. Among the key principles in upgrading or improving the quality of teachers and teaching is through pre- and in-service teacher training (NTEP, 2009:iii). The NTEP is aligned with the NPE in acknowledging that “the quality of education is dependent on
teachers’ quality and competence which is partly measured by being abreast of new ideas and innovations in pedagogy”.

One key area of concern in professional development, as contained in Section 74 of the NPE, is for teachers to update their knowledge and skills of their subject areas through in-service training and to be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession. Nine of the study participants highlighted the various professional development programmes organised by the education district, subject associations or by the Eko Project for skills development in their subject areas. The participants point out the benefits of the training. Saida said that:

Teachers are now sent on training. I am sure you are aware of the Eko Project where teachers are sent for so many courses and seminars and they are paid handsomely for that. So teachers and educational managers are really gaining a lot from it. There are facilities now that make teaching and learning very, very easy.

Moreover, Loveth commented that, “In Lagos State, the government is doing well by organising seminars. I just spoke about the district organising, from time to time, workshops, seminars, training and retraining of teachers on subject areas. It is encouraging.” Massawara agrees with Saida and Loveth on the professional training programmes organised by the government for teachers. He points out that “they have a lot of programmes; they spend a lot of money on teachers through seminars and workshops and everybody attends”.

Regular training and retraining to which teachers are exposed in their subject areas and the facilities provided by the government make teaching and learning enjoyable and beneficial. Teachers in Nigeria are remunerated for attending professional development programmes to encourage participation and to make it easier for them to attend. In line with this finding, Day, Stobart, Sammons, Kington, Gu, Smees and Mujtaba (2006:84-85) found that professional development has a positive influence on teachers in all phases of their professional life. Day et al., (2006:140-141) warn that teachers are encumbered by heavy workloads, time and financial constraints that inhibit their pursuit of professional development. However, Perumal (2014:15) argues that attention should always be paid, not only to the mind, but to the body, soul and spirit of teachers. Their holistic well-being should constitute an integral part of continuous teacher professional development and care. This will enable them to perform their pedagogic functions as transformative intellectuals to effect a change.
3.6.7 Teacher identity

According to the NPE (2004:33), a teacher is an individual that has been professionally trained in a teacher education institution. This excludes any qualification not obtained in such an institution. The NPE provides that “no person shall teach in any school unless his name has been placed on the register of teachers or after his or her name has been removed from such register” (NPE, 2004:33). One respondent described the negative attitude of the ministry of education and district officials towards teachers. Bayo explained that:

Actually, the education ministry and the district look down on teachers as “who are they?” I do not know which adjective or qualification I can use again. And that has not made one to exercise his duty to the bottom of his mind based on the way teachers are being handled. When they come here for inspection, they harass and talk to teachers in the presence of students.

Bayo is concerned about the level of disregard from education officials for teachers. He believes that teachers are being derided in schools, often, even, in the presence of their students. This disregard hampers teachers in the performance of their duties. Teacher identity is determined by policy, society and teachers’ own perceptions. According to Perumal (2015:26), identity could also be determined by the spatial location of an individual due to social constructions shaped by ideologies, hierarchies and experiences. However, Pane (2010:93) asserts that teacher identity is a negotiated process in the classroom. Therefore, Bryk and Schneider (2002:20) contend that the “influence of others on a teacher’s sense of identity is crucial as interpersonal worlds are organised around distinct sets of role relationships: teachers with students, teachers with others, teachers with parents and with the line managers”. Therefore, the aim of education for critical pedagogies is the formation of a democratic society in which each voice is equally heard and valued. It equally aims to emancipate the oppressed people and return to them their lost voices and identities. This will be significant in enhancing teachers’ image and professionalism (Freire, 2000). The education policy document emphasises that teachers’ commitment to the teaching profession should be encouraged, which can only be realised in an atmosphere of co-operation, trust and comradeship. A detailed discussion about teacher identity can be found in Section 1.3 of this study.
3.6.8 Reduced commitment of teachers

Reduced commitment is manifested when an employee is less productive than the capacity expected. Adams’s (1965) Equity theory is relevant when discussing reduced commitment. The theory focuses on people’s feelings and their perception of how fairly they believe they are being treated in comparison with the treatment received by others (Weihrich, Cannice & Koontz, 2008:331). A person who perceives unfair treatment or bias may engage in destructive acts such as reducing his or her input into an organisation, putting in less of an effort, performing at less than optimal level, being absent and resigning (Bateman & Snell, 2009:492). Two participants, one a teacher and the other a vice-principal, highlighted the way in which certain aspects of promotion in the new education law affects their commitment to teaching. Orji, a teacher, described the situation as follows:

Me, I am going next year. Some of us have resigned to fate. There is a new law that says you cannot be a vice-principal (VP) now unless you are in Level 16 and whereas, before now, Level 9 or 10, can become VP, even Level 10 can become a principal but not anymore. Now you cannot be a VP if you are not in Level 16 in the district. You must sit and pass the exam. So many people have given up like me. I’m going next year (retirement in 2013) since there is nothing like that again. Some people that are in Level 15 now do not have hope of becoming principals if they have five years to retire because they have to become the VP first for about four years before they can become the principal.

High, a vice-principal, agreed with Orji on the new promotion criteria and said:

But to a very large extent, there has been a turnaround in leadership positions from what we had in the past. Like now, we have to sit for an exam; I just went to check my own result on Friday. Thank God it’s ... a pass. You know I was doing the exam for the second time to be made a principal now; there are criteria you have to satisfy before you are given a leadership position. Take for instance, a lot of us who want to be principals, but are already VPs, must have been VPs for three years before we can go and write that exam and we must pass the exam at least on the average.

These remarks explain the level a teacher must have attained in the teaching profession, Level 16, and the three to four years of waiting, before being allowed to take the examination to become a principal. The two-factor theory propounded by Frederick Herzberg (1966) attempts to distinguish between two broad categories of factors that affect a person’s work. He identified company policies and administration, supervision, salary, working conditions, interpersonal relations, status, job security and personal life as factors that can cause dissatisfaction in the workplace. In contrast, the identified factors that make people feel good
about their job include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility and advancement or growth (Bateman & Snell, 2009:487). The implication of this, according to D’souza (2001:255), is that if people’s needs are not met in relation to their job, it could lead to negative behaviour such as lateness, absenteeism and reduced productivity through an increased waste of materials, money and time.

Inayatullah and Jahangir (2012:96) point out that there is a significant and positive relationship between a teacher’s motivation and his or her job performance. In a related study in Nigeria, Adeyemo, Oladipupo and Omisore (2013:38) found that the majority of teachers are not satisfied with their condition of service, fringe benefit payments and promotion and that these impact on student performance. In their research, Kraft, Charner-Laird, Johnson, Ng and Reinhorn (2012:1-2) found that when schools failed to provide instructional support, an orderly environment and extra assistance for students, coupled with poor working conditions, teachers became frustrated and considered leaving the profession. Perumal (2014:8) notes that from the critical pedagogy discourse point of view, the participants discourse is laden with language destined to elicit and signify emotions. Such discourses include, “I am going next year”, “some of us have resigned to fate” or “thank God, it is a pass”. These emotions are about their inability to get to the zenith of their careers and their beliefs in a higher power for assistance.

It was more challenging for the participants to develop critical consciousness about policies and broad social issues that hinder them from leadership positions by talking about it. They do not have the wherewithal to change the system and can only hope that someday the system will change. If demotivated behaviour is not detected in time, it could lead to students not getting the best from their teachers. Bolman and Deal (2008) contend “that framing/re-framing of organisation is necessary because organisations generally hope for the best for their workforce, but in turn use counterproductive practices that demoralises their employees”. Therefore, school leaders should try to find solutions to the demotivation of teachers. Brief and Weiss (2002:283-284) agree that workplace production increases when individuals are satisfied and committed to their job. As a result, their co-workers’ attitudes can also improve.
3.6.9 Policy changes

Policy attempts to introduce changes necessitated by innovations and best practices around the world (NPE, 2004:2). Policy expresses goals, objectives and the means of achieving them and thus provides a road map for actions tailored towards meeting specific goals (Ekundayo, 2010:189). Three participants highlighted some of the problems caused by policy changes in the teaching and learning process. Adebayo stated that, “The major problem affecting the NPE is implementation and lack of continuity in government policies”. Bayo shared the views of Adebayo on changes in policy. Bayo commented that, “We have polices formulated and before it is carried out it has been changed.” The participants decry the inconsistency and non-implementation of policies as well as the lack of continuity in government policies. Inconsistencies in education policies are one of the reasons for the poor service delivery in the education system in Nigeria (Okoroma, 2006:244).

Imam (2012:201) suggests that the frequent policy changes in Nigeria could be attributed to the British education policy introduced in Nigeria during the colonial era. The colonial education policy did not meet the aspirations of the people and led to a clamour for change in the post-independence era, which resulted in the first indigenous NPE in Nigeria in 1997. There have since been three revisions of the NPE in 1981, 1988 and 2004. However, Ayeni and Dada (2011:204) affirm that these attempts and efforts have not yielded the expected results.

Similarly to the findings of the study, Imam (2012:200) indicates that no matter how ambitious the current edition of the NPE, it is merely a piece of paper and its implementation is fraught with problems, especially seeing that the political, economic and socio-cultural issues in the country are not sensitive to the aspiration and needs of the people. This supports Nwangwa and Omotere (2013:169) who assert that the current school managers find it difficult to meet the managerial expectations implicit in the policy changes. They suggest that school managers should be retrained on curriculum implementation and in other areas that affect their performance as school managers.

3.6.10 Micropolitics

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Micropolitics refer to the use of formal and informal power by individuals and groups to achieve their goals in organisations (Blase, 1991:11). Achinstein (2002:423) claims that micropolitics offers a new lens through which to understand the collaboration in school reform in a way that power, influence, conflict and negotiating processes are discovered. Kelchtermans and Ballet (2002:106-108) acknowledge a host of micropolitical strategies and tactics that school leaders can skilfully and effectively use to influence the education environment. Kondalkar (2007:210) is of the view that politics is a process through which power is acquired and used to influence the behaviour of others. It is endemic to any organisation. As a result of this, people form groups, camps or cliques when they play politics. Thus, where people play politics for power, ethics and moral values, organisational goals are of little concern.

In the larger Nigerian society, appointments into public office are still characterised by many factors such as religion, socio-cultural issues, politics and ethnicity. This is in spite of the establishment of the Federal Character Commission with Act No. 34 of 1996 and entrenched in Section 153(c) of the Nigerian Constitution of 1999. This federal agency was established to ensure fairness and equity in the distribution of public posts and socio-economic infrastructure among the federating units in Nigeria. Sixteen participants described the different micropolitical effects on teachers. Micropolitics is described as a product of ethnicity, with the formation of cliques as part of human existence, and as a managerial strategy in schools. The effect of micropolitics on teaching and learning was highlighted by Njoku:

> It influences us negatively. We have a situation where a junior officer is directly placed over a senior officer. The possibility of the latter carrying out instructions from the former will be very difficult. Look at this scenario, you are a Level 16 officer and a Level 15 is made a principal above you and she is giving directives, can you take it?. There must be an adjustment in the organogram where people are put in positions fit for them.

High supported Njoku’s view and said that:

> I must say this, that micropolitics have a role to play even in the appointment of teachers, in the appointment of vice-principals, principals, even in the appointment of prefects, especially the head boy and the head girl. In the schools around this area, you know, it has really gone a long way.
The participants outline the prevalence of micropolitics in the appointment of teachers, vice-principals and even prefects. It is endemic in Nigeria and affects harmonious relationships among colleagues. When micropolitics affect teachers’ professional development, they should act to defend themselves (Achinstein, 2002:450; Kelchtermans, 2007:476). This study’s participants only highlighted the causes of micropolitics, but did not provide any mitigating strategies. Achinstein (2002:425-427) states that a deeper understanding of three micropolitical processes is needed to understand complex power relations. These micropolitical processes are: conflict, border politics and ideology.

Achinstein defines conflict as “a situation or an ongoing process” in which people’s opinions and behaviours deviate or grow incompatible (2002:426). Border politics refers to the act of setting a border of “membership and beliefs of a given community” and ideology refers to “the management of meaning, how individuals and communities make sense of their work and ultimately take actions” (Achinstein, 2002:426). However, Watkins (2005:15) argues that it does not justify why inequality of power permeates organisations and how this inequality relates to and reflects the inequalities of the wider society. There is a political element in the structuring of an organisation which reflects what is happening in the wider society.

3.6.11 Ethnicity
Ethnicity is a social group of people that identify with each other based on common ancestral, cultural, social or economic and perceived themselves as unique through culture, language and belief (Adetiba & Rahim, 2012:3). Ethnic groups tend to seek out one another to the detriment of those not belonging to their group (Adetiba & Rahim, 2012:3). Two teachers in the study group underlined the level of ethnicity in schools. Ade commented that, “We know somebody is better suited for this particular role and not being given, because he is from a particular state.” Njoku supported Ade’s view on the role of ethnic consideration in appointments in schools. Njoku explained that, “The factors are tribalism and the issue of sacred cows. Two people committing the same offence and only one party is favoured while the other is punished.”

These teachers believe that qualified people are not always given certain roles because of their ethnicity. They also highlight the issue of double standards and preferential treatment.
Provisions are made in the Teachers’ Code of Conduct against discrimination based on religion, culture, race, gender or political inclinations and the code enjoins teachers to be tolerant of the diverse cultures in the country (TRCN, 2013:6). Section 42 of Nigeria’s 1999 Constitution guarantees the right to freedom from discrimination based on place of origin, ethnicity, sex, political or religious opinion. Ethnic bias runs contrary to the overall philosophy of education in Nigeria, which emphasises principles of freedom, equality and justice. Perumal (2014:2-3) explains that these acts show how professionalism and pedagogic experiences are trivialised due to images that are associated with ethnicity and favouritism. The social transformation needed by teachers to promote the ideals of democracy is rendered complex in contradictory discourses.

3.6.11.1 Micropolitics as part of human nature

Andrukaitis (2013:1) asserts that micropolitics exist in organisations of all sizes and that people are, by nature, political animals that constantly engage in power-seeking behaviour. When not fully understood, the politics at play in professional relationships can prevent a person from achieving success. Four teachers responded that micropolitics exist in human relationships either at home or in the workplace. Clark stated that:

Somebody said we are all political animals. So there are micropolitics in school management, well though there is politics even in the home – husband, wife and children. So anywhere you have human beings and you have a leader where somebody is leading, and you have those that are following, there is politics.

Saida agreed with Clark about how micropolitics is part of human nature. Saida said: “Uhmm, you know, wherever you have two or three people gathered, there must be ... even in families there is politics, there is politics in families”. The participants support the view that politics is an intrinsic part of human nature and is played out in the home, school and anywhere where there are leadership issues. It is only when people understand the true nature of interpersonal relationships, or micropolitics, that they can gain more power and success.

3.6.11.2 The formation of cliques

A “clique” refers to a small exclusive group of friends or associates held together by common interests, views or purposes. Richardson and Tepperman (n.d:12) define cliques as “groups characterised by friendship, similarity, interaction, exclusion and the flow of valuable
resources: information, support, and opinions, among others”. One respondent referred to the formation of cliques in schools as a form of micropolitics. Okoli said that, “There are, there are, like in some schools, they will form cliques based on their political and socio-religious affinity to undermine the school”.

Characteristics of cliques are the inclusion of members that gain strength and approval from being in a group of like-minded individuals that feel certain contempt for outsiders. Members of a clique spend more time with one another than with non-clique members. They share knowledge with one another and think and behave similarly (Richardson & Tepperman, n.d:12). Cliques often occur in the school system and can lead to mistrust that can affect co-worker relationships. Cliques can also discourage collaboration to the detriment of school development. Meyer, Macmillan and Northfield (2011:2) found that issues of power and control and the negotiation of influence play an important role in the development of relationships within a school community when a new principal assumes his or her position. These authors, however, are of the view that it is then up to the principal to either dance to the tune of the cliques or to negotiate his or her way out of the situation. This will be used to determine if a principal is successful or not.

3.6.11.3 Micropolitics as management strategy

School leaders use various forms of leadership to run the day-to-day activities of a school. One participant highlighted the use of micropolitics as a management strategy. Adebayo commented that, “There is no way you will not practise politics in school leadership if you want to succeed. Remember that you as a leader, are governing varying people with different opinions and you must not rob Peter to pay Paul.”

Section 27 of the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct directs school leaders to exhibit qualities of justice, honesty, consistency and moral uprightness in the discharge of their duties. In a study, Johnson (2004:274) found that school leaders in southern Australia admitted using micropolitical strategies and tactics to select key staff to join teams and to set the tone for their operations. The implication of this is that school leaders must be cautious in using micropolitics so as not to deter the organisation from achieving its stated objectives.
3.6.11.4 Effects of micropolitics on stakeholders

Dorrenbacher and Geppert (n.d:10) describe the effects of micropolitics and the way in which people use power or position negatively in an organisation. To these authors, there is daily occurrence of micropolitical conflicts in organisations. They explain that these conflicts are the fundamental mechanism of social interactions which can either hold an organisation together or lead to its disintegration. Sixteen participants explained the negative effects of micropolitics on stakeholders in the education system. Bayo said that:

> It brings uncertainty, especially for the principal who often finds himself or herself in a dilemma when it comes to recommending certain people for assignments. There was a time the principal was to recommend somebody, although he knew who to recommend, yet he was afraid not to step on toes and this also led to bickering among the teachers.

Furthermore, Boladale also pointed out the negative effects of micropolitics in schools when he stated that:

> It affects it in a great deal. We believe that in a system where certain people appear to be more favoured than others. It creates bitterness and lack of trust by some people in the system. Anywhere you find teacher leadership so strong; there is justice and equity to balance it.

The excerpts highlight the level of micropolitics being employed by the principal who is not appointing qualified people so that he will not offend some particular people in the organisation. It shows the prevalence of double standards among colleagues. Moreover, the practice of micropolitics in an organisation creates internal strife, anger, resentment and mistrust among colleagues. However, the practice of teacher leadership can be effective in an atmosphere of equity and justice.

Participants felt disturbed and disappointed that nothing is being done to put an end to the use of micropolitics in schools. This study found that micropolitics play a significant role in the way leadership is distributed in schools and in the way and manner school affairs are conducted. Some principals use micropolitics as part of their leadership strategies to gain influence and build trust in their decisions among teachers. Moreover, some of the interactions between teachers and principals have a cultural, social and religious undertone, which has, in one way or another, affected teaching and learning processes. Micropolitics brings about sole and undemocratic attributes and dissent in appointments, hence teacher
lobby and gossip exhibits tribalism and inhibits teacher leadership. It also leads to betrayal and lack of trust among teachers and is a violation of teaching ethics and the constitution.

Based on the above, policies influence, either negatively or positively, the way in which teachers conduct themselves in the teaching and learning processes. Participants reflected on these policies, but felt disempowered to effect changes as they are not part of the policy-making process. They are aware of the consequences of policies on teaching and learning. Micropolitics affect students’ academic future and can create conflict among colleagues when some individuals within the same organisation are given privileges over others.

Teachers’ inputs in policies via a consultative process in line with the democratic process will be effective in public schools. Micropolitics play a negative role in the way leadership is distributed in schools and in the daily conduct of school affairs. The data reveals that some principals use micropolitics as part of their leadership strategies, which is detrimental to the organisation. Furthermore, some interactions between teachers and principals have cultural, social and religious undertones, which have, in one way or the other, affected teaching and learning processes. It is thus enshrined in the Teachers’ Handbook as part of the teacher’s professional ethics that “teachers should not engage in politics or in acts that will undermine the teaching profession” (PP-TESCOM, 2003:36-37). The study reveals that favouritism is part of management strategy and that the participants noted that it must be used equitably. The Teachers’ Code of Conduct, Section 54, reminds all teachers to comply with all the laws of the land as well as the moral codes of the society that promotes good governance, transparency and accountability in office (TRCN, 2005:25). In the following section, I discuss the perception of school leaders and their understanding of current school practices.

3.7 CURRENT UNDERSTANDING OF SCHOOL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS

3.7.1 Introduction

Current school practice could be described as an assessment of ways or traditions of happenings in schools. During the interviews, I asked participants the third research question: “What are the current understandings of school leadership practices in public secondary
schools?” Sixteen participants agreed by stating that teaching and learning is paramount in school practices, that government’s role is as a funder of education and as the primary recruiter of teachers, which is fundamental to education in Nigeria. Three responses highlight the issue of social identity in relation to current school practices. Participants mentioned school community relationships and societal mindsets on gender constructs. Six teachers spoke about the appointment of principals into leadership positions. I discuss the various factors that hinder the practice of teacher leadership in public secondary schools in the following subheadings which highlight the themes and subthemes that emerge from the current understanding of leadership practices in schools.

3.7.2 Teaching and learning

Teaching and learning are the ways in which a teacher imparts knowledge that leads to a change in understanding and improved academic performance. A teacher’s responsibility is to teach students effectively and efficiently and to monitor and supervise students. Section 31 of the Teachers’ Code of Conduct states that: “teachers are responsible for diagnosing, advising, prescribing, implementing and evaluating educational programmes and instructions”. Njoku commented that, “As a teacher, the first that comes to your mind is teaching the students effectively”. High corroborated Njoku’s view. He said: “In this school we ensure that teaching and learning, you know, takes place daily”. In addition, Massarawa stated that, “As a leader, you ensure that students attend the morning assembly and after that they move into their classes so that teachers can teach them”.

Teaching and learning are activities that change behaviour, enhance knowledge and enable the performance of skills, understanding, insights and appreciation (Dashen et al., 2005:90). The main aim of schooling is to promote the learning and achievement of pupils through teaching (James & Pollard, 2006:4). The primary responsibility of the classroom teacher is to guide the learning activities of pupils. In the process of the teacher and learner interaction, the teacher influences the learner, sometimes intentionally with planned behaviour and sometimes unconsciously (LASG, 2010.27-28). In achieving educational quality, Nigeria needs to put in place an intervention programme, such as a bursary programme or good salary structure, which will promote teaching that will attract and retain the best teachers in the education.
system. However, the teachers in the study still perceive teaching from the technician’s perspective and this limits them in their capacity to be critical in teaching and learning.

This perception made Neumann et al., (2012b:4) claim that without opportunities for teachers to acknowledge and learn education leadership for social justices, they are less likely to lead school improvement initiatives that help students to learn. Zepeda, Mayers and Benson (2003) imply that without the knowledge of leadership practices, teachers are more likely to rely on traditional structures of management and administration which have led them to not meet the needs of schools in the new millennium. This shows that teachers need leadership knowledge that will enhance their leadership qualities towards emancipation from hegemony, words and actions that are prevalent in leadership practices in schools.

3.7.3 Funding of schools

The FGN has exclusive legislative powers as well as financial responsibilities for federally-owned secondary and tertiary institutions. In addition, each state Ministry of Education has the responsibility of formulating education policy, enacting education laws and providing funding for schools under its jurisdiction. Massarawa stated that, “The government pours money and provides everything”. Similarly, Njoku said that, “The school does not generate any funds. Government takes care of the school by providing running costs and has provided all these laboratory items you are seeing.”

In Nigeria, education is on the federal, state and local government annual budgets. Section 18 subsection 1–3 of the Nigerian 1999 Constitution states that the constitutional responsibility of government is to provide free education from primary to tertiary level. Similarly, Section 13, subsection 120 of the NPE 2004 edition states that “education is an expensive social service and requires adequate financial provision from all tiers of government for successful implementation of the educational programmes”. Section 30, subsection 121 of the NPE provides that one of the goals of government is to make education free at all levels. Government welcomes and encourages the participation of local communities, individuals and other organisations.
Other sources of school funding include the private sector, PTA, alumni associations, local communities, voluntary agencies, contributions and donations from philanthropic individuals, multi-national companies, non-governmental organisations and donor agencies (Ndu, 2001:149-155). Government funding is allocated to education through the yearly budget by the federal and state governments and the Education Tax Fund. Section 30, subsection 122 of the NPE informs about the sectoral bodies established by government such as the Petroleum Trust Fund, Industrial Training Fund, and National Science and Technology Fund that undertake specific projects in tertiary institutions.

Baker (2012:v) found that an equitable distribution of school funding can improve students’ results. Effective funding of schools leads to satisfaction in both teachers and pupils because it helps to improve academic achievement. This study corroborates with the research of Kintisch, Risch and Zelno (2007:1-2) who studied the importance of school funding for students, schools and the community. According to Kintisch et al., (2007:1-2), the amount of funding for a school has a direct impact on the quality of public education as well as student academic success and education outcomes. Moreover, they say that “academic achievement improves when students have access to challenging courses, skilled teachers, safe facilities, small class sizes, up-to-date technology, libraries and science laboratories” (Kintisch et al., 2007:1-2).

However, Ekundayo (2010:189) point out that inadequate funding is considered to be one of the obstacles to effective management of secondary education in the Nigeria. In spite of the huge annual budgetary allocation to education, there are still arguments that budgetary allocation is not in line with UNESCO’s guideline that states that 26% of a country’s Gross Domestic Product should be made available to education.

3.7.4 School community relations

The school community relationship is a two-way interaction between the school and its host or local community. A local community is referred to as the catchment area (in other words, where a school derives most of its student population). One respondent stresses the cooperation between the school and the host community. Adebayo said that, “In Eko Project we
have a Project Implementation Committee; we have a representative of the community in that committee.”

Section 21 of the LSPPTSL of 2005 mandates schools to maintain a cordial and healthy relationship with the community in which they exist for the overall best interest of the school. It also enjoins administrators to understand their local community, its characteristics and culture. Cooper, Kotval-K, Kotval and Mullin (2014:88) state that school community relationships have been recognised as valuable contributions to both the academic and the host communities.

Thus, there are ways in which a school establishes a relationship with its host community, through programmes and activities such as PTA meetings, school events, home visits, school alumni associations, the media and school publications. Research has shown that effective school community relations engender peaceful coexistence and leads to academic productivity (Nieto, 2004). The research by Agbo (2007:13) indicates that for a collaborative school and community relationship to thrive, the school must empower the community through genuine discussions that foster collaboration and respect for multiple perspectives. This supports Sang and Sang’s (2011:162) assertion that maintaining positive relations with the community encourages a good reputation of schools in society and is influential in enhancing positive participation by parents and other community members in school affairs.

3.7.5 Teacher identity

The issue of teacher identity was discussed in Section 1.3 of the study, but was also raised by participants as part of current school practices. It refers to the way in which teachers are perceived by society and how teachers see themselves. Responses from three participants highlighted the level of social perception of teachers. Ayeola, the TGPS, stated that, “Our culture also makes teachers’ confidence level low”. Winners, a teacher, agreed with Ayeola’s view of society’s perception of teachers’ identity. Winners commented that:

There are certain challenges that are facing us as a leader in Nigerian schools such as the teacher leader is seen as somebody that is not capable of leading. The society as a whole thought that teachers are not doing anything in the school despite the fact that you come to the school every day, in the class, you teach in the morning, after school, you go home even with stress. They think that we are not doing anything.
The experiences shared by participants in this study, according to Perumal (2014:16), require a self-styling that translates into emotion management. These experiences mask their physiological and emotional states to fulfil the role of critical transformative intellectuals who instil and exhibit dedication, faith and joy despite their personal circumstances.

During the colonial era and after independence, Nigerian teachers were regarded as professionals, role models and knowledgeable people (Oyeleke, 2012:1). According to Abraham, Ememe and Egu (2012:15), society depends on teachers to discipline the youth and foster their moral and academic development. To Abraham et al., (2012:15), teachers were encouraged to serve on important committees because they were sources of wisdom and knowledge. However, at some stage, the respect and status accorded to teachers started dwindling when the military and politicians started abusing and degrading teachers (Abraham et al., 2012:15). Moreover, as respect for their profession declined, so did teachers’ salaries (Abraham et al., 2012:15).

The NPE of 2004 emphasises that teachers are central to national development. The policy, Section 70(a), observes that “no nation can rise above the quality of its teachers”. The researches of Ali (2000), Ehusani (2002), Ejiogu (1997) and Nwosu and Chukuma (2000) outline the deplorable status of teachers in Nigeria. Ehusani (2002:3-4) states that their salaries are not paid when due and promotion to the next cadre is irregular. Adelabu (2005:1-2) notes that remuneration, motivation and teacher support are poor. Similarly, Agezo (2010:1) contends that teachers are often not given the equipment they need to discharge their duties.

3.7.6 Teacher mindsets on gender construct

Gender constructs can be defined as the roles of men and women as viewed by society, which includes economic, social and cultural attributes and opportunities associated with being a man or woman and the relationships between men and women in a given society, at a specific time and place (Yusuff, 2014:1). Gender constructs influence expectations of what is allowed and valued in a man or a woman (Ali, Krantz, Gul, Asad, Johansson & Mørgren
One participant highlighted the prevalence of stereotyping of gender roles. Ayeola explained that:

It has not yet been ingrained into us that what a man can do, a woman can also do and vice versa. For instance, if a female teacher is posted to head a school as a principal, ahead of her resumption, the male teachers in the school she’s posted to will believe the teacher is wicked simply because she is female. If the principal is a male who tries often to correct a particular female teacher, she might say the male principal is tactically trying to woo her but her refusal is resulting in such victimisations.

The respondent highlighted the level of mistrust in leadership in schools if a female teacher is posted to a school as the head. Some of the male teachers will assume that she is wicked. Similarly, if a male head tries to correct a female teacher, his correction might be misconstrued. This is in line with the study of Zikhali and Perumal (2014:221) which illustrated a scenario in Zimbabwean schools, when male school heads do not want to be led by female school heads. They found “that male and female colleagues tested the ability and leadership of their female school heads by ignoring their orders, being rude to them and not wanting to work. This was done in an attempt to see how the female school heads would react” (Zikhali & Perumal, 2014:221). According to Wood (2009:232-240), gender stereotypes occur in the workplace and affect the way men and women are classified.

According to Ofoha (n.d:1), gender stereotypes are roles, or a pattern of behaviour, placed on a particular sex by society, which are mostly beliefs and illogical ideas. Stereotyping is a collection of commonly held beliefs or opinions about behaviours and activities considered by society as appropriate for men and women (Wood, 2013:21-22). Similarly, Perry and Pauletti (2011) posit that “gender stereotypes are people’s beliefs about how the sexes differ (descriptive stereotypes) or should differ (prescriptive stereotypes)”. Akerlof and Kranton (2000:716-717) explain that gender stereotypes refer to socio-cultural beliefs and practices which tend to limit the development of men and women. This agrees with Naidoo and Perumal’s (2014:810) study that found “that stereotypical cultural expectations and prejudicial beliefs have restricted women’s opportunities to lead in schools”.

Favara’s (2012:2) study on gender stereotypes and education choices among upper secondary schools in Britain revealed that gender stereotyping affects education choices from the age of 14 and the effects, when compared, are larger for girls than for boys. In related research
carried out in the Netherlands, Stoker, Van de Velde and Lammers (2012:38) found that in organisations there is still a preference for male leaders with feminine characteristics. This shows that stereotyping exists in choosing career courses and in leadership preference. However, the study of Edwards and Perumal (2014:6015) found to be problematic the stereotypical interpretation of leadership based on gender as men and women have leadership qualities.

The documents analysed in this study shows that Section 22(a) of the NPE stresses equal opportunities and access for all, irrespective of sex, social status, religious or ethnic background. It is also emphasised in the Teachers’ Code of Conduct that teachers must relate equally with colleagues irrespective of religion, culture, race, gender and political inclinations (TRCN, 2005:18). In addition, the Nigerian 1999 Constitution (Section 42) prohibits any form of discrimination on the basis of sex, origin, ethnicity, religion or political opinion.

3.7.7 Recruitment of teachers

Recruitment is the process of identifying and attracting or encouraging qualified and suitable candidates to fill positions in an organisation based on vacancies (Peretomode & Peretomode, 2001:34). Section 79(a) of the NPE requires the appointment of academically and professionally qualified persons as teachers and head teachers in public secondary schools. Sixteen participants highlighted the recruitment and appointment process of teachers and principals into public secondary schools based on the new education reform of 2005 in Lagos. In Nigeria, the recruitment process includes placing advertisements in both print and electronic media, followed by the establishment of a selection committee to screen the applications and then interview the shortlisted candidates. Selection is usually based on performances during oral and written interviews. The criteria for selecting new employees in a school include knowledge of subject matter, physical appearance, verbal ability and medical fitness.

The following stages of recruitment were identified by the 16 participants. Butter stated that:

Recruitment of teachers, formerly it was organised by the Teacher Establishment and Pension Office (TEPO). The Ministry will place an advert for any suitable qualified candidate to apply, with minimum qualification being NCE or first degree. Shortlisted
candidates will be subjected to written and oral examinations. Thereafter, successful candidates will be posted to school and then required to go for two months training at Magodo. They will be attached to a teacher for monitoring and assessment and the report will be sent to the principal.

Teachers for public secondary schools are recruited by TEPO. The above excerpt illustrates the various stages an applicant will undergo before being appointed as a teacher. An effective school requires well-selected individuals as teachers that understand and are ready to fulfil their roles as professionals in an organised environment that is conducive for teaching and learning.

3.7.7.1 The appointment of principals

Principals in public schools are appointed. The sixteen participants noted the criteria for appointment as a principal as outlined in Section 17 of the LSPPTSL of 2005. Massarawa explained that:

The post of principal is not based on recruitment but based on appointment. And before you can become a principal, you must at least have spent three years as a vice-principal and must have sat and passed the duty-post examination. So the moment there is a vacancy, they will appoint you as a principal, they will invite you and give you a letter, and that appointment has to be ratified by the commissioner for education. The TGPS will present you and the commissioner of education will ratify it. They will give you a letter to go and resume as a principal of a particular school.

The respondent explains the process an individual has to go through before being appointed as a principal. An applicant must have been a vice-principal for three years and passed the duty-post examination. If a principal position becomes available, the district will provide a letter of appointment, which must then be ratified by the Commissioner for Education before the applicant can assume office. Despite the established criteria, responses from six participants identified flaws in its implementation processes. For example, Bayo commented that:

For instance, if you look at our school location, where we are teaching, majority of the teachers here are not “son of the soil” (people born in a particular place). There was a time the Ondos were occupying some of the highest posts in the schools here and they are everywhere. But along the line, the natives started realising they needed to put their own people there too. So today, you now see a situation where a
native who is on Level 14 would now be a boss to a non-native on Level 16 which is a violation of the constitution. It is, but they don’t believe it to be so. It is only on paper but not implemented.

Bayo points out that the majority of the teachers were not indigenous to the area. People from Ondo State in Nigeria were at one time in charge of schools in Lagos State. The situation has now changed as the local communities want their own people in charge of local schools. Locals are now promoted over non-locals to more senior positions. This is seen as a violation of the constitution. This shows micropolitics at play as discussed in Section 3.5.11.

3.7.8 School traditions

School culture or tradition is difficult to define, but is best viewed as the procedures, values and expectations that guide people’s behaviour within an organisation. It is essentially “the way we do things around here” (Maslowksi, 2001). Two teachers highlighted the issue of school tradition as part of current school practices. Butter explained that, “The leadership role which is expected of a leader to play must follow the tradition of that school. The leader must follow the dos and don’ts of the school as well as that of the host community”. Saida agrees and stated that, “So, whatever is a culture or the social life of where the school is located should be respected, if not, you will not get on with them.”

Leadership roles should align with the tradition of a school and the host community. The local culture should be respected to encourage a healthy relationship with the host community. Inuwa and Yusof (2012:5) describe school culture as the feelings people have about school and whether or not it is a place where learning can occur. Barth (2002:11) reasons that the school’s purpose is to create and provide a culture that is hospitable to human learning. This is consistent with the findings of Macneil, Prater and Busch (2009:73) that a healthy environment enables students to achieve higher scores on standardised tests in schools.

This made Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Whalstrom (2004) reason that school leaders must understand the culture of the school before implementing a change. Therefore, a positive climate makes a school a place where staff and students want to spend a substantial portion of their time; it is a good place to be. It is also the character of a school as it reflects deep patterns of values, beliefs and traditions that have been formed over its history.
3.7.9 Cultural, socio-political and religious factors to consider in distributing leadership

Cultural, socio-political and religious factors refer to the totality of a country. Seven study participants examined the issue of cultural, socio-political and religious factors as current school practices in distributing leadership. Loveth indicated that:

In this district, I think nobody can deny this fact. There are principals in this district that are a level lower than some other teachers who are still holding chalk. In this school you have a Level 17 still holding chalk in the class whereas there are some in Level 15 who are already principals. I think the district is in the best position to know. Personally, I think it is this tribal difference not qualifications.

Loveth believes that tribal considerations are a factor in the appointment of principals. This supports the study of Davidson (2005) in Tanzania whom found that favouritism is prevalent in promotion in schools as well as in selecting people to supervise regional and national examinations or those selected for in-service training. Hofstede (1980) found that there is unequal power in every society. Moreover, power is usually centralised in the hands of a few individuals at the top of the hierarchy (Hofstede, 1991:35).

3.7.10 Multi-ethnic nature of Nigeria

The demographics about Nigeria have earlier been discussed on page xx. Boladale highlighted the multi-ethnicity of Nigeria as affecting the current practice of distributing leadership in schools. Boladale said that, “The multi-ethnic nature of the country comes to play. A leader saying he likes this person or that person to be in a particular position because of his ethnic leanings or his loyalty to him or her, and not on academic competence.”

As a result of the ethnic diversity of the country, a leader may want to work with or appoint people from the same ethnic background as himself or herself. Jekayinfa (2002:2) explains that in Nigeria, ethnicity involves identification with the dominant or subordinate ethnic groups, all of which coexist within the same society. According to Adetiba and Rahim (2012:1), ethnicity through “exclusivism” occurs in Nigeria and limits the advancement of the country to develop a multi-ethnic state. Adetiba and Rahim (2012:1) advice that every ethnic group must be included in the civil service as this would curtail the negative impact of ethnicity. Section 15(2) of the Nigerian 1999 Constitution states that, “national integration shall be actively encouraged, while discrimination on the grounds of place of origin, sex, religion, status, ethnic or linguistic association or ties shall be prohibited”.

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3.7.11 Established criteria

Established criteria are codes of conduct that guide teaching and learning processes in schools. There are established guidelines to be followed by all educators. Three teachers highlighted the established criteria for promotion. Clark said:

No … no… no whether you are a woman or a man, so far you are qualified. There are laid down criteria for those that want to be leaders. For example, they cannot see a university and go and put NCE there. So, they put a graduate. You have to be somebody who has taught for many years, who has gained experience; those are the qualities needed.

Candidates with degrees are considered for teaching positions over candidates with a NCE and years of teaching experience. Two teachers mentioned the need for external help in appointing teachers. High explained that:

But now, despite the fact that we already have criteria, you will agree that many more officers that are qualified for such administrative positions than the leadership positions that exists. That is why I said a perceived hindrance may be lack of political clouts, eh ... eh if for instance, you have been a vice-principal for five years, you have been on Level 16, eh … eh if you do not get baba n’gbejo,(a godfather), nothing will happen.

The available leadership positions cannot accommodate those qualified for such positions. Nigeria has a Teachers’ Code of Conduct enshrined in the TRCN of 2004 and revised in 2005 and 2013. The objectives of the code of conduct, among others, are to reawaken the sense of self-esteem, dignity, humour, selfless service and moral rectitude of teachers. It is also to protect the teachers’ age-long position of nobility and leadership in the social, moral and intellectual world. In addition, another objective of the code is to build a strong moral foundation for the actualisation of an education system that can compete favourably in the global community, as well as clarify teachers’ rights, privileges, obligations and their legal bases (TRCN, 2005:1-2).

The code of conduct specifies teachers’ relationship with learners, parents, employers, society and colleagues and the principles of teachers’ professionalism in Nigeria. Although the established criteria are put in place to ensure equity, there are loopholes that should be rectified to achieve the desired goals. The policy of school leadership must be reviewed to
accommodate other leaders in a school as this would promote the practice of teacher leadership. This would make principals share power with teachers in schools.

3.7.12 Individual background

An individual’s background refers to an individual’s place of birth, world view and education qualification. Three teachers discussed the role that individual background plays in leadership. Ade explained that, “A person’s background will definitely affect him. It will affect his leadership traits”. Thus, Ade believes that an individual’s background and world view affects his or her style of leadership and characteristics.

The above discussions show that participants recognise the use of power, politics and hegemony in schools and the way in which these issues affect appointment to leadership positions. Their use runs contrary to the constitutional provisions that guarantee freedom from any form of discrimination. However, understanding the interplay at work does not mean that a teacher has the power to counteract these types of power plays. In Section 3.7, I discuss the hindrances in current school practices.

3.8 HINDRANCES IN CURRENT SCHOOL PRACTICES

3.8.1 Introduction

The participants in the study identified some hindrances in current school leadership practices. Six teachers highlighted the effect of inadequate infrastructure coupled with inadequate teachers and overpopulated classrooms on leadership practices. Four teachers highlighted the issue of a lack of trust among colleagues as a hindrance in current school practices. Moreover, four teachers indicated the existence of external interference in school practices and one teacher noted the inconsistencies in government policies. Other responses outline issues such as the health of teachers, bad teaching records, promotion assessment phobia and indiscipline on the part of teachers and students as hindrances to leadership practice. Furthermore, the need for an objective for distributing leadership was also highlighted by a teacher. These are the subthemes that emerged from the current understanding of leadership practices in schools.
3.8.2 Inadequate infrastructure in schools

Infrastructure refers to the available facilities in schools that enable teaching and learning. The school infrastructure includes the environment in which the school is located, workshops, libraries, laboratories, classrooms, furniture, boards (magic and interactive) and school resources (Olagboye, 2004:95-96). Adebayo stated that, “The hindrances are one, student population; another is inadequate infrastructure and teachers.” Similarly, Orji explained that, “In this school we have inadequate infrastructure such as classrooms, halls and teaching equipment for practicals in arts and not to talk of science students. We do not have the equipment to teach them.” Inadequate facilities affect effective teaching and learning in schools. Researchers reveal that inadequate facilities are the bane of Nigeria’s education system (Ajeyalemi, 2005:2; Olaniyonu, 2006:18-19; Inuwa & Yusof, 2012:2).

Moreover, Boladale explained that, “Schools have problems of tools for teaching and learning and these shortages of facilities jeopardise efficiency in schools.” In addition, Winners explained that, “We are handicapped because we do not have instructional materials and equipment to teach students. The matter is worse with science students as materials are not available in schools and this affects teaching and learning.” A NTEP of 2009 report states that most training institutions operate with dilapidated infrastructure and furniture, overcrowded lecture halls and insufficient equipment and materials such as library books and computers (NTEP, 2009:2).

In their study, Onyije and Ojedapo (2010) assume that government’s nonchalant attitude to provision of materials (infrastructure) is one of the causes of indiscipline among secondary school students. Ade explained that, “It has to do with inadequate infrastructure. Due to economic crunch, some responsibilities of government are lacking in schools and that goes a long way into poor performance of students.” Similarly, Butter said that, “Inadequate teaching and learning facilities as well as recreational facilities in schools do not augur well for the all-round development of students. To me, these inadequate facilities make students engage in vices that are not good for the educational system.”

The issue of inadequate infrastructure in schools was recently highlighted in The Punch, a widely circulated newspaper in Nigeria with the headline: “Big budgets yet dilapidated structures on Nigerian campuses”. This newspaper gave graphic reports about the pitiable
conditions of facilities in some tertiary institutions in Nigeria (see *The Punch*, 15 November 2014, pages, 1, 14-15). In a related study, Salimu (2013:83) found that in Tanzanian schools there are inadequate teaching and learning materials in schools. In line with the finding, Ayeni (2012:64) found that teachers were being hampered by shortages of instructional material and relevant textbooks, poor conditions of infrastructure and a lack of necessary equipment for their conveniences.

There is an urgent and sincere call to action to reverse inadequate infrastructure in schools in order to address the socio-economic and academic conditions under which teachers work. If this is done, it will alleviate the pressure on teachers to be social workers and will enable them to focus on being transformative intellectuals. Moreover, Nigerian students should also have access to facilities of high quality that will give them a better foundation for learning in their academic pursuits.

### 3.8.3 Overpopulation of classrooms

Overpopulation occurs when there are more students than the recommended teacher to student ratio of 1 to 40 (NPE, 2004:22). In some schools, the teacher to pupil ratio has escalated to 1 to 120. In this study, two teachers’ responses highlight the overpopulation of classrooms as one of the hindrances in school leadership practices. Okoli stated that, “In this school, we do not have enough classrooms and the standard practice in teacher to pupil ratio is 1 to 40. Now we have up to 100 and 120 pupils per class and this does not augur well for teaching and learning purposes”.

This is supported by Boladale who stated that, “We have overpopulation of students in class and it makes teachers work to be strenuous. Imagine teaching up to 100 students in a class.” Hockings, Cooke and Bowl’s (2008:13-14) study found that large classes limit the opportunity for teachers to get to know their students and makes teachers unaware of the knowledge, skills and experiences that students from different backgrounds, prior education and work experiences bring to the classroom. In the absence of such knowledge, teachers tend to base their lessons on their own interests and assumptions about students.
Unfavourable teacher to student ratios often leave many students bored and under-challenged. In contrast, some students might feel overwhelmed or even silenced because their particular needs have not been met or because their different knowledge or views do not seem valid. In a related study, Salimu (2013:83) indicates that large classes affect a teacher’s classroom delivery and control as it is difficult for teachers to attend effectively to the needs of every student. As a result, some students become disruptive or demotivated. The public schools in this study have inadequate facilities for teaching and learning and there is little government intervention or provision of new schools in the study area. All of the participating schools are overpopulated and, as a result, successful learning outcomes are inhibited.

3.8.4 Lack of trust

Lack of trust occurs when subordinates do not have confidence in a superior. Four participants highlighted lack of trust among colleagues as one of the hindrances in current school practices. Bayo explained that, “When the school authority does not have trust in you with which to carry out an exercise, that’s what mistrust can do.” Moreover, Njoku shares the view that lack of trust is a hindrance in school leadership practices. Njoku states that “the hindrance is mistrust”.

Mistrust of colleagues exists when school management does not believe in the capability of staff to carry out tasks and responsibilities. Mistrust is also a factor of social and religious exclusivity in schools. Literature reviewed for the study shows the significant role that trust has in teacher leadership. For leadership to thrive in schools, there should be trust and mutual respect among teachers and education officials and officials should appreciate teacher roles. Voulalas and Sharpe (2005:193-194) identify honesty and trust together with interpersonal communication and listening skills as tools critical to leadership and leadership development across organisations. Harris (2008:184) contends that “trust facilitates the development of a congruent culture and generating forms of leadership that promote improvement”. In addition, trust draws on and develops social capital and enables people to feel safe while sharing knowledge and taking risks. Moreover, trust is the building block of effective relationships and open and honest communication is only possible in an environment where the value system is based on trust.
Literature has shown the significant role of trust in the practice of teacher leadership. For leadership to thrive in schools there needs to be trust, mutual respect and appreciation. Furthermore, teachers must be ready to rise up to the occasion of autonomy. It is unlikely that participants will challenge the status quo or challenge the perception of these so-called leaders.

3.8.5 Contempt from other teachers

Contempt is a lack of respect for colleagues and their roles and responsibilities. Two participants spoke about contempt among colleagues. Butter said that:

When you see a teacher with laudable ideas and you are receiving applause from the student, from other teachers or from the school authority or even from the government, other teachers may have the contempt “is he the only one in school? Does it mean I cannot do better than him?” So they try to be jealous of him. They will try to find one way or the other to make sure they pull down such a teacher.

Butter notes that if a teacher’s performance is recognised by the school authority, colleagues, students or the government, some colleagues will be envious and deride the teacher as if he or she is the only one in the school that has such capabilities. Envious colleagues will look for excuses or ways to disgrace such a teacher. Berman (2014:46) asserts that professional jealousy is a problem that afflicts many organisations. Thus, there is a tendency for people to be jealous of their colleagues who are progressing in the workplace and performing better than they are. This jealousy often arises because people want power, prestige and influence. Moreover, there is intense jealousy, if an individual is publically acclaimed for his or her performance. Thus, behaviour arising from jealousy inhibits innovation and best practices and could prevent schools and students from achieving education goals.

3.8.6 Inconsistencies in government policies

Inconsistencies in government policies are evident in abrupt changes in programmes. Butter stated that:

A government policy is one of the hindrances. At the same time, we will set up a programme and the programme will be going on smoothly, and suddenly the government policy will say stop. And the moment the government says stop, who are you to continue?
It could be deduced from the extract that programme changes are undertaken by the government without consulting teachers and without providing reasons for the changes. Policy inconsistencies often lead to discouragement and demotivation among staff. However, teachers are afraid of confronting these issues as they believe that they will lose their jobs if they do.

3.8.7 Political interference

Political interference occurs when the autonomy of an institution is compromised by a political class or the government. Some of the participants highlighted the role of external influence in schools. Aladelola stated that, “There are some teachers who often prove stubborn because they have godfathers in politics. This is the political era. Some will just damn the consequence and go away, doing whatever they like.”

The above quote reveals that some teachers, due to their connections with politicians, are immovable and are ready to do whatever they like, knowing full well that there will not be any consequences for them. When teachers behave in this manner, they undermine the education system. It is documented in literature how the government in Nigeria has removed some university administrators and replaced them with military men without recourse to the rule of law or institutional autonomy (Olujuwon, 2002:5). The government’s influence is also revealed during promotions and selections of administrators in Nigerian schools.

However, the role of godfathers in the Nigerian political landscape and their different garbs is well-documented in literature as it permeates all spheres of the society, be it among the academic, legal or religious environment (Alabi & Sakariyu, 2013:2). Godfathers are powerful and influential members of the elite class who use their power, money and influence to determine who should rule or be given a political office or position (Majekodunmi & Awosika, 2013:70; Orito & Umukoro, 2010:67). Similarly, Alabi and Sakariyu (2013:2-3) describe godfathers as those people who have the security connections, extended local links and enormous financial weight to plot and determine the success of a power seeker at any level of supposedly competitive politics. Adeoye (2009:270) regards a godfather as a kingmaker, mentor and principal, while a godson is the beneficiary and recipient of the legacy
of a godfather. As a result, godsons become mere surrogates and remain totally subservient to their godfathers (Alabi & Sakariyu, 2013:5).

Bolman and Deal (2008:190) contend that the “general disdain of politics coupled with the inevitable existence of politics in organisational function lead to serious threat to individual and organisational effectiveness”. In their study, Joseph, Ibeogu and Nwankwo (2014:142) found that godfatherism has threatened the country’s nascent democracy. Moreover, competition among godfathers to control state powers and resources through their favoured godsons has denied the electorates the right to elect their preferred candidates, thereby rendering elections ineffective and inconsequential. In addition, the fierce struggle for state power has also resulted in some of the worst electoral violence in the country, since the renaissance democracy in 1999. The authors conclude that godfatherism is a dangerous development in Nigerian politics. The electorates are becoming more impoverished while the corrupt, rich godfathers are enriching themselves even more. This has shown that godfatherism is a tool for corruption, underdevelopment and mediocrity. It leads to the impoverishment of the people and the country. Critical pedagogy will help to emancipate people from domination and oppression and empower them to effect a change in society.

The Nigerian Academy of Education, in its 2006 annual congress, explored the theme: “The politics of education in Nigeria” with the objectives of examining the effect of politics on the formulation and implementation of education policies, programmes and reforms. The congress resolved that government must restore school autonomy and stop interfering in the selection and promotion of staff. It is hoped that this resolution will mitigate mediocrity in school leadership.

3.8.8 Teacher health issues

This section refers to teacher’s health and general well-being. One respondent indicated that a teacher’s health can determine his or her ability to take on a leadership role. Clark said that, “Some people, you know may be sick, because of the nature of their health, people are aware
that this person is not healthy and cannot be given roles.” This statement is consistent with the findings of Day et al., (2006:289) that a teacher’s ill health can have a negative impact on teacher motivation and commitment. Ill health can also have a negative impact on others in the school because work might need to be redistributed. Teacher health issues are one of the barriers identified in the literature review that hampers the practice of teacher leadership (see Section 1.16 of the study).

3.8.9 Teaching ethics

Teachers who violate teaching ethics can have their names written in the black book, which refers to a bad record in this study. A teacher’s bad record could refer to an indictment in a school because the teacher ignored school rules or teaching ethics. Moreover, a teacher’s bad record can hinder the opportunity of promotion to a leadership position. Clark said that, “there are some that have bad records, even when their names are suggested; they say ‘ah … ah, this person already has a bad record’.” The above quote shows that a teacher that engages in acts contrary to teaching ethics may not be given any responsibilities or leadership opportunities. Teaching should be a profession of integrity and teachers should be role models for pupils and society.

3.8.10 Promotional examination phobia

An examination is an oral or written assessment that ascertains if learning has taken place (Gravells, 2014:2). Two teachers highlight the issue of examination phobia. Clark explained that, “Maybe the person may be good but may find it difficult to pass an interview, there some like that; they are good naturally but when it comes to (laughs) written, some are afraid of written. Some can do written, some are afraid of oral; you know that could be hindrances”. Saida agrees and said:

So many people that want to be leaders, it is not that they are not capable but because we have limited space. That is the area I am looking at ... emmm ... because of that space, they normally expose us to examinations to be able to pick. That is basically the major problem.
Some teachers are good at written examinations, but not at oral interviews and vice versa. Examinations have become hindrances to leadership practices because of the limited leadership positions in schools.

3.8.11 Objectives in distributing leadership

An objective is the aim and goal of what needs to be done in an organisation. Orji showed the need for objectives in leadership: “Well you see under normal circumstances ... before a leader is given a position ... there must be certain things like objectives, if there are no objectives, it will not work.” Leadership objectives are important as they outline what needs to be achieved. The Hay Group research in the United Kingdom revealed that clarity of purpose, accountability and role definition is important in distributing leadership (Hay Group, 2004:13). The lack of clear roles or objectives for teacher leadership is one of the organisational barriers to the practice of teacher leadership (see Section 1.16.1).

3.8.12 Teacher indiscipline

Lack of discipline relates to improper behaviour or misconduct exhibited by pupils or teachers (Nakpodia, 2010:145-147). Olagboye (2004:167) defines discipline in schools as “respect for school laws and regulations and the maintenance of an established standard of behaviour”. Discipline implies self-control, restraint and respect for oneself and others. Nakpodia (2010:147) states that any behaviour that contradicts the above becomes “indiscipline”. Three study participants highlighted indiscipline on the part of teacher and students as practices that hinder leadership in schools. Saida stated that, “There are some teachers, they are not ready to work, even if they are not ready to work, they want to discourage those that are ready to work.” Moreover, Winners said that gossiping is an act of indiscipline. “They will come and do gossip and tell the leader,” he said.

Indiscipline in schools has been documented in literature “as the unwillingness or inability of pupils or teachers to respect authority, observe and obey school rules and regulations and to maintain a high standard of behaviour conducive to the teaching-learning process which is essential to the smooth running of the school” (Olagboye, 2004:174). This definition shows
that students, teachers and, to a large extent, parents and school administrators may be liable to acts of indiscipline.

Nwaka and Obikezie (2010:401) note that the school, as an extension of the home, reflects the discipline in the home and the principals’ and teachers’ leadership styles affect the level of discipline in the school. Lack of discipline can result from an inadequate flow of information about school policies or objectives between the school authorities and pupils, or from excluding pupils from making decisions regarding issues that affect them. It should be noted that Section 18(3) of the LSPPTSL (2005) prescribes guidelines on a code of conduct for students, teachers and non-teaching staff.

3.8.13 Student indiscipline

Winners explained an act of indiscipline on the part of students: “A teacher corrected some students not to use their mobile phones during his teaching, because of this correction, some of them sent thugs to waylay the teacher on the road that ‘you, you have mouth (the effrontery) to tell me not to browse in the class or to play music; who are you by the way?’.”

The excerpt illustrates one of the challenges that teachers face in the discharge of their duty in school and it also relates to teacher identity. In a study, Zubaida (2009) identified various forms of indiscipline among secondary school students. These include truancy, lateness, cultism and drug abuse. Moreover, the students insulted or assaulted other people, stole and rioted. In related research, (Iburun, 2003, Idu & Ojedapo, 2011) it was found that peer pressure contributes to indiscipline among students. Furthermore, Idu and Ojedapo (2011:730) observe that the government contributes to indiscipline by not providing adequate facilities in schools. Community influences and the economic recession also affect indiscipline among secondary school students.

Asiyai (2012:45) found that the common types of indiscipline in Nigerian schools are insubordination, which ranges from insult to assault. Other misbehaviour includes vandalism of school property, mass protest, chewing gum in class, fighting, wearing dirty or incorrect clothing and cheating. Asiyai (2012) attributes indiscipline to constant negative references on students which promote low self-esteem, abuse, poor reading habits, restlessness and
inattention in class owing to inadequate facilities and problems with curriculum delivery. Salifu and Agbenyega (2012:53) indicate that unrealistic school rules are the cause of a lack of discipline. Rules and regulations are meant to guide and control activities and should not become burdensome and unenforceable. Social factors that could cause discipline problems in schools are: violence, drug and alcohol abuse, family disintegration and poverty (COMPASS/USAID.n.d:34). Nconsta and Shumba (2013:8) also cite a lack of recreational facilities and shortages of educators as contributing factors of indiscipline.

In a study on violence in schools, Zulu, Urbani, van der Merwe and van der Walt (2004:171) conclude that if violence is not caught early, it could have a detrimental effect on the culture of teaching and learning in schools. Pacheco (quoted in Zulu et al., 2004:171) notes that the culture of teaching and learning has a definite influence on the performance of students and that a negative culture of teaching and learning can inhibit student performance. In addition, Zulu et al., (2004:171), citing several sources, point out that the “culture of teaching and learning is related to educator and learner morale and a plummeting morale amongst educators and learners can erode the culture of teaching and learning and thus result in poor examination results”.

3.8.14 Non-implementation of agreements by the government

The non-implementation of policies refers to situations where agreements reached between teacher unions and the government are not implemented. High outlined the problem with the non-implementation of policies:

I remember we went on a not too good a strike when we were meant to resume on 24 September 2012, to press for TSA 27.5% (Teachers Salary Allowance) which was promised last year by the government. We had to call off the strike and here we are. So if the government refused to pay in January 2013, ah … ah there is nothing much some of us can do. Ehhh … I want to say that to a large extent, the government should try and draw a line between politics and the school system.

Teachers often feel emasculated when government refuses to uphold its side of an agreement. This aligns with Ajeyalemi’s (2005:3) statement that this occurs as a result of the low esteem accorded to teaching as a career as well as the unsatisfactory rewards system in developing countries, especially, Nigeria. In their study of 12 African countries, Bennell and
Akyeampong (2007:X1) reveal that industrial action, or the threat of industrial action, among teachers is common in most of the case study countries (see the International Trade Union Confederation, 2011 annual survey of violations of trade unions rights in Nigeria). Bennell and Akyeampong (2007:XI) contend that frequent official and unofficial strikes are a clear signal of growing levels of dissatisfaction with pay and other conditions of service.

The report of the symposium on the future of Nigerian education organised by the Council for Education in the Commonwealth (CEC) held in London between 19 and 20 July 2003, noted that “there is failure on the part of government to implement stated policies as well as ‘lack of political will’ in Nigeria to implement agreed policies” (CEC, 2003:5). Furthermore, the report attributes the cause of the non-implementation of policies to the prevalence of secretiveness in government coupled with the fact that many of the officials responsible for the public education system have no personal stake in its well-being (CEC, 2003:5).

The above section describes issues relating to participants’ beliefs about leadership and an awareness of how class, power and ideology affect perceptions and understandings of leadership in schools. Participants highlight micropolitics and school tradition as impediments to teaching and learning. In addition, they highlight inadequate facilities in schools and the non-implementation of agreements or policies with teachers that affect their efficacy. Moreover, ethnicity, cliques and favouritism also affect leadership decisions. Furthermore, indiscipline and bad records militate against the promotion and practice of teacher leadership. A transparent promotion system, based on best practices and teacher leadership needs to be evolved in opposition to hierarchical concepts of leadership. In Section 3.8, I discuss strategies for promoting teacher leadership in public secondary schools.

### 3.9 PROMOTING TEACHER LEADERSHIP

#### 3.9.1 Introduction

During the interviews, I asked participants the fourth research question: “How can the practice of teacher leadership be promoted in public secondary schools?” The sixteen participants provided insights into the way in which teacher leadership could be promoted in
schools and offered various ways of promoting teacher leadership. Section 1.14 of the study highlights the factors that support the practice of teacher leadership in schools.

### 3.9.2 Networking

Networking is the interaction of colleagues by sharing ideas for the attainment of education objectives. As noted by Redfern and Ho (2009:38), networking is a necessity for growth in any organisation. Bayo stated that, “It is sharing of ideas with one another, being positive. Teachers should accept the task that is their role and should do it sincerely.” Networking involves creating personal contacts that help provide valuable support, feedback, insight, information and resources (Boone & Peborde, 2008:11). Networking can also be the process of building ties with people and groups and it can be used as a foundation for professional action (Bienzle, Gelabert, Jutte, Klyva, Meyer & Tilkin, 2007:17).

The Development Information Network (DEVNET) (2002:1) highlights the benefits that could be derived from networking which include acquiring information needed in the organisation, building capacities and using resources and expertise. In addition, it shows that networking offers opportunities to use the synergy of a group to find solutions to common problems. Furthermore, it has the potential to prevent the duplication of efforts. Above all, it “provides the exchange of ideas and information around a central theme between individuals and groups who could not otherwise regularly communicate with each other” (DEVNET, 2002:1).

Ibarra and Hunter (2006:8) enjoin leaders in organisations to find new ways of defining themselves and develop new relationships to anchor and feed their emerging personas. They are also expected to accept networking as one of the most important requirements of their new leadership roles and endeavour to allocate enough time and efforts to see its benefits. Boone and Peborde (2008:11) assert that “individuals who recognise the importance of networking move beyond their functional capabilities and continue on the path towards successful leadership”.

### 3.9.3 Modelling
Modelling has to do with passing on values such as kindness, honesty, good behaviour and discipline and showing a junior or new teacher the way in which teaching should take place in the school system. Eight study participants highlighted teacher values. Aladelola stated that, “Teachers are role models because they model students towards acceptable societal behaviour.” Similarly, Njoku stated that teachers are “a role model because mostly we demonstrate how students should do things regularly in classrooms”.

Modelling is a mechanism whereby a senior colleague tutors a junior colleague so as to improve “productivity with knowledge transfer, retention and greater job satisfaction” (Kahle-Piasecki, 2011:46). Leck and Wood (2013:101) explain that “mentoring is typically a mechanism whereby a senior person ‘takes under his or her wing’ a junior person and ensures their protégé understands his or her job, is aware of how the organisation works and has someone to talk to about personal and other issues”. Similarly, Murray (2001:xiii) describes mentoring as “a deliberate pairing of a more skilled or experienced person with a less skilled or experienced one, with the agreed-upon goal of having the less skilled person grow and develop specific competencies”. This shows that mentoring has to do with professional development of both the mentor and mentee. This made Campbell and Brumnett (2007:50) describe mentoring as a way of professional growth which “rests on empowering prospective teachers to think about expanded ways of engaging in (curriculum) and in pedagogy”. This requires the “mentor and the mentee to learn from each other as part of a two-way relationship that bothers on openness to receive constructive feedback and willingness to provide it in the mentoring relationship” (Rush, Blair, Chapman, Codner & Pearce, 2008:132).

The importance of mentoring as a professional development strategy has been documented in literature. Hudson (2013:3) claims that mentoring can lead towards career planning and potential leadership roles for mentors. It can also enhance communication skills, develop leadership skills and increase professional status. This is consistent with the study of Gilles and Wilson (2004:87) who found that mentoring “gives teachers leadership opportunities that build confidence and professional courage”. This is needed in Nigerian public secondary schools as it will enhance trust and collaborative activities which will make their roles “professionally and personally rewarding” (Simpson, Hasting & Hill, 2007:481). Nakpodia (2010:145) notes that in the school system, teachers are seen as models to students, as loco-parentis and guidance counsellors who help them to become useful to themselves and society.
This mentor-mentee relationship enables the teacher to modify students for the better through learning. Kahle-Piasecki (2011:47-48) contends that “the mentee learns by observing the mentor who functions as the stimulus to bring about learning”.

3.9.4 Equity, justice and fairness

Equity, justice and fairness are essential ingredients in any organisation. Boladale reflected the views of other participants: “Trust, open-mindedness, you do not assume before the facts come in, sincerity about facts and put it straight. Then there should be equity and justice in the system.” The excerpt highlights the need for trustworthiness and openness as well as the need for people to be factual on issues. Moreover, in the school system there should be fair play. Hoy and Tarter (2004:253) state that “leader behaviour that is equitable, sensitive, respectful, consistent, free of self-interest, honest and ethical is likely to create a perception of fair and balanced treatment”. The authors also state that the principles of voice, egalitarianism and representativeness are crucial in any attempt to empower teachers. Hoy and Tarter conclude that these “three principles work together to promote a sense of fairness among teachers”.

3.9.5 Succession training

Luna (2012:60) refers to succession planning as a “systemic, long-term process of determining goals, needs and roles within an organisation and preparing individuals or employee groups for responsibilities relative to work needed within an organisation”. It is also “a process whereby future leaders are given leadership positions in order to prepare them for challenges ahead” (Rothwell, 2005:13). It is also described simply as a way of preparing individuals to eventually take over key roles within the operating structure of an organisation as a result of resignation, retirement, transference, promotion, new openings or death of staff (Mullins, 2007:770). This is done mostly “by preparing the new person for the new role before the old one leaves, possibly with training or through work shadowing” (Rizmedia, 2014:1). Manchester Metropolitan University (2014:3) describes job shadowing as an opportunity for an individual from one area of the organisation to work alongside and gain experience of the role from another individual. This enables the individual to gain an insight
into the workings of that particular work area. Similarly, it is also useful for an individual within a department to work alongside a more experienced colleague, so that he or she can learn and develop within his or her current role.

Finzel (2001), in his book *10 Mistakes leaders make*, quotes Dr Warren Webster who said that “success without a successor is a failure” (Finzel, 2001:162). Loveth said:

Involve them in responsibilities. Do not wait until they have ascended high before giving responsibilities to them. I am of the opinion that nobody should be idle that is why I said every teacher should be a leader. All hands should be on deck. Do not just use the few ones in schools, but let everyone contribute to the school affairs, since practise makes perfection.

The excerpt highlights the need to involve subordinates early in responsibilities to help in their training. It also stresses the need for the involvement of everybody in the affairs of the school and not just the few regular employees who are always involved. This will provide an opportunity for others to learn and grow in the organisation. One of the ways to create leaders in an organisation is through succession planning. It provides stability in the organisation, continuity of work as well as increased performance in schools (Orazi, Good, Wanrooy-van, Butar, Olsen & Gahan, 2014:59).

Taylor and McGraw (2004:748) identified three different ways of management succession plans which include pool, react and heir approaches.

- The ‘pool’ approach is a strategy of developing qualified staff capable of filling leadership vacancies in the organisation.
- The ‘react’ approach entails searching for a successor once a vacant post exists in the organisation.
- The ‘heir’ approach trains an individual to take over a particular post when the post becomes vacant.

Taylor and McGraw (2004:743-744) contend that “succession often begins with identifying the skills, knowledge and capabilities of individuals that are already part of the organisation, through creating an ongoing programme that provides the training and experience necessary to groom those individuals for future responsibilities so as to fill critical positions in the organisation” (Taylor & McGraw, 2004:743-744). Wright (2012:30-31) states that often
heads of organisations dislike thinking about the future when they will no longer occupy their position or they fear competition. Accordingly, these factors work against putting a robust succession plan in place.

Succession planning is important for competitive advantage, as it enables organisations to maintain a continuously high standard of leadership by drawing from a pool of potential leaders (Elkin, Smith & Zhang, 2012:37-38). Rothwell (2005:13) notes that succession management is used to facilitate effective organisational positioning and development to ensure that within an organisation the “right leaders are available at the right time”. Taylor and McGraw (2004:742-743) identify some benefits of succession management in that “it facilitates effective workforce planning whereby the right people are in the right place at the right time to achieve organisational outcomes”. It ensures that “right candidates with the right skills, knowledge and capabilities are selected into critical roles in the organisation” (Taylor & McGraw, 2004:742-743). Finzel (2001:164-165) provides reasons for why leaders do not want to relinquish their job security. One reason is a fear of retirement, while others reasons are the comfort of the current position, a lack of confidence in a successor, the belief that nobody else could do the job properly, or a fear of losing what he or she has invested in the position.

Songer (2012:1) argues that a leader’s lasting values are his or her legacy which is measured by succession. A legacy is “created only when a person puts his or her organisation into the position to do great things without him or her”. In this regard, Wallin (2007) notes that “an effective succession plan in the education sector can create a better informed and more qualified employee base that understands the needs of the organisation and demonstrates a greater willingness to take on leadership roles”.

3.9.6 Coaching and providing support for colleagues

Coaching is regarded as one of the strategies to upgrade teaching and learning and provide support. Whitmore (2009:10) contends that it is a way of unlocking people’s potential to maximise their own performance. It is helping them to learn rather than teaching them. Clark commented that, “When you are open, it goes a long way to support colleagues at work ... so
that’s an important aspect in leadership, be approachable and be concerned about the plight. It will go a long way to support them.”

The excerpt reveals that when a leader has an open door policy, is available and shows concern for the plight of members, he or she provides a way of sustaining members in the organisation. This behaviour will also assist leaders to be aware of any oppressive acts in the organisation, which could be dealt with collectively. Saphire and West (2010:47) define “coaching as a strategic, systemic approach to improving student learning”. Therefore, Saphire and West (2010:46) argue that the job of a coach is to raise the quality of the teaching and learning in every classroom in the school by building a culture in which planning for instruction is thorough and collaborative. This digs deeply into the content and conversation and questions about improving student results among teachers are constant, evidence-based and non-defensive.

Rhodes and Beneicke (2002:304) stress the importance of selecting mentors who possess “personal and professional qualities of the highest order”. This will go a long way in making the organisation sustainable. However, Simkins et al., (2006) argue that the “appointment of a coach with positional authority could in some ways be seen to limit or threaten the coaching process”.

3.9.7 Trust

Bryk and Schneider (2002) describe trust as a critical aspect of productive social relations. It is also an “interactive process, with each party’s discerning the trustworthiness of the other parties”. Butter stated: “I want to solicit that, we teachers, we should continue to love and trust ourselves, so that we will be able to work hand-in-hand for the uplift of our school in particular and the state as a whole”. The excerpt reveals a clarion call for teachers to embrace love and trust for one another and work co-operatively for the upliftment of the school and state. This is needed in NPSS where mutual trust, love and networking are of paramount importance in achieving education goals.

Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu and Easton (2010:139-140) affirm that trust is the bedrock for building and sustaining organisational relationships. According to Spillane
the development of trust in an organisation is a crucial function of leadership. Trust helps to develop social capital which enables people in the school to be open to share ideas and take risks. Furman (2004:229-230) argues that open and honest communication among members could only be possible in an environment where value is based on trust as this helps to build a lasting and effective relationship. More recent studies (Bry, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu & Easton, 2010; Hulpia, Devos & Rosseel, 2009; Tschannen-Moran, 2009) show that a positive school climate fosters trust and co-operation and provides open input from staff. Staff commitment enables effective schooling and the achievement of school goals. Bryk et al., (2010:207-208) posit that an atmosphere of trust is established by a principal. Accordingly, these authors assert that any principals can become “drivers of change”, if they can genuinely establish a trusting school environment for all school members: parents, teachers, students or members of the community. Furthermore, they believe that with this in place, the “trust, co-operation and collaboration around unified school goals and programme coherence can thrust forward school improvement ideas and plans, even among disadvantaging barriers” (Bryk et al., 2010:207-209). Similarly, Price (2012:42) contends that when principals establish trusting school spaces, serious school improvement and success can occur.

Establishing a relationship of trust with members of a group is crucial for effective development, which is the reason Howell and Shamir (2005:98) claim that there must be a “high level of trust between leaders and followers in achieving organisational goals”. Yukl (2010:56) notes that integrity is a key factor in creating trust. Trust is established by demonstrating honesty and consistency (Bell, 2013:69). The leader needs to respect and understand the needs and values of followers in the organisation (Bell, 2013:69). Trust relationships matter and the corresponding satisfaction, cohesion and commitment levels can positively influence school climate and student learning (Bryk et al., 2010; Goddard et al., 2007). The findings of Beycioglu, Ozer and Ugurlu (2012:3318) reveal that distributed leadership positively affects trust among colleagues and principals in schools. Trust is one of the factors that enhance the promotion of teacher leadership in schools. Trust helps build relationships and uplifts schools as they strive for academic success. This study corroborates the findings of Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) that trust, fairness and collaborative action contribute to school effectiveness.
This section explored strategies that could be used in advancing the practice of teacher leadership in schools. Participants are conscious of the characteristics necessary to promote teacher leadership in public schools. Trust and networking are identified as essential in building organisational culture which helps to increase teachers’ self-development and, in that way, improves teaching and learning. Additionally, it will benefit the school, students and the community. Moreover, strategies for succession and training for leadership positions are of great significance in public schools. In the next section, I discuss the documentary analysis of the data collection procedure used in the study.

3.10 DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

3.10.1 Introduction

Analysing documents is an important phase in this study as they serve as substitutes for records of activity that the researcher cannot observe directly. They provide useful insights into past events in teacher leadership (Burton, Brundrett & Jones, 2008:75; Stake, 1995:680). During the data collection period, I obtained and analysed the NPE and Teachers’ work schedules. This aligns with one of the objectives of the study, which aims to understand the current practices of school leadership in schools.

3.10.2 School schedule

A school schedule deals with the organisation of the programmes that are offered as cumulative and co-curricular activities that make up the entire school curriculum (Bamisaiye, Ejieh, Adelabu, Alase, 1998:52). Hackmann (2006:899) highlights the importance of school schedule as it helps to maximise available instructional time for learning and empowers teachers with decision-making authority to group learners for instructions. It is also important because it provides teachers with the flexibility and creativity to design and deliver instructional methods that fully engage the students in the process of learning. Above all, the “goal of effective scheduling modes is the mastery of curriculum content for all students” (Hackmann, 2006).

In Nigerian schools, committees are established to draft the school timetable. The school day is divided into suitable blocks of time based on the number of activities to be undertaken each
day. Time is allocated for the morning and closing assemblies, recess, lunch periods and subjects. Most schools follow the traditional or conventional practice of fixed periods that are usually 40 or 45 minutes long. Traditionally, there are between seven and eight periods per day. In each school, there is a class timetable that specifies the time and type of a particular subject to be taken (Appendices 18, 20, 21). In addition, there is a timetable for each subject teacher indicating the subject and total number of periods at a glance. The timetable is broken down into the hours of the day in a week for the whole academic session (Appendix 19).

Bamisaiye et al. (1998:52) suggest that the following should be taken into consideration when preparing a schedule.

**Official regulation:** Government policy states that 39 weeks should be used for instruction and 13 weeks should be used for vacation. No school is expected to do more or less. Therefore, adequate times are allocated to school subjects based on their importance, such as English and mathematics which are compulsory for admission into higher institutions. In addition, every Wednesday afternoon has been allocated for sporting activities in schools.

**Length of school day:** This depends on the community and individual school factors which vary from community to community and from state to state. However, in Lagos State schools open at 8:00am and close at 2:00pm from Mondays to Thursdays and on Fridays schools close at 1:00pm (for the junior and senior secondary schools). This is done to enable Muslims to take part in the Friday Jumat prayers. In addition, Wednesday afternoons are set aside for co-curricular activities and student association meetings. Section 30 (A and B) of the NPE of 2004 emphasises the importance of youth clubs, organisations, school societies and co-curricular activities as instruments for character training which forms part of the pupils’ education. Teachers also serve as patrons to student clubs and societies.

**Lunch period:** Students are given time to go for lunch usually between 11:30am and noon on Mondays, Tuesdays and Thursdays, while Fridays and Wednesdays usually have a lunch period between 11:00am and 11:30am. This is uniform in all schools.

**Laboratory or workshop:** The present education system allows for practical orientation in education programmes. This has to do with practical tasks in subjects such as physics,
biology, chemistry, agriculture or English. The aim is to enable students be exposed not only to theory but to the practical aspect of a course as well.

**Staff size and qualifications:** A schedule based on the strength of the teaching staff, their qualifications and specialisation enhances teaching and learning. This will help to determine the number of sections that each class or subject will be divided into for a specific period on the timetable.

**Class size:** The number of pupils per class determines how to break classes into sections. The policy on education stipulates that the pupil to teacher ratio should be 40 to 1, but, realistically, there are 100 to 120 pupils to 1 teacher in most schools.

**School plant:** The schedule should be carried out based on available facilities in the school. Experts have noted that the number of classrooms is inadequate in Nigerian schools (Olaniyonu, 2006:18-19).

In Nigerian schools, double periods are meant to combine theoretical and practical knowledge and work, especially in the sciences. Material should be provided for science students to enable them to be more engaged and hands-on in practical activities.

### 3.10.3. Documents with key features

In this section, I mention the documents analysed, their key features and findings as it relates to the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Documents</th>
<th>Key feature</th>
<th>Findings</th>
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<tr>
<td>National Policy on Education (NPE, 2004)</td>
<td>The guidelines of administering education in Nigeria from pre-primary to the university level are enshrined in the policy with special reference to teacher education as “no system [that]</td>
<td>This policy document recognises teacher education as the bedrock of any nation. Emphasis is placed on in-service training as an integral part of the teacher education</td>
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can rise above the quality of its teachers”. There is a major emphasis on education planning and development. The goal of teacher education is to have effective and efficient teachers that are professionally trained and committed to the teaching profession. Some of the guidelines relating to improving teacher education include:
- the appointment of academically and professionally qualified persons as teachers and head teachers,
- the regulation of in-service training programmes for teachers and head teachers,
- the exposure of teachers to innovations in their profession,
- the creation of opportunities for professional growth of teachers at all levels, and
- the development of in-service training as an integral part of continuing teacher education so as to take care of inadequacies.

| Work schedules | This is for both teachers and students to guide their teaching and learning activities. | It contains the subject and time when teachers are expected to teach a particular class and subject. It shows instructional and curriculum. NPE was one of the statutory records to be kept in schools and a copy was available in the schools of the study. |
3.10.4 Documents analysed

The documents analysed are statutory documents to be kept in schools and act as guidelines in the teaching and learning process.

3.10.4.1 The National Policy on Education

Policy outlines the vision and mandate that provide guidance for process and practice in an organisation (Faubert, 2012:4). The FGN has recognised education as “an instrument for effecting national development” (NPE, 2004:4). The education policy was devised to “solve national needs, improve access to education and address educational imbalances, contradictions and ambiguities and lack of uniformity in educational practices witnessed in different parts of the country and in ensuring even and orderly development of Nigeria” (NPE, 2004:4). Moreover, in the NPE, government acknowledges that “educational goals are for the benefit of the citizenry and educational goals are set out in terms of the relevance to the needs of the individual and those of the society in consonance with the realities of [the] Nigerian environment and the modern world” (NPE, 2004:4).

Furthermore, this policy is intended to affect the overall quality of education at all levels in Nigeria. In implementing this policy, the federal government set up the National Education Policy Implementation Committee, with the “sole aim of advising the government on the best way to implement the provisions in the policy and to develop a monitoring system for educational planning as it evolved” (NPE, 2004:5). The NPE (1981, 1998 and 2004) has broad aims, objectives and philosophies for all levels of education in Nigeria. The aims for secondary education are enshrined in Section 5 of the 2004 edition which is to “prepare learners for useful living within the society and for higher education”.

Source: This framework is developed by the researcher to provide focus and lens to the study.
The aims and objectives of the secondary education are well expanded in Section 22 (a–h) of the policy which aims to “provide learners with the opportunities for education of a higher quality, irrespective of sex, social status, religious or ethnic background”. Moreover, the policy states that it aims to “equip students to live effectively in the modern age of science and technology”. In addition, secondary education is said to “raise a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others, respect the dignity of labour and appreciate those values specified under Nigeria’s broad national aims and to live as good citizens” (NPE, 2004:18-19). The following conclusion can be drawn based on the previous information: teachers in NPSS practise teacher leadership due to their various activities in schools.

3.10.4.2 Teacher work schedules

The professional duty of a teacher is to teach and be available to students. Teacher work schedules are plans of action for activities in a term as shown in a teachers’ timetable in Appendix 19. Work schedules include academic and administrative activities. Normally, the total teaching time is 7 hours and 15 minutes a day. Teachers’ academic work schedules include preparing lesson notes, teaching, marking examination scripts and preparing a broad sheet (where each student’s score is recorded in a class).

3.10.4.3 Teacher administrative work schedules

A teacher’s administrative duties are assigned by the principal or school management. Duties include conducting assemblies either in the morning or closing and maintaining a roster for cleaning the school. Students assist the teacher to monitor the cleanliness. Student discipline falls under the administrative control of teachers. Teachers are appointed as house masters or house mistresses at the annual inter-house sports meetings. Moreover, teachers are expected to attend staff meetings at the prerogative of the principal and there are also PTA meetings that a teacher must attend.

3.11 CONCLUSION

The discussions have shown that teacher leadership as a concept has varied meanings and perspectives. Moreover, the delegation of roles and responsibilities should be based on merit
and not on an affinity to a specific social or political group. Furthermore, an atmosphere of trust helps to achieve education goals. The participants highlighted their beliefs about leadership and an awareness of class, power and ideology that affects perceptions and understanding of leadership in schools. They also highlighted impediments, such as micropolitics, school culture, inadequate facilities in schools and non-implementation of school polices, that affect the practice of teacher leadership in schools.

In addition, the era of single leaders running a school is over and emphasis is now on multiple forms of leadership to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in schools. It reveals that school policies and how teachers conduct themselves in schools can make or mar effective teaching and learning. Participants in the study feel disempowered to effect changes as they are not part of the policy-making process, but they are aware of the consequences of policy on teaching and learning. Participants are conscious of the characteristics necessary to promote teacher leadership in public schools such as trust, networking, and succession planning. These are significant in building organisational structures that improve teaching and learning. The use of documentary analysis helped to answer research questions and assisted in providing basic descriptions of a teacher’s professional and administrative work in ensuring academic goals. In the next chapter, I present the overall conclusion of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR: GOOD TEACHERS, GOOD QUALITY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study on exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria. The case study method was used and the data gathering techniques employed were semi-structured interviews and analyses of policy on education and teacher work schedules. I also reviewed the following documents: the Lagos State Teachers’ Handbook, the TRCN, the Teachers’ Handbook and the TRCN Teachers’ Code of Conduct as well as the NTEP as an add-on to the NPE. Principals, vice-principals, teachers and an education administrator were the participants of the study. They were drawn from five public senior secondary schools in an educational district in Lagos, Nigeria.

This chapter is presented in seven main headings.

1. Summary of findings,
2. Recommendations on how to improve the quality of teacher leadership in public secondary schools,
3. Recommendations for further study,
4. Reflections on my research journey,
5. Conclusions,
6. An overview of the study,
7. Concluding remarks.

4.2 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

In this section, I present the summary of findings based on the theme: Teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria.

4.2.1 Perception of teacher leaders

Teachers perceived teacher leadership as teacher professionalism and commitment. Teacher leadership is also about established criteria, teacher leadership practices and the distribution and delegation of roles and responsibilities. Data shows that the distribution of leadership
improves teachers’ professional learning, skills and competencies as these are necessary in achieving school objectives and goals. Similarly, it is about commitment to the teaching profession through discipline, knowledge of best practices, teamwork and co-operation as this improves teaching and learning in schools.

4.2.2 Policies guiding teacher leadership in schools

The policies guiding teacher leadership can either promote or hinder the practice of teacher leadership. Teaching tailored towards individual capability will achieve equal opportunities for all. In addition, the pre-service policy hinged on practice rather than theory would make would-be teachers grounded in skills and competence. Data shows that professional development will enable teachers to be abreast of the latest developments in teaching and learning. Furthermore, teachers should be part of policy making that affects their work and when such policies are formulated they should be implemented. The study shows the prevalence of micropolitics in schools and its effect on teaching and learning as this runs contrary to professional ethics and Nigerian laws. Furthermore, the data reveals that some teachers are dissatisfied with the new policy on promotion and its various conditions.

4.2.3 Challenges of teacher leaders in public secondary schools

The data shows that the public schools in the study are faced with challenges in the discharge of their duties. The challenges teachers face are partly as a result of their own negative attitude to work, the societal perception of teachers, inadequate teaching and learning facilities, political, social and religious factors as well as micropolitics in schools. The data reveals that there are inconsistencies on the part of the government in the implementation of policies and that mistrust exists between colleagues in schools. In addition, teachers, students and other stakeholders violate rules and regulations of schools by using their political connections to undermine teaching and learning processes. Similarly, the political class often erodes school autonomy in deciding issues of appointment and promotion in schools.

4.2.4 Strategies of exploring teacher leadership

In exploring teacher leadership in schools, an effective and robust succession programme is needed. In addition, a policy for interaction that enhances collaboration and the sharing of
ideas is conducive to building mutual ties and trust among colleagues. Moreover, trust helps to build effective student and colleague relationships as they strive for academic success which, in turn, uplifts schools. The data shows that colleagues should be supported and encouraged through coaching by seniors so that subordinates’ leadership aspirations can be achieved.

4.2.5 Distributing leadership in schools

The data shows that distributed leadership enhances student achievements and school improvement. Furthermore, it provides valuable experience to the subordinates to enable them to take on more responsibility. This creates a mutual relationship between the leader and the subordinates. The study shows that leadership distributed based on competence, skills and qualifications enhances professional development and eliminates micropolitics.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study gives voice to teachers through the following recommendations that will provide direction for reforms of teacher education through exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria. The research findings of this study reveal that teacher leadership can only be achieved with the combined efforts of all stakeholders. However, gaps still exist in actualising effective teacher leadership in public secondary schools. Teacher leadership can only be achieved through realistic and attainable recommendations that address the factors that limit distributing leadership in public secondary schools.

4.3.1 Setting quarterly professional development programmes

This research shows the importance of professional development. Moreover, it is also important for teachers be exposed to innovations and best practices in their chosen career. It is advisable that this exposure should take place quarterly, instead of the once-off training, workshops and symposia currently provided. In addition, schools should organise quarterly development programmes for teachers to update their knowledge of their subject areas. It is recommended that adequate financial provisions should be provided and monitored for schools to achieve their desired objectives. This will improve teacher productivity as well as school and pupil academic achievement.
4.3.2 Mentoring colleagues

This research found modelling to be a good motivator for teachers. It is recommended that principals, vice-principals, heads of department and year tutors should set good examples and model junior colleagues or new entrants into the profession. This will motivate, engage and integrate teachers and make them committed to the teaching profession. It is strongly recommended that mentoring should be encouraged. This would offer stability, comradeship and support for colleagues. Modelling is the responsibility of teachers to engender effective teaching and learning processes by inculcating values and ethics and passing on their knowledge to the next generation of teachers. This shows that it helps new teachers and colleagues to fit into the teaching environment.

4.3.3 Eliminating micropolitics in schools

The findings on micropolitics in schools show that principals must ensure adherence to professional and constitutional provisions that forbid discrimination in whatever guise. It is recommended that teachers should build professional and harmonious relationships based on respect and trust to create an atmosphere conducive for effective teaching and learning. Teachers should be critical, educative, reflective and ethical in their dealings with stakeholders as this would empower them to question and challenge hegemony, words, actions and beliefs and emancipate themselves from micro politics that hinders them from leadership positions.

4.3.4 Delegating responsibilities based on capabilities

The findings of this study reveal that school leaders should delegate responsibilities and tasks based on capabilities, experience and qualifications. It helps subordinate to develop young teachers so that they may gain experience as leaders. This will enable tasks to be accomplished timeously and efficiently. It is advisable for school leaders to share information about opportunities available to develop teachers. Also, they should reject the idea of delegating roles and responsibilities based on social, political or religious affinity as this tends to bring about conflicts in schools.
4.3.5 Modifying teacher education programmes

The research indicates that pre-service teachers are not adequately prepared for teacher leadership roles and that the teacher education programmes should be modified to accommodate leadership courses. This will enable teachers to function effectively and efficiently as teacher leaders and update their knowledge on teacher leadership roles and functions. It is strongly recommended that the modalities of teaching practice should be extended from a three-month internship to a one-year internship. This will enable trainee teachers to improve their knowledge of teaching and learning practices. It is advisable that the new teacher education curriculum should develop collaboration techniques to create shared leadership structures and build a culture where teachers work harmoniously to enhance teaching and learning. It is strongly recommended that a school for teacher leadership should be created and the curriculum should include courses in leadership.

4.3.6 Enhancing school teacher leadership

The importance of school and community relations in achieving effective schools has been shown in this study. It is strongly recommended that the PTA and school activities should be strengthened to engender cordiality between the school and its host community. The importance of having positive attitudes towards the attainment of goals and objectives has also been shown in this study. It is advisable that attitudes that will enhance peace and harmonious interaction based on professional ethics should be pursued by stakeholders. Negative attitudes exhibited by teachers and principals could hamper effective teaching and learning in schools. Negativity should be guarded against, as it could hamper effective succession plans.

The findings of this study emphasise the importance of networking as a tool for creating trust, fairness and appreciation of one’s fellows, which are some of the major factors for success in schools. This study shows the role trust plays in an organisation. Organisational goals and objectives are effectively achieved where there is harmony, collaboration and co-operation among workers in an organisation. Research has shown that people who support one another and work well together help to promote the growth and development of an organisation (Moloi, 2004:81).
This study shows the need to modify the purpose of the TRCN to enable this body to do more than register teachers. It should begin to conduct the Mandatory Professional Continuing Education programme for all categories of teachers. This will go a long way in updating best practices among teachers and helping them to keep abreast of the latest knowledge in their professional areas. It is strongly recommended that the TRCN and NUT should provide avenues for teachers to share ideas on leadership and provide leadership mentoring programmes for newly inducted teachers. There is a continuing need for government and unions to partner in formulating policies on continuous professional development. It is recommended that teachers should be involved in curriculum design and reform.

In addition, policies that emphasise a principal as the only accountable leader in a school should be modified to reflect current leadership realities. This will enable principals to share leadership with teachers. Moreover, it will help to prepare teachers to accept leadership roles so that the roles and responsibilities of teachers in schools can be explored. It is recommended that principals should empower teachers to achieve the education outcomes of the school so that the students can grow, develop and achieve. Further research should focus on the way in which teachers acquire leadership.

**4.4 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES**

To expand the frontier of teacher leadership in public secondary schools, it is recommended that the same study be carried out in the other five educational districts of Lagos, as school contexts differ from zone to zone. Further research should focus on the way in which teachers acquire leadership and in what context. Other similar research could be conducted on the roles teacher unions play in enhancing leadership in public secondary schools.

**4.5 REFLECTIONS ON MY RESEARCH JOURNEY**

**4.5.1 Researcher reflection**

As I embarked on the research as a lecturer in a teacher preparatory college, I believed that teacher leadership develops over time through collaboration, mentoring, shared leadership, reflection on tasks and engagement in professional development. Because of individual
differences, there are some teachers who possess a disposition for leadership that sets them apart and makes them more ready to accept teacher leadership roles and responsibilities. The ambience of the school and school culture can either positively or negatively influence a teacher’s progression towards teacher leadership.

This study has provided me with an opportunity to learn about leadership practices in schools. I believe this research will provide new insights and understanding in the field of education leadership and management. I appreciate and thank all the research participants for letting me into their world; without them this study could not have been undertaken. Apart from my personal reflections, I also reflect on the research aims, significance of the study and a review of the literature and methodological processes used.

4.5.2 Reflections on research aims

The research aims fell into four main areas: perception, impact of policies, current leadership practices and strategies to promote teacher leadership in schools. There is a relationship between each of these areas in the current thinking and practice of teacher leadership in the context of NPSS.

4.5.2.1 Perceptions of teacher leadership
Study participants have varied perceptions of teacher leadership. Their perceptions are based on the context of educational practice in Nigeria, which is ascribed to formal leadership roles, mastery of subject matter and role modelling. However, the concept of teacher leadership is still developing in Africa, unlike in first world countries where it is well promoted and developed (Brand, 2009:1-2).

4.5.2.2 Impact of policies on leadership
The impact of policies on leadership practice in public schools was discussed because I was interested in ascertaining the influence of policies that guide teacher leadership in public secondary schools. Participants highlighted the importance of policy on education and the way in which it has been beneficial to them in their teaching and learning journey. However, they also complained about the inadequate implementation of policies. On reflection, I noted
that, in spite of the implementation committee on the NPE, much still needs to be achieved in quality education and in enhancing teacher identity. I was intrigued to learn that the new requirements for the position of principal have caused dissatisfaction among teachers as it prevents some teachers from aspiring to leadership positions.

Participants were generally satisfied with the various professional developments organised for them either by the education district, subject associations or through the intervention project of the Lagos State Government, referred to as the “Eko Project”. This project was developed in collaboration with the World Bank and has $90 million funding support from the World Bank. The funding is provided to schools as discretionary grants to improve the teaching and learning of English, mathematics, biology and basic sciences. The funding is also used to improve instructional and infrastructural needs and for sponsoring teachers to attend seminars and workshops.

4.5.2.3 Current school practices

Before I began this study, I had heard of a series of current school practices that hindered effective teaching and learning, but was unable to ascertain how serious these issues were. This study has provided me with insights into the problem areas, which will need firm and decisive corrective actions to achieve the desired teaching and learning goals. The negative current school practices highlighted by the participants include general indiscipline, micropolitics, political interference, non-implementation of government agreements, inadequate facilities, socio-cultural and religious dimensions and societal perceptions of teachers and how teachers perceive themselves.

4.5.3 Reflections on the significance of the study

This study contributes theoretically to the body of literature in the area of education leadership and practice in public secondary schools. It adds to the knowledge of teacher leadership and extends the debate on issues of teacher leadership. From a theoretical standpoint, the data contributes to the notion of teacher leadership in schools from distributed leadership perspectives. The study was carried out with the approval of the University of Johannesburg’s Ethics Committee, EDV and the principals of the five selected urban secondary schools. The study reveals the extent to which teachers exercise leadership in
schools and it contributes to a better understanding of teacher leadership and the roles and responsibilities of teachers in a school context.

The study hopes to influence future policies on teacher leadership in public secondary schools. A qualitative multiple case study method was undertaken to provide a different perspective, as most studies conducted in Nigeria are quantitative based. Ethical considerations, such as anonymity, consent and confidentiality during and after the research processes, add to the study’s credibility and trustworthiness. Above all, the research findings will be beneficial to stakeholders in the education sector.

4.5.4 Reflections on literature

This study is an exploration of the challenges associated with leadership practice and teacher leadership in public schools. I reviewed related literature and reflected on the concept of leadership theories and models, its styles and the notion of teacher leadership and distributed leadership. While investigating the issues of leadership, I delved into historic and current leadership practices in schools. The data reveals the reasons why the traditional forms of leadership are no longer tenable with the current realities of leadership in schools.

Moreover, the data shows the existence of collective action, empowerment and distributed agencies that could lead to personal and organisational improvement (Grant, 2006:416; Harris, 2003:317). This aligns with expert assertions that teacher leadership “is an emergent property in which a group or network of individuals pool expertise together to achieve educational goals” (Bennett, Wise, Woods & Harvey, 2003:3; Gronn, 2000:317; Southworth, 2005:162). Harris and Spillane (2008:33) contend that teacher leadership can serve as a diagnostic and design tool that offers a lens on leadership practices within and between schools.

The data also highlights the need for teacher leaders to network with one another, to maintain a positive attitude to duties and to engage in effective succession planning. On reflection, the review of related literature led me to consider the various approaches to leadership and the different leadership styles. The data reveals different leadership models such as transformational and traditional leadership and the various theories of leadership from
participative to interpersonal and managerial theories. The data also reveals the need for teachers to be educative, reflective and critical in their daily practice. This would empower them to navigate their political environment and dismantle all forms of hegemony and oppression that inhibits them from leadership practices. It will also enable teachers to be democratic in their classrooms and see students as co-learners and creators of knowledge.

It is evident that when leadership is distributed, it brings confidence, trust, collaboration and professional development. The data demonstrates that the ultimate goal of any education initiative is to improve student performance. I later extended the literature review to consider the benefits of both teacher leadership and distributed leadership. This demonstrated the need for networking, collaboration and the distribution of roles and responsibilities among stakeholders in schools (OECD, 2009:17-19). Mayo (2002:28) notes that learning together and working collaboratively brings about better teaching and learning. Experts assert that teacher leadership “is a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively” (Harris & Muijs, 2002:3-4).

Furthermore, I discovered that the benefits of teacher leadership in a distributed leadership perspective outweigh its detractions. The various contentions associated with distributed leadership include the assertion that the widespread use of the term “distributed” has resulted in its misuse. There are various definitions of “distributed” which dilute its meaning and Timperley (2005:417) states that distributed leadership is “a risky business which may result in the greater distribution of incompetence”.

The data also reveals the challenges teachers are facing in their practice of leadership. These include inadequate facilities, frequent policy changes, micropolitics and indiscipline. Against this backdrop, I examined the dimensions of teacher leadership as well as strategies for building leadership structures in schools. The data suggests networking, attitudinal change, succession planning and trust as strategies for promoting the practice of teacher leadership in schools.
4.5.5 Reflections on methodological processes

I used the qualitative multiple case study methodology to answer my research questions. I documented the issues about my position as a researcher and a lecturer in the state college of education. In the study, I explain in detail the various data gathering techniques and the research instruments used. I also explain the way in which I handled ethical issues related to consent, confidentiality, anonymity and data management. I trust that the various challenges encountered during the research process will be beneficial to other researchers working in similar fields or adopting similar methodologies.

4.5.6 Reflections on my research findings

This study adds to the existing body of knowledge about the challenges teachers are facing in schools which hinder the practice of teacher leadership. The findings also highlight the need for leadership to be distributed in schools based on experience and qualifications. Principals have an important role to play in distributing leadership. Moreover, effective policies to promote good leadership are needed. Teachers should have a voice in the policies that govern the education system. A consolidation of existing working relationships with teachers should be expanded to engender trust among teachers and enhance teacher commitment to the profession. Qualified teachers should be able to function without being stereotyped or labelled by society. Teachers need the knowledge of education leadership and the various forms of micropolitics in their environment to be empowered to challenge the vices of oppression and hegemony and be free.

4.6 CONCLUSIONS

The study of teachers’ perceptions and understanding of leadership in public secondary schools was based on data gathered from participants, which provided rich descriptions of leadership practices in schools. Triangulation of data from other sources corroborated the findings of this study. The evidence gathered in this study has been used to understand distributed leadership in schools and the various factors that can enhance its distribution or act as impediments to leadership. This study has revealed that teacher leadership is an appropriate form of leadership to assist in bringing about the changes required in public secondary schools. Recommendations are made to bring about changes in the teacher education
programme and to explore teacher leadership in schools which in turn will enhance student academic performance in public secondary schools. Teachers in public schools should ensure that their opinions on school leadership practices are heard.

4.7 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to explore teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria. The various factors that support and limit teacher leadership through distributed leadership have been identified. Moreover, recommendations for improving teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria have been offered. This is a case study and qualitative data was obtained from semi-structured interviews and documentary analysis. Data was collected from principals, teachers and an education administrator of an educational district in Lagos State. The processes and procedures of data collection techniques, data analysis and the research questions matrix were highlighted in Chapter Two.

The four main themes were used to develop the research findings which were interpreted to develop claims and offer recommendations for the study. The triangulation of obtained data from the semi-structured interviews with the research participants and the documentary analysis ensures the credibility and trustworthiness of the findings of this study.

4.8 ASSUMPTION AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Several assumptions guided this study. I assumed that the participants, as stakeholders, would be honest, frank and straightforward on issues relating to school leadership and would use their experiences in providing suggestions and recommendations for exploring teacher leadership in Nigeria. I also assumed that teacher knowledge and skills are necessary to transform the teacher education programme in Nigeria. I assumed that teacher leadership is necessary and teachers have significant roles to play in the achievement of teaching and learning outcomes. Moreover, I assumed that teachers’ self-interest may not allow them to collaborate with one another. I also assumed that principals have significant influence in teacher leadership. My final assumption was that schools who allow teachers to collaborate and take on leadership positions, achieve better results.
The context of this study was about exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos State, Nigeria. In Lagos State, public secondary schools are administered through the education districts and regulated through the office of the Honourable Commissioner of Education in line with the goals, objectives and philosophy of the NPE. As Imogie (2000:4) points out, school leadership in Nigeria is characterised by bureaucracy, which limits the distribution of power at school level. He adds that in schools where collaboration is limited, so is the achievement of education outcomes. To empower leaders means to mobilise untapped attributes of teachers to strengthen school systems (IEL, 2001:4). Similarly, exploring teachers as leaders will promote professional development and continuous learning (Murphy, 2005:144; York-Barr & Duke, 2004:255).

4.9 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Effective leadership that entails being concerned with staff development, having effective communication and mentoring trust, respect, networking, positive attitudes, equity, fairness and justice is a sine qua non for ensuring quality teaching and learning. School leaders must have the capacity to ensure that the predetermined goals and objectives of education are achieved with the support of other staff. In addition, the aims and objectives of an organisation and their time frames should be communicated and understood by all. A principal is responsible for ensuring good and harmonious interpersonal relationships in a culture of mutual respect and trust. Leadership should be distributed based on experience, qualification and zeal to achieve success in an organisation and not based on personal, religious or political connections. Teacher leadership will promote professionalism, commit to teaching and learning, enhance job satisfaction and improve student learning outcomes.

A survey of the literature reveals two prominent themes central to the success of exploring a new role for teachers as leaders. One of these is that school changes and improvement cannot succeed without teacher leaders and that teacher leadership is essential for raising the level of professionalism within the teaching profession (Mayo, 2002:28). The other theme is articulated by Barth (2001:115) who says that “to capture the potential of teacher leaders, the profession needs to invent, expand and honour a variety of opportunities for teacher leadership so that there will be more choices than being ‘either’ a principal or a teacher”. The career ladder for teachers has precious few rungs. If more widespread teacher leadership is to
be attained in our schools, educators will have to explore multiple conceptions of the teacher’s role, for example, as team leader, lead teacher, teacher researcher or master teacher.

Only when many such roles exist within the teaching profession will the potential to benefit schools, which reside in teacher leadership and teachers themselves, be realised. In the study, exploring teachers as leaders means emphasising self-development and encouraging team building and distributed leadership among the levels of school leadership. It is also about providing an enabling environment for collaboration, accountability, trust and harmony among stakeholders in the school. An enabling environment will strengthen the values, skills and knowledge that are fundamental to effective teaching in the 21st century and help in exploring society’s perception of teachers.
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Appendix 1: Letter of Introduction: Education District

The Permanent Secretary/Tutor-General,  
Education District IV,  
Agboju,  
Lagos.  

19 April 2011  

Dear Madam  

Concerning Olujuwon Olutola T  

Olutola Olujuwon is a doctoral student in the Department of Education Leadership and Management at the University of Johannesburg. His doctoral thesis is on “Redefining teachers as leaders in public secondary schools in Lagos State.”  

He would like to carry out this study at five schools in Education District Five in Lagos state and needs approval from the Ministry to interview principals, teachers and the Director-General of District Five. We anticipate that this study will be beneficial to teacher practice in Lagos State.  

I would be grateful if approval can be given to him to conduct this study.  

Thank you in anticipation  

Dr Clive Smith  PhD co-coordinator  csmith@uj.ac.za

The Tutor General/Permanent Secretary
Education District V
Agboju,
Lagos

Dear Madam,

RE-OLUJUWON, OT

Our letter on the above refers

The PhD research as mentioned in the letter shall be carried out in the following Senior Secondary schools

- *Egun Senior College, Badagry
- *Highway Senior Secondary School, Tolu Complex
- *Red Senior High School, Okokomaiko
- *White and Blue Senior Secondary School
- *Nigerian Senior Grammar School

* The names of the schools have been substituted with pseudonyms in order to maintain anonymity.

The study is proposed to involve interviews with principals and teachers (2-3) of the selected schools.

Madam, it is pertinent to humbly inform you that the study will also include an interview session with you.

Please, it is important to have the reply of this letter addressed to:

Dr Clive Smith, PhD Co-ordinator,
Faculty of Education, University of Johannesburg,
Auckland Park Campus, South Africa.

Thank you for this assistance.

Warm regards,

Tola Olujuwon
Appendix 3: Approval from the Education District

LAGOS STATE GOVERNMENT
EDUCATION DISTRICT V
(BADAGRY, OJO, AMUWO-ODOFIN & AJEROMI/IFELODUN LGAS)

OLD OJO RD,
AGBOJU,
LAGOS - NIGERIA.

FAX:

TELEPHONE: 07028309865
P.M.B.

17th May, 2011

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND APPROVAL

I hereby introduce Mr. Olujuwon, O. T. to you.
He is carrying out a study which involves interviewing of Principals
and six to eight teachers in your school.
Please accord him all necessary assistance.

Mrs. E. O. Oshun
Director, Schools’ Admin

MISSION STATEMENT OF THE DISTRICT

Inspiring educational excellence in Secondary Schools through efficient service delivery, quality teaching,
conducive teaching/learning environment in collaboration with all stakeholders
Appendix 4: Ethics clearance

ETHICS CLEARANCE

Dear Olutola Thompson Olujuwon,

Ethical Clearance Number: 2011-039

Re: Redefining Teacher Leadership in Public Secondary Schools in Lagos State-Nigeria.

The FAEC has decided to

☑ Approve the proposal
☐ Provisionally approve the proposal with recommended changes
☐ Recommend revision and resubmission of the proposal

Sincerely,

[Signature]

Professor Alan Amory
Chair: FACULTY ACADEMIC ETHICS COMMITTEE

28 October 2011
Appendix 5: Change of Title: Research Proposal

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

CHANGE OF TITLE
NB: The title must be approved before an assessor can be appointed.

Date: 13.02.2015

Candidate: Olutola Olujuwon
Supervisor: Juliet Perumal
Department: DELM
Degree course: Ph.D

Field of study: Education Leadership & Management

Student No: 201049121

Proposed title: Redefining teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos State educational district in Nigeria

New title: Teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria

Motivation(s) for change of Title request: The title has been rephrased to render it less wordy and to shift the focus from a redefinition of teacher leadership to an exploration of teacher leadership, in general.

Signature: Supervisor 13.02.2015

Signature: Head of Department 13.02.2015

Signature: Chairperson, Higher Degrees Committee 13.02.2015
Appendix 6: Certificate: Language Editor

Confirmation of editing

To whom it may concern,

I, Margeaux Erasmus, declare that I have edited Olutola Olujuwon’s thesis called

*Teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos, Nigeria.*

The editing involved

- Checking for errors in spelling and grammar
- Formatting headings

Kind regards,

Margeaux Erasmus
BA (Hons) English

Sign: [Signature]
Date: 30/6/2023
Appendix 7: Letter of introduction: schools

The Principal,

Dear Sir/Madam,

Letter of introduction

I am Tola Olujuwon, a lecturer in the Department of Educational Foundations and Administration at Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Otto/Ijanikin, Lagos. I am currently completing a PhD research programme in Education Leadership and Management at the University of Johannesburg, South Africa. My research thesis is on: “Exploring teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Lagos State-Nigeria”. Teacher leadership as a field gaining momentum worldwide but has been researched adequately in Nigeria. The literature reveals that teachers as key participants in curriculum implementation are excluded from school leadership activities while principals are recognized as the single leader with the competencies and skills to manage schools and the curriculum. However, the demands for improved school leadership and achievement of learning outcomes have led educators to advocate for multiple leaders in schools.

There is a renewed interest in exploring teachers’ role as leaders, in sharing of knowledge, ideas, and in working collaboratively colleagues to improve schools. I am interested in finding out what teachers understand about teacher leadership, the current practices and the opportunities that are available to them to be leaders. Your school had been nominated to be included in the study and I would like to solicit your support and agreement to participate in the research.

An interview protocol on teacher leadership forms part of the study. The interviews would be audio taped and transcribed and the interview will not be more than three hours in length. I would like to conduct the interviews in schools between April and November, 2012. The documentation of all responses and data in the study will be recorded with pseudonyms and anonymity will be maintained throughout. Five schools will be involved in this research and the data obtained from these schools will be combined to obviate any identification.

I would also ask for permission to conduct a short meeting with all your staff, to brief them on the study and to seek the support of volunteer participants. I shall use this opportunity to explain participants’ rights to decline or withdraw from the study at any time. Seniority, years of service and current leadership position in schools, will be strong factors in selecting research participants from the pool of interested teachers. At this meeting I shall distribute
letters outlining the process of the study to all teachers. Consent forms will be distributed to
interested participants for collection at agreed dates.
If you wish to contact my supervisor about this study, her details are below:
Professor Juliet Perumal, Faculty of Education, University of Johannesburg, Auckland Park
Campus, Johannesburg, Republic of South Africa. Phone: +27834286355.
Email:julietp@uj.ac.za
Thank you for taking the time to consider my request.
Yours sincerely,
Tola Olujuwon
Appendix 8: Letter of introduction: principals

The Principal,


I am Tola Olujuwon, a lecturer in the Department of Educational Foundations and Administration at Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Otto/Ijanikin, Lagos. I am currently completing a PhD research programme in Education Leadership and Management at the University of Johannesburg, South Africa. My research thesis is: “Exploring teacher leadership in public secondary school in Lagos State, Nigeria”.

The study will involve an interactive session and I shall seek your opinions, views and perceptions on the concept of teacher leadership. I believe your views and experience will assist me with recommendations for developing teacher leadership in Lagos State schools. The interview would be audio taped and transcribed. Your input and that of other participants will remain anonymous. Five schools are involved in this research and the data obtained from these schools will be combined to limit any possibility of identification. All data and the school names will be protected by my using pseudonyms.

The interview will take about two-three hours and will be at a time suitable to you. You will have access to your interview transcript for corrections before I use the information. I intend to carry out the interviews between April and November, 2012. Kindly fill the attached permission slip to indicate your interest in participating in this study. I enclose a stamped self-addressed envelope for returning the permission slip to me by February 28, 2012. You have the right to decline to participate and doing so will not affect my study.

I thank you for taking the time to read this letter.

Yours sincerely,

Tola Olujuwon
Appendix 9: Letter of introduction: teachers

Dear Sir/Madam,


I am Tola Olujuwon, a lecturer in the Department of Educational Foundations and Administration at Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, Otto/Ijanikin, Lagos. Currently, I am completing a PhD research programme in Education Leadership and Management at the University of Johannesburg, South Africa. My research thesis is based on “Exploring teacher leadership in public secondary school in Lagos State, Nigeria”.

The study will involve an interactive session with you and will seek your opinion, views and perception on the concept of teacher leadership. I believe your views and experience will assist me with recommendations for developing teacher leadership in Lagos State schools. The interview would be audio taped and transcribed. I will maintain anonymity to all contributions of participants. Five schools are involved in this research and the data obtained from these schools would be mixed together in other to limit the chances for identification. The individual participant’s data and the schools will be protected with the use of pseudonyms. The documentation of all responses and data in the study shall be recorded with pseudonyms and anonymity will be maintained throughout.

The Interview will take about 2-3 hours and will be at a time suitable to you. I wish to inform you that you will have access to the transcripts of the interview for corrections and necessary amendments before I use the information. All documentation relating to this study will be identified with identified pseudonyms used in order to protect participants’ views and opinions. I intend to carry out the interviews between April and November, 2012. Please, kindly fill the attached permission slip to indicate your interest in participating in this study. I have enclosed a stamped self-addressed envelope, for posting the slip and with the hope that it will be received by February 28, 2012. You have a right to decline, and doing so will not affect my study.

I thank you for taking the time to read this letter.

Yours sincerely,
Tola Olujuwon
Appendix 10: UJ informed consent form

Project Title:
Exploring Teacher Leadership in Public Secondary Schools in Lagos State-Nigeria

Investigator:
Tola Oluyiowon

Date:
3rd May, 2012

I hereby:
- Agree to be involved in the above research project as a participant
- Agree to be involved in the above research project as an observer to protect the rights of:
  - Children younger than 14 years of age;
  - Children younger than 18 years of age that might be vulnerable*; and/or
  - Children younger than 18 years of age that are part of a child-headed family.
- Agree that my child,__________________ may participate in the above research project,
- Agree that my staff may be involved in the above research project as participants

I have read the research information sheet pertaining to this research project and understand the nature of the research and my role in it. In addition, I have had the opportunity to ask questions about my involvement in this study and to receive additional details I requested. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time.

Please allow me to review the report prior to publication

Name:                                   ____________________________________________
Phone or Cell number:         ____________________________________________
e-mail address:                      ____________________________________________
Signature:                             ____________________________________________

If applicable:
- I consent/assent to audio recording of my/the participant’s contributions,
- I consent/assent to video recording of my/the participant’s contributions

Signature:                             ____________________________________________

*Vulnerable children refers to individuals at risk of/exposed to harm  (physical, mental, emotional and/or spiritual)
Appendix 11: Research sensitisation sessions

I conducted research sensitisation will all research participants.

Introduction

I am Tola Olujuwon, a PhD student in the Department of Education Leadership and Management at the University of Johannesburg South Africa. My research topic is: Exploring Teacher Leadership in Public Secondary Schools in Lagos State-Nigeria. I am interested in learning about your perceptions of leadership and the practice of leadership in your school.

Background to the study

Literature on school leadership shows that effective school leadership makes a significant difference to schools’ and students’ learning outcomes. The roles and responsibilities of teachers as leaders are critical in achieving educational goals. The teacher as a leader in most Nigerian Public Secondary Schools is limited to teaching duties and responsibilities. Research in educational leadership is dominated by traditional view about leadership that recognise principals as sole leaders while ignoring the contributions of non-principals in school leadership. The demand for improved school leadership and achievement of learning outcomes has made researchers advocate for teacher leadership in schools. This call provides a unique departure from the traditional understanding of school leadership.

Intention of the research

This research attempts to:

- examine teachers' perception about leadership in schools.
- investigate policies guiding leadership procedures in public schools
- explore the current understanding and practice of teacher leadership in Nigerian schools
- identify strategies that are needed to promote teacher leadership in Nigerian schools.

Potential risks

It is unlikely that there will be any consequences for participants in this study as data will be protected by complete anonymity. The research is being conducted with the approval of all relevant authorities. The research is also conducted within the principles of honesty and ethics of respect for the knowledge and democratic values and quality of educational research.

Potential benefits

It is hoped that the research will add to your knowledge on exploring teachers as leaders and empower you with new ways and thinking about school leadership.
Confidentiality
Every effort will be made to guarantee confidentiality and privacy. I will use pseudonyms in the final research reports and codes will be used to record all information. However, we are often identifiable through the stories we tell. Furthermore, if information you have provided is requested by under the law, then I may be required to reveal it. In addition, only the researchers will have access to the collected data which will be securely stored for no longer than two years after publication of research reports, or papers of this study. Thereafter, all collected data will be destroyed.

Participation and withdrawal
Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw your consent to participate in the project at any time. If you decide to withdraw, there will be no consequences for you. Your decision whether or not to participate in the study will not affect your continuing access to any services that might be part of the study.

Future interest and feedback
Should you have any questions related to the findings of the study, you may contact my research supervisor Professor Juliet Perumal by email at: julietp@uj.ac.za or you may contact me on 0803-334-9285 or by email: cenduserve@yahoo.com at any time.
Tola Olujuwon
Appendix 12: Semi-structured interview-Principals

Demographic data
Name
School
Gender
Educational qualification
Time of interview
Date of interview
Location of the interview
Post of interviewee

Semi-structured interview with principals
I want to thank you sincerely for agreeing to be interviewed today in spite of your tight schedule. The purpose of this interview is to find out your views, ideas, opinion, perception on teacher leadership and your experience in leadership in schools, with particular reference to how you gain, maintain and exercise leadership in your school. I also want to know the opportunities that are available in the distribution of leadership throughout your school and the leadership roles you play as teachers. I hope this interview and study will be useful to you in your teaching and learning processes.

Who are your role models that inspired you in your professional career?
What did they do that influenced your career progression?

Explain the experience you have as a male/female leader in this school?
What are your roles and responsibilities in this school?
How does your identity inform your conception of school leadership in terms of gender, class, age, culture and professional experience?

1. Please comment on the type of attitude which the following have towards your leadership as a woman/man in this school?
   - Female colleagues
   - Male colleagues
   - Other school leaders in the Education District
   - Education District Officials
   - The community
   - Teachers
2. Please comment on the aspect of gender equity and gender equality in the treatment of 
   male and female school heads in general in the Nigerian Secondary School (NSS)?
3. What is your understanding of teacher leadership?
4. How did you develop this understanding? Elaborate
5. Teachers apart from their formal roles, are they leaders in this school?
6. At what level would you consider them to be leaders?
7. What essential qualities must a teacher have before becoming a teacher leader?
8. What is the rationale for teacher leadership in schools?
9. What does it mean to be a teacher leader in this particular school?
10. What perceptions do teachers have towards teacher leaders? Provide examples
11. What are the hindrances that affect teacher leadership in schools? Please explain
12. How does the current practice of school leadership influence teacher leadership in 
    schools?
13. What constitutes the actual practice of teacher leadership by colleagues and what do 
    teachers perceive as the responsibility of formal teacher leadership should be?
14. What interactions do you have with teacher leaders in your school?
    • Professional development
    • Collaboration
    • Communication
    • Mentoring.
15. What have been the main challenges in schools leadership? Please elaborate
16. Are there opportunities available for teachers to be leaders in NSS?
17. What kinds of professional training are available for teachers? Please elaborate
18. How does the national policy on education influence teacher leadership in schools
19. How does the micro politics in school management affect teacher leadership?
20. Are there socio-cultural practices that influence the practice of teacher leadership in NSS?
21. How does the economy of the school community influence the development of teacher 
    leadership?
22. What are the processes of recruiting teachers and principals in public schools? Please 
    explain
23. What are the responsibilities of teacher leaders in:
    • The classroom
    • Within the school
24. In what ways do teacher leadership roles contribute to:
   - School improvement
   - Students performance
   - Collaboration
   - Trust?

25. What can you tell me from your experience on the strengths and weaknesses in the management of NSS?

26. Describe your relationship with:
   - Teachers within the school
   - The community
   - The students.

27. What kind of collaborative activities exists between teachers in your school?

28. Do you participate in professional development activities? Elaborate

29. Under what condition do you think teacher leadership can thrive in schools?

30. What is your perception of distributed leadership?

31. How and why could leadership be distributed in schools?

32. What are the benefits of distributed leadership?

33. How do you see yourself as a teacher and how do the society, the education ministry and the district sees you as a teacher?

34. How can teacher leadership practice be improved in NSS?

35. What suggestions will you proffer in advancing teacher leadership in NSS?

36. What other suggestions would you offer on teacher leadership in schools?

I am most grateful for sharing your thoughts on teacher leadership with me.

Thanks so much.
Appendix 13: Semi-structured interview-Tutor-General Permanent Secretary (TGPS)

Demographic data
Name
School
Gender
Educational qualification
Time of interview
Date of interview
Location of the interview
Post of interviewee
Duration of interview

Semi-structured interview with the Tutor General/Permanent Secretary (TGPS)

I want to thank you sincerely for agreeing to be interviewed in spite of your tight schedule. The purpose of this interview is to find out your views, ideas, opinion, perception on teacher leadership and your experience in leadership in schools, with particular reference to how leadership is practiced in schools. I also want to know the opportunities that are available in the distribution of leadership in schools and the leadership roles teachers' play as leaders. I hope this interview and study will be useful to you in your teaching and learning processes.

I want to congratulate you on your appointment as the PSTG for Education District IV

1. How do you feel about being appointed into this position?
2. How would you describe the landmarks of your career?
3. How did these achievements in your career mould you as a leader?
4. Did you receive any leadership training prior to this appointment?
   a. Who provided you with the training?
   b. Did the training take into consideration female leadership practices?
   c. Was the training relevant and adequate?
   d. How regular was the training?
5. What are your challenges as a female in this position?
6. Is female leadership different from male leadership? Explain
7. What are the policies guiding the appointment of PSTG?
8. What are the procedures guiding the appointment into this leadership position?
9. If you could change this process, what would you change and why?
10. What have been the main challenges in schools leadership?
11. What are the processes of recruiting teachers and principals in public schools?
12. Are there socio-cultural practices that influence the practice of teacher leadership in NSS? Please Elaborate.
13. How does the micro politics in school management affect teacher leadership? Please explain.
14. What constitutes the actual practice of teacher leadership by colleagues and what do teachers perceive as the responsibility of formal teacher leadership should be?
15. What kinds of professional training are available for teachers? Please elaborate
16. What is your understanding of teacher leadership?
17. What perceptions do teacher have towards teacher leaders? Provide examples
18. What do you understand as distributed leadership?
19. Are there opportunities for teachers to be leaders?
20. What are the daily routines of teacher leader?
21. How and why could leadership be distributed?
22. What are the daily routines of being a teacher leader?
23. What challenges are teacher facing as leaders in Nigerian Secondary Schools?
24. What suggestions will you proffer in advancing teacher leadership in Nigerian Secondary Schools?
25. What other suggestions would you offer to promote teacher leadership in schools?

I want to thank you all for your insightful comments on teacher leadership and for finding time out of your tight schedule to be part of this study. Your comments and suggestions will go a long way in enriching my data and in my PhD journey.

Thanks once again.
Appendix 14: Semi-structured interview-Teachers

Demographic data
Name
School
Gender
Educational qualification
Time of interview
Date of interview
Location of interview
Post of interviewee
Duration of interview

I want to thank you sincerely for agreeing to be interviewed today in spite of your tight schedule. The purpose of this interview is to find out your views, ideas, opinion, perception on teacher leadership and your experience in leadership in schools, with particular reference to how leadership is gained, maintained and exercise in schools. I also want to know the opportunities that are available in the distribution of leadership in schools and the leadership roles teachers’ play as leaders. I hope this interview and study will be useful to you in your teaching and learning processes.

1. What are your experiences in your present leadership position?
2. What reasons made you to take on leadership roles?
3. Reflect on role models among the teachers that taught you in schools. What were their positive characteristics? In what ways have you tried to emulate these role models?
4. What is your understanding of teacher leadership?
5. How in your opinion do teachers’ understand the concept of teachers as leaders?
6. What is the rationale for teacher leadership in schools?
7. How does teacher leadership affect your work as a teacher?
8. What are the daily routines of teacher leaders? I want you to expatiate on it
9. What constitutes the actual practice of teacher leadership by colleagues and what do teachers perceive as the responsibility of formal teacher leadership should be?
10. How does the teacher education programme assist your understanding of teacher leadership?
11. How does the national policy on education influence teacher leadership in schools?

12. How are the Education District and the Ministry responding to the issue of teacher leadership? Please explain.

13. How does the current school practice of school leadership influence teacher leadership in schools? Please elaborate.

14. What does it mean to be a teacher leader in this school? Please explain.

15. What attributes should teacher possess before becoming a teacher leader?


17. Are there socio-cultural practices that influence the practice of teacher leadership in NSS? Please provide examples.

18. How does the economy of the school community influence the development of teacher leadership?

19. What are the responsibilities of teacher leaders in:
   - The classroom
   - Within the school
   - Outside the school
   - In the community

20. In what ways do teacher leadership roles contribute to the following:
   - School improvement
   - Students performance
   - Collaboration
   - Trust

21. What are the benefits of teacher leadership to:
   - The teacher
   - The community
   - Students
   - The school itself

22. What in your opinion are the perceptions of other teachers towards teacher leaders?

23. How will these perceptions helped in distributed leadership in school leadership contexts?

24. What are the hindrances in the making of teacher leaders?
25. What interactions do you have with teacher leaders in your school in the area of?
   25.1 Professional development
   25.2 Collaboration
   25.3 Communication
   25.4 Mentoring
26. What have been the main challenges in schools leadership? Please elaborate
27. What are the processes of recruiting teachers/principals in public schools?
28. What kinds of professional training are available for teachers? Please elaborate
29. What do you understand as distributed leadership?
30. Are there opportunities for teachers to be leaders? Please elaborate
31. What do you understand as distributed leadership?
32. How and why could leadership be distributed? Please explain
33. What are the benefits of distributed leadership?
34. I want you to explain, under what condition can teacher leadership thrive in schools?
35. In your own opinion, how do you see yourself as a teacher?
36. What challenges are teacher facing as leaders in Nigerian Secondary schools?
37. Identify the characteristics in teacher leadership which helps in supporting colleagues at work?
38. Based on your experience, what are some concrete ways to help teachers to become leaders?
39. What suggestions will you proffer in advancing teacher leadership in Nigerian Secondary Schools?
40. What other suggestions would you offer to promote teacher leadership in Schools?

I want to thank you all for your insightful comments on teacher leadership and for finding time out of your tight schedule to be part of this study. Your comments and suggestions will go a long way in enriching my data and in my PhD journey.

Thanks once again.
## Appendix 15: Data table calendar

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27th Feb</td>
<td>Visitation to Red Senior High School, Okokomaiko, Lagos</td>
<td>Sensitisation</td>
<td>Sensitisation conducted about the research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27th Feb</td>
<td>Visitation to Egun Awori Senior College, Badagry</td>
<td>Sensitisation</td>
<td>Sensitisation conducted about the research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28th Feb</td>
<td>Visitation to Nigerian Senior Grammar School, Festac</td>
<td>Sensitisation</td>
<td>Sensitisation conducted about the research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29th Feb</td>
<td>Visitation to White and Blue Senior Secondary School, Navy Town</td>
<td>Sensitisation</td>
<td>Sensitisation conducted about the research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29th Feb</td>
<td>Visitation to school Highway Senior Secondary School, Tolu Complex</td>
<td>Sensitisation</td>
<td>Sensitisation conducted about the research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29th Feb</td>
<td>Visitation to Education District V1</td>
<td>Sensitisation</td>
<td>Sensitisation conducted about the research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Egun Awori Senior College</td>
<td>Conducted Semi-structured interviews with a teacher and the Principal.</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th May</td>
<td>Visitation to White and Blue Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Conducted Semi-structured interviews with the Principal and Teachers</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Education District V1</td>
<td>Inquired about an appointment with TGPS</td>
<td>Rescheduled meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Nigeria Senior Grammar School</td>
<td>Sensitisation with the Principal and Teachers</td>
<td>Had nice meetings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Education District</td>
<td>Appointment for the semi-structured interview with the TGPS</td>
<td>Meeting scheduled for another day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Nigeria Senior Grammar School</td>
<td>Conducted semi-structured interviews with Teachers</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Education District</td>
<td>Met with the TGPS</td>
<td>Had nice meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th May</td>
<td>Visitation to Education District</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview with the TGPS</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11th May</td>
<td>Visitation to the Education District</td>
<td>Attended the Teachers Merit Award in the District</td>
<td>Wonderful programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15th May</td>
<td>Transcription started</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31st July</td>
<td>1st draft of transcriptions ready and send to the supervisor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Type of Interview</td>
<td>Data Collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Oct. 2012</td>
<td>Visitation to Egun Awori Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Conducted interview with the VP</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Oct.</td>
<td>Visitation to Red Senior High School</td>
<td>Conducted semi-structured interview with the Year Tutor</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Oct.</td>
<td>Visitation to Red Senior High School</td>
<td>Conducted semi-structured interview with the VP and Teachers</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Oct.</td>
<td>Visitation to Nigeria Grammar School</td>
<td>Conducted semi-structured interview with Asst.HOD Science</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;-13&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; November</td>
<td>Transcriptions on going</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; November</td>
<td>Visitation to Highway Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>Conducted semi-structured interview with the Principal,VP and HOD</td>
<td>Successful data collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Nov. 2012- Feb 28&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; 2013</td>
<td>Transcriptions and corrections of transcriptions</td>
<td></td>
<td>Successful transcriptions and typed in Microsoft word 260 pages</td>
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</table>
## Appendix 16: Duration of interviews and hours of transcription

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interviewee</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Transcribing Hours</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>1 hour</td>
<td>1hr 43mins 10seconds</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1hr:5mins:31seconds</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours 5 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
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<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours 11mins,50 seconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>33:12</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>1hr 33 minutes 12 seconds</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>24;34</td>
<td>1 hour</td>
<td>1hr 24 minutes 34 seconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>1 hour</td>
<td>1hr 33 minutes 41 seconds</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours 5minutes 50 seconds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>1hr:26mins</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours and 26 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1h34mins:16</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1hr:52mins:11 seconds</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours 52minutes 11 seconds</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
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<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours 16minutes 23 seconds</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
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<td>3 hours</td>
<td>4hours 1minute 5seconds</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>47hours,365minutes,4.89seconds</td>
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## Appendix 17: Research question matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Interview question</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q.1. How do teachers’ perceive leadership in schools?</td>
<td>What is your understanding of teacher leadership? (IP.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What constitutes the actual practice of teacher leadership by colleagues and what do teachers perceive as the responsibility of formal teacher leadership should be? (IP.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What in your opinion are the perceptions of other teachers towards teacher leaders? (IP.22)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.2. What are the policies guiding leadership in public Secondary Schools?</td>
<td>How does the teacher education programme assist your understanding of teacher leadership? (IP.10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How does the national policy on education influence teacher leadership in schools? (IP.11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How are the Education District and the Ministry responding to the issue of teacher leadership? Please explain (IP.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How does the current school practice of school leadership influence teacher leadership in schools? Please elaborate (IP.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What kinds of professional training are available for teachers? Please elaborate? (IP.29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.3. How do the current practices of school leadership influence teacher leadership in Nigerian Secondary Schools?</td>
<td>What are the daily routines of teacher leaders? I want you to expati ate on it (IP.8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How does the micro politics in school management affect teacher leadership? Please elaborate (IP.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there socio-cultural practices that influence the practice of teacher leadership in NSS? Please provide examples (IP.17).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How does the economy of the school community influence the development of teacher leadership? (IP.18).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q.4. How can the practice of teacher leadership be advanced in Nigerian Secondary Schools?</td>
<td>Identify the characteristics in teacher leadership which helps in supporting colleagues at work? (IP.36).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What suggestions will you proffer in advancing teacher leadership in Nigerian Secondary Schools? (IP.38).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What other suggestions would you offer to promote teacher leadership in Schools? (IP.39).</td>
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</table>

Note IP (Interview protocol).
# Appendix 18: Time-table of SS1 science students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>FM</td>
<td>FM</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>CHEM</td>
<td>CHEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday</td>
<td>FM</td>
<td>FM</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>TR</td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday</td>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>AGR/ID/</td>
<td>AGR/ID/</td>
<td>PHY</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>ECO</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PHE/GEO/</td>
<td>PHE/GEO/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>FN</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>CIVI</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friday</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>CHEM</td>
<td>CHEM</td>
<td>TR</td>
<td>AGR/ID/</td>
<td>PHY</td>
<td>PHY</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PHE/</td>
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</tr>
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</table>
### Appendix 19: Teachers’ timetable

**NAME OF TEACHER:** ______________  **SUBJECT:** _______HISTORY______  **NO. OF PERIODS:** 19

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAYS</th>
<th>7.45</th>
<th>8.00</th>
<th>8.10</th>
<th>8.50</th>
<th>9.30</th>
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<th>10.50</th>
<th>11.30</th>
<th>12.00</th>
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<th>1.20</th>
<th>2.00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>OPENING</td>
<td>REGISTRATION</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>TUESDAY</td>
<td>SS2E</td>
<td>SS1E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SS2C</td>
<td>SS2D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEDNESDAY</td>
<td>SS2E</td>
<td>SS2E</td>
<td>SS1C</td>
<td></td>
<td>SS1D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THURSDAY</td>
<td>SS2E</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>SS1D</td>
<td>SS2D</td>
<td>SS1C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRIDAY</td>
<td>SS1C</td>
<td>SS1C</td>
<td></td>
<td>SS1D&amp;C</td>
<td>SS1D&amp;C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEDNESDAY</td>
<td>7.45</td>
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<td>8.05</td>
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<td>9.15</td>
<td>9.50</td>
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<td>11.00</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>8.00</td>
<td>8.05</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td>9.15</td>
<td>9.50</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>12.00</td>
<td>12.30</td>
<td>1.00</td>
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</table>
## Appendix 20: Timetable of SS1 arts and commercial students

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Days</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>6&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>7&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
<th>8&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt; Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>CRR</td>
<td>CRR</td>
<td>INS/LIT</td>
<td>INS/LIT</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>ENG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>TR</td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday</td>
<td>COM/GOV</td>
<td>COM/GOV</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>YFR</td>
<td>TR</td>
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<td>MATH</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
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<td>CRR</td>
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<td>CSC</td>
<td>COM/GOV</td>
<td>COM/GOV</td>
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</table>
Appendix 21: Timetable of SS3 arts

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Days</th>
<th>1st Period</th>
<th>2nd Period</th>
<th>3rd Period</th>
<th>4th Period</th>
<th>5th Period</th>
<th>6th Period</th>
<th>7th Period</th>
<th>8th Period</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monday</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>YFR</td>
<td>GOVT</td>
<td>GOVT</td>
<td>COM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tuesday</td>
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<td>ECO</td>
<td>CRR</td>
<td>CRR</td>
<td>LIT</td>
<td>LIT</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wednesday</td>
<td>GOVT</td>
<td>GOVT</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>ENG</td>
<td>CRR</td>
<td>CRR</td>
<td>TR</td>
<td>TR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>MATH</td>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>CIVIC</td>
<td>TR</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>BIO</td>
<td>BIO</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>YFR</td>
<td>YFR</td>
<td>LIT</td>
<td>LIT</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

CODES:
- FN – Food and nutrition
- YFR – Yoruba/French
- MATH – Mathematics
- AGR – Agricultural science
- CSC – Computer studies
- CRR – Christian religious knowledge/Islamic religious knowledge
- VA – Visual art
- ECO – Economics
- GHS – Government/history
- BKK – Book keeping
- ACC – Accountancy
- CCT – Catering and craft
- GEO – Geography
- PHY – Physics
- COM – Commerce
- FM – Further mathematics
- TR – Trade
- INS/LIT – Insurance/literature
- TD – Technical drawing
- PHE – Physical and health education

Owing to classroom and space constraints, some classes are compressed.

SS1 – 2 A – B are science classes
SS1 C – D – arts
SS1 F – G commercial
SS3
A – science
A – B compressed
B – C – arts
D – commercial