OUTCOMES FROM BUILDING LEADERSHIP CAPACITY IN AN INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL:

A CASE STUDY

Bernadette Patricia Carmody

Dip.Teach., B.Ed., Grad.Dip.Ed Studies., M.A., M.Ed.

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the award of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND

2009

ABSTRACT

This case study explores the school-wide improvement initiative of building leadership capacity undertaken at an international school in Asia. It reports the perspectives of both administrators and teachers as they look back over their experience of the innovation and reflect its outcomes of the innovation. Given the theoretical perspective of social constructionism, no single, stable, fully knowable external reality is assumed. The study is based upon the qualitative data collected by means of questionnaire, interviews and focus groups at a school where the researcher was a principal.

The relationship between sustainable school improvement and building leadership capacity has been receiving significant attention over the last two decades and cannot be ignored by schools wishing to sustain long-term improvement. Improvement initiatives often fail if they are dependent upon a single person or a few people and it is not uncommon for initiatives to flounder with changes in key personnel. The implications of this may be particularly significant in the context of international schools where the rate of turnover in administrative personnel is high and where investigation into ways of building leadership capacity to sustain school improvement initiatives has not yet been undertaken. The researcher investigated what happened in a school as it intentionally focused on the development of teacher leaders as a distinct strategy for building leadership capacity in order to sustain school improvement.

When applying the findings from this specific case to the international school context in the final chapter, key issues related to innovation in international schools emerged. A two part framework was developed to respond to the key issues and to guide the introduction of innovation in international schools. Part One, 'Getting Ready,' considers factors that provide insights into the unique context into which an innovation is to be introduced. Part Two, 'Getting Going' considers factors that help ensure that an innovation continues to produce improvement.

In using the framework to reflect upon innovation in the international school context significant issues were identified and recommendations developed to respond to the issues. Issues and recommendations were made in the following areas: school improvement planning; the persistence of a traditional discourse of leadership; monitoring the impact of an initiative; using financial and human resources effectively and respectfully; recruitment, succession, and induction planning; prioritizing relationship building; and positive

relationships with peers serving as a key motivator for teachers to engage in innovation. The findings contribute to the current body of knowledge on innovation in the international school context and indicate the importance of careful consideration before initiating innovation and consistent attention once having done so. They also provide direction for further discussion, exploration and research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT ii
TABLE OF CONTENTS iv
LIST OF FIGURES vi
LIST OF TABLES vi
LIST OF EXHIBITS vii
DECLARATION OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP ix
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS x
CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION 1
1.1 Overview 1
1.2 The research problem 1
1.3 Purpose of the study 3
1.4 Research focus question 3
1.5 Context for research 4
1.6 Significance of the study 12
1.7 Overview of the structure of the dissertation 13
CHAPTER 2 – A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE 14
2.1 Overview 14
2.2 Organisations 15
2.3 Sustainability of international schools 20
2.4 Leadership 26
2.5 Teachers in professional learning communities 36
2.6 Discourses related to leadership 45
2.7 Organizational context 48
2.8 Motivation 50
2.9 Conclusion 53
CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY 56
3.1 Overview 56
3.2 Research orientation 56
3.3 Research strategy: case study 58
3.4 Design and data collection 59

3.5 Data analysis 69
3.6 Participant-Researcher 76
3.7 Criteria for judging quality 77
3.8 Ethics 82
3.9 Conclusion 82
CHAPTER 4 – DATA PRESENTATION 84
4.1 Introduction 84
4.2 General context 84
4.3 School improvement initiatives 90
4.4 Outcomes of the initiative 112
4.5 Perception of leadership 125
4.6 Impact on the context 134
4.7 Impact on relationships 144
4.8 Prevailing organizational culture 153
4.9 Motivating factors 162
4.10 Conclusion 174
CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSING THE FINDINGS 175
5.1 Introduction 175
5.2 Outcomes of the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders 175
5.2.1 An image of ISA as an organization 175
5.2.2 Building leadership capacity 186
5.2.3 Summary and conclusions – building leadership capacity 204
5.3 Uncovering the reality 207
5.3.1 Discourse related to leadership 207
5.3.2 Impact on the context 212
5.3.3 Impact on relationships 215
5.4 Perceptions of motivation for involvement in the initiative to build leadership capacity 224
CHAPTER 6 – CONCLUDING COMMENTS 240
6.1 Introduction 240
6.2 International school context 240
6.3 Framework for innovations in international schools 240
6.3.1 Part One: Getting ready 241

6.3.2 Prevailing discourses 242
6.3.3 Resource assessment 243
6.3.4 Part Two: Getting going 245
6.4 Significant issues and recommendations 248
6.5 Significance of findings 253
6.6 Limitations of the study 254
6.7 Suggestions for further investigations 255
6.8 Personal Reflection 256
6.9 Final Statement 262
APPENDIXES 263
List of References 294

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Organizational chart at ISA 7
Figure 4.1 ISA enrolment school years 1996-97 through 2008-09 (forecast) 83
Figure 4.2 Elements that influence student learning in renewing schools and classrooms 100

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Leadership capacity matrix 34
Table 2.2 District leadership capacity matrix 35
Table 3.1 Links between research questions, data collection tools and data analysis 60
Table 3.2 Tools for data collection 61
Table 3.3 Number and percentage of questionnaires returned 63
Table 3.4 Members of senior administrative team interviewed 63
Table 3.5 External consultants interviewed 64

Table 3.6 Identified teacher leaders interviewed 65

Table 3.7 Members of teacher leader focus group 66

Table 3.8 Members of administrative team focus group 67

Table 3.9 Starting list of broad categories for data analysis 70

Table 3.10 List of categories and sub-categories which emerged from data analysis 72

Table 3.11 Comparison of terms to judge quality as evidenced in this study 75

Table 3.12 Strategies to establish trustworthiness of findings 76

Table 3.13 Questions related to triangulated reflexive inquiry 77

Table 4.1 Senior administrative team 1997 – 1998 to 2008 – 2009 school years 82

Table 4.2 Long range educational plan 103

Table 4.3 School improvement initiatives in relation to school improvement planning 105

Table 5.1 ISA leadership capacity matrix 183

Table 5.2 Factors that motivate 219

Table 5.3 Factors that motivate – Administrator perception of self 220

Table 5.4 Factors that motivate – Teacher perception of self 220

Table 5.5 Factors that motivate administrators –Administrator perception 224

Table 5.6 Factors that motivate administrators – Teacher perception 224

Table 5.7 Factors that motivate teachers – Administrator perception 225

Table 5.8 Factors that motivate teachers – Teacher perception 226

LIST OF EXHIBITS

Exhibit 4.1 Building Leadership Capacity 88

Exhibit 4.2 Objectives for Developing Leadership Capacity Skills Workshop 89

Exhibit 4.3 Agenda for Leading an Effective Team 90

Exhibit 4.4 Professional Development Committee – Critical Friends Groups 92

Exhibit 4.5 Partnership with Plymouth State University 95

Exhibit 4.6 Core Values and Expected School-wide Learning Results 96

DECLARATION OF ORIGINAL AUTHORSHIP

I certify that the content of this thesis has not been previously submitted for any degree and it is not currently being submitted for any other degree. I also certify that to the best of my knowledge any assistance received in preparing this thesis and all sources used have been acknowledged accordingly.

Bernadette P. Carmody

17 July 2009

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express sincere appreciation to her supervisors, Associate Professor Dorothy Andrews and Dr Marian Lewis for their patient assistance in the preparation of this manuscript. They have been supportive throughout, offering the right blend of challenge and encouragement. Special thanks are also due to Jenine Beekhusen, for her invaluable insights into the workings of the software package, Nvivo 7, to Pacific Solutions for their transcription service, and to Joe Massingham at WRITEPeople for his assistance in the editing process.

The author would also like to thank the many participants who contributed during the data collection phases of the study. She is grateful that so many found time to respond to the questionnaire and provide the basis for the inquiry. She has many fond memories of the exchanges during the interview and focus group phases of the data collection and treasures the insights and perspectives shared.

Most importantly, the author extends heartfelt gratitude to her husband, Arnt, for the resilience he demonstrated throughout the extended period of her dissertation journey. The author is not only very grateful for the encouragement he provided, but also for the many plans he placed 'on hold' while her study desk demanded priority. More than he realizes, his patient acceptance and unwavering support were vital to the author in actually completing her journey.

The author would also like to mention the generous support provided by her Doberman, Cobber. He developed the endearing qualities of finding just the right way to keep her feet warm while curled up beneath her study desk, and of attending to her passionate explanations of difficulties.

This thesis has been edited and proofread in accordance with the agreement between the Deans and Directors of Graduate Studies (DDoGS) and the Institute of Professional Editors (IPEd), formerly the Council of Australian Societies of Editors. None of the persons involved in this editing have any specialist knowledge of the subject matter or any academic qualifications in the discipline in which the author is enrolled.

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

> Over this time, our understanding of leadership has deepened and become more complex. We have learned about the centrality of instructionally focused leadership and the importance of transformationally anchored leadership work. We have also learned that leadership is as much a property of the school and its culture as it is a dimension of administrative roles. The central place of teacher leadership in the school improvement play has been identified (Murphy, 2005, p. vii).

1.1 Overview

This case study report explores the school-wide improvement initiative of building leadership capacity at the International School of ASIA (ISA) a large international school in a dynamic city in Asia. The study concentrates on what happened in the organization as it intentionally focused on the development of teacher leaders as a distinct strategy for school improvement. This first chapter presents the research problem and the purpose of the study, followed by the research focus questions and sub-questions. To provide the context for the research, a brief overview of the school, and a broad description of the administration, the teachers, and the researcher's role in the school is provided. A brief review of the school improvement initiatives in the recent past at the school is also given and is followed by an assessment of the significance of the study. A summary of the structure of the dissertation completes the chapter.

1.2 The research problem

Evidence from school improvement literature indicates that effective leadership has an indirect but powerful influence on schools' capacity to improve (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999). Traditionally, leadership in schools has limited participation to a few people 'at the top' of the hierarchy (Lambert, 2003). All too often, when those 'at the top' move on, improvement efforts initiated by them stop and the followers left behind are discouraged and disappointed (Lambert, 1998). Teachers involved in a series of failed initiatives become more deeply disappointed, more cynical, and more wounded (Lambert, 1998).

For international schools the phenomenon of failed initiatives leading to disappointment and cynicism is even more significant. Given a comparatively high rate of turnover of members of the administration in international schools as compared to members of the administration in national schools, school improvement initiatives in international schools are more vulnerable (Hayden & Thompson, 2006). If building leadership capacity can sustain school improvement initiatives in schools in general (Murphy, 2005) building leadership capacity in international schools may balance the effects of the comparative high rate of turnover of members of the administration (Lambert, 2003).

Research on effective organizations suggests that organizations need to become "leaderful" (Raelin, 2003, p. 4). Focusing on the development of teacher leaders shifts attention from the traditional single person, role-oriented perspective of leadership to a broader perspective of leadership as an organizational property shared or distributed among administrators, teachers, and others (Smylie & Hart, 1999). Murphy (2005) notes that teachers assuming increasing amounts of leadership in the schools at which they work has been a significant theme in school improvement for the past 20 years. Lambert (2003) maintains that high leadership capacity sustains school improvement, and that teacher leadership capacity is the essence of creating high leadership capacity schools. Central administration at the International School of Asia (ISA) acknowledges this concept. The researcher is a member of the central administration at ISA and her role in the central administration is detailed later in the chapter when describing the context for the research. As researcher and member of the central administration, the researcher was critically aware of her proximity to the subject of the research and the difficulties integral to this kind of situation (Merriam, 1998). Approaches to managing the proximity are discussed in Chapter 3.

Building Leadership Capacity was one of the School Improvement Initiatives launched at the beginning of the 2006-07 school year (ISA, 2006). As a distinct strategy, the initiative intentionally focused on teacher leadership as it was seen as crucial to building leadership capacity, which would in turn sustain improvement that would take the school towards its five-year vision. If ISA was to accomplish its five-year vision, commitment to engaging teachers in various leadership roles within the school was seen as vital (ISA, 2006). The school made a commitment to "support and train teachers in order to build leadership capacity of the organization and to focus the majority of our leadership energies on student learning" (ISA, 2006, p. 3).

As the initiative to build leadership capacity progressed, it was anticipated that discourses related to leadership in the school would inevitably be influenced. A discourse is a framework of ideas or a coherent set of concepts that frame a way of looking at the world as a way of understanding, or as a way to make sense of the world (Patton, 2002). The intention to develop teacher leaders implies the need to question, challenge, and change previously understood approaches to and discourses related to leadership. This implies that discourses related to leadership from a range of perspectives will necessarily change.

Further, as the initiative to build leadership capacity progressed, the administration anticipated that the organizational context of ISA and the working relationships within ISA also would be impacted. Operationalizing teacher leadership requires attention to organizational context (Conley, 1997), and implies substantially different working relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators (Smylie & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992). It was believed by the administration that as a result of the initiative, the organizational dynamics and relationships would change to create new possibilities within the organization.

Murphy (2005) states his surprise that "systematic exploration of the motivations of those seeking and/or accepting teacher leadership roles and functions is nearly conspicuous by its absence from the literature in this area" (p. 66). Teacher leader motivation needs to be explored so that schools can foster these motivating factors to attract and sustain teacher leader involvement in school improvement. Correspondingly, without an understanding of what motivates administrators to take on and support this initiative, there is little chance of sustaining their support for the initiative, and consequently little chance of the initiative being successful (Murphy, 2005).

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to describe the outcomes experienced at an international school that undertakes an initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders. Outcomes for the organization will be described in relation to discourse about leadership, organizational context and relationships, and consideration will be given to factors that motivate administrators and teacher leaders to be involved in the initiative.

1.4 Research focus question

Given the purpose of the study, the following question provides the focus for the research and summarizes the research problem:

> What happens in an international school when the school intentionally seeks to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, and how does this influence discourse about leadership in the school?

Three questions form a framework to support the focus question;

1. How do discourses related to leadership change from a range of perspectives?
2. What impact does the initiative have on the context of and relationships within the organization as a whole?
3. What motivates administrators and teacher leaders to become and remain part of the initiative, and thus sustain it?

1.5 Context for research

Brief overview of the school

International School of Asia (ISA) is an independent, non-profit, English-language, coeducational day school for children of expatriate families. The school is located in a large city in Asia and is sponsored by a consulate. ISA offers pre-kindergarten to grade 12 curriculums, with classes in the Elementary School division from pre-kindergarten through grade five, the Middle School division from grade six to grade eight, and the High School division from grade nine to grade twelve. The curriculum has a specific national orientation toward the sponsor country. The school operates on two campuses within the city, and each campus consists of three divisions: Elementary, Middle, and High School. Class size is limited to 16 students in lower elementary classes and 18 students throughout the remainder of the school.

The ISA Association of Parents, to which every parent of a student at ISA automatically belongs, owns and manages the school. The school is governed by a seven member Board of Directors (BOD) of which five members are elected from and by the parents of the school, one is a representative of the consulate which sponsors the school, and one is appointed at the decision of the other members. Members serve a two year term and may run again for election if they so choose. Members decide on who will serve in the roles of Chair, Vice Chair, Treasurer, and Secretary. The role of the Board of Directors is strategic in

nature. The Board sets policy to establish parameters and guidance for the Director who they appoint to oversee the day-to-day management of the school. For the ten years prior to the school year in which the data were collected, eight different chairpersons served on the ISA Board of Directors. In general, members of the Board of Directors turnover every two years, after serving the two year term for which they were elected.

The school is accredited by the Western Association of Schools and Colleges (WASC) Accrediting Commission for Schools. Accreditation through this Commission serves several key purposes. Most significantly, this certifies to the public that ISA is a trustworthy institution that provides high quality learning opportunities. It also validates the integrity of ISA's curriculum and student transcripts, and confirms that ISA undertakes continual self-analysis as a means of school improvement. WASC accreditation is based on a six-year accreditation cycle, with a full Self-Study visit occurring every six years. For ISA, the Self-Study visit occurred in October of the 2008-2009 school year. Hence, preparations for the visit were undertaken during the 2007-2008 school year, the year in which the data were collected for this study (http://www.acswasc.org/about_overview.htm 24 June 2008).

The school is a member of a regional council for international schools which consists of approximately 100 schools. Two key aims of the council are to promote connections between member schools, and enhance the professional development and welfare of individuals who work at the member schools. The council holds an annual conference and funds weekend workshops and conferences, throughout the region during the course of the school year to provide professional development for schools within the region. These events are key professional development opportunities for administrators and teachers at ISA.

In the last ten years, enrolments have grown from 1,080 to 2,890. Noting that the school year begins in August and ends in June, in the five years from the 1998-1999 school year to the 2002-2003 school year, average enrolment grew from 1,080 to 1,725. In the following five years from the 2003-2004 school year to the 2007-2008 school year, average enrolment grew from 1900 to 2,890. The target capacity for the school is approximately 3,600 with 1800 students on each of the two campuses. Faculties and facilities on both campuses have expanded to cater for the growth of enrolment.

The ISA community is large and diverse. The school caters for the expatriate community in the city, and students come from more than 40 countries, as categorized by passport presented for enrolment purposes. Children holding passports of the country in which the

school is located do not attend the school. Current calculations indicate that a student's average stay at ISA is 4.5 years.

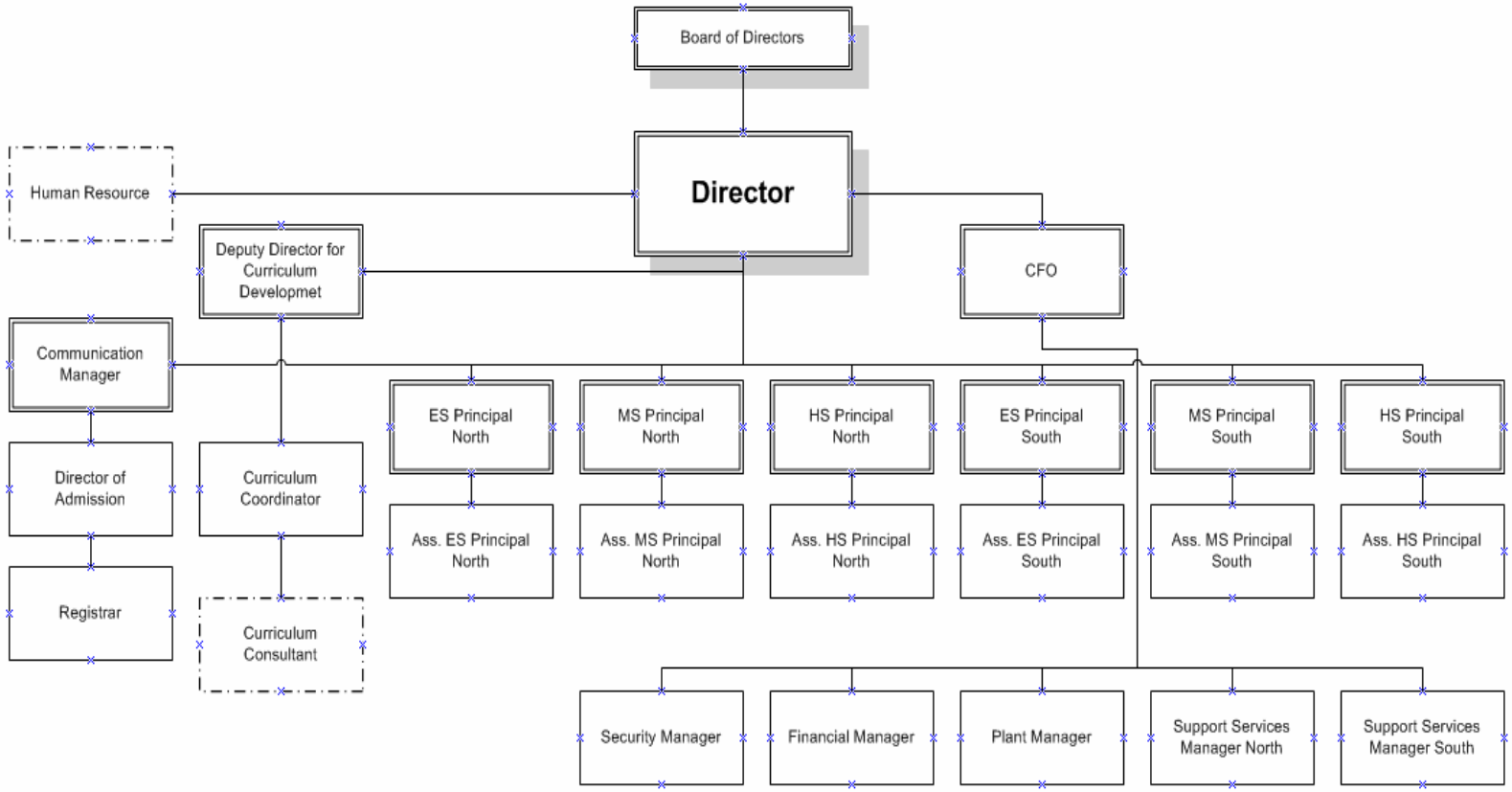
The administration

Over the last decade, the Administrative Team has undergone significant change in both structure and composition. From the beginning of the 1998-1999 school year to the end of the 2007-2008 school year, the Administrative Team increased from seven members to 11 members.

The Central Administrative Team is a sub-section of the Administrative Team. The Central Administrative Team consists of the Director, Deputy Director, and Curriculum Coordinator. A Curriculum Consultant was engaged at the beginning of the 2007 – 2008 school year to provide support to the Central Administrative Team. However, the Consultant is not formally a member of the Central Administrative Team. Figure 1.1 shows a diagram of the organizational chart at ISA for the 2008-2009 school year.

A high rate of change in key administrative personnel is characteristic of international schools. For example, Hawley (1995) reports from his ten year study that international school heads remain, on average, only 2.8 years in a given position. In the last ten years, there have been three different Directors at ISA, with changes taking place in the 1999-2000 and 2005-2006 school years. In addition, in nine of the ten years at least one key member of the administrative team has changed. In four of the ten years, five or more members have changed. Further, the configuration of the Administrative Team has changed nine out of the ten years. For example, in some years there have been the positions of Deputy Director, Curriculum Coordinator, and Director of Development and in other years not.

Figure 1.1 Organizational chart at ISA



The teachers

While the majority of the approximately 370 teachers come from the United States or Canada, 17 countries are represented. Approximately 60% of the teachers hold a Master's degree. The rate of turnover for teachers averages approximately four years. However, this figure is affected by the rapid growth in enrolment in the recent past. For example, 93 new teachers were hired for 2007-2008 school year and it was estimated that, for the 2007-2008 school year, approximately 45% of the faculty had less than two years service at ISA.

The researcher

Prior to working at ISA, the researcher has taught in a range of international school settings for varied lengths of time. In addition to five years teaching in Australia, the researcher worked in Sri Lanka, Liberia, Norway, and Venezuela for three, one, eight, and two years respectively.

The researcher was employed by ISA through a recruitment agency for the 1999-2000 school year. She was hired in February of the previous school year by the Assistant Director who was at that time in the last six months of his tenure at the school. For the first two years at the school, she was the International Baccalaureate Diploma Coordinator, and Assistant Principal at one of the High School divisions. For the remaining years, she has been Principal at one of the Middle School divisions. This was the researcher's first principal position. While the researcher had attained the relevant academic credential necessary to be appointed to the position, much of her understanding of leadership and change in schools developed within the context of ISA as a member of the central administrative team.

Over her years as a principal at ISA, the researcher has had divisional responsibility for supervision of faculty and staff along with budgetary and financial responsibilities. In the 2007-2008 school year, she supervised 47 faculty members, including two counsellors and a librarian, along with seven teacher assistants, and four office assistants. During that school year, the division consisted of approximately 440 students, divided rather evenly across the three grade levels of the division, Grade Six, Grade Seven and Grade Eight.

The researcher has enjoyed the growth and dynamic changes that the Middle School division has undergone. As Principal, she has endeavoured to implement division specific and school-wide improvement initiatives in line with the overall priorities of the school. Priorities for divisional improvement initiatives where developed jointly with members of

the middle school faculty. For example divisionally, when appointed to the position of Principal in March 2001 for the 2001-2002 school year, the researcher was given the mandate of making the division for which she was responsible 'more like a middle school'. Guided by faculty input and informed by research and best practice in middle level education, joint priority setting was undertaken and areas for change were prioritized. Over the years these efforts have led to features within the division characteristic of an educational setting designed to best meet the developmental needs of early adolescents, including a student-centred advisory program, the use of a flexible block schedule, an interdisciplinary team approach, and an emphasis on a safe and healthy school environment (Jackson & Davis, 2000).

The researcher contributed to school-wide improvement initiatives according to her responsibilities as a divisional principal. For example, a school-wide improvement initiative in which divisional principals were involved related to a desire to change the organizational culture of the school. In December 2003, the Board of Directors adopted a strategic vision for the entire school as its first priority that ISA would have "… a constructive culture, in which helping people reach their full potential is our product, and our primary resource is people working with each other toward common goals" (BOD, 2003, p. 1).

The term 'constructive culture' was first introduced to ISA in September 2002, by an external consultant, Dr Sherry Schiller. Divisional principals were expected to work toward creating a constructive culture within their divisions. To accomplish this, an external consultant introduced a 'culture change' process identified by Human Synergistics (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989). The process involved measuring the actual cultural profile for the organization and matching it against the ideal, constructive cultural profile as identified by members of the organization. Assessing the gap between the actual and the ideal cultures allowed detailed planning to identify which behavioural norms needed increased or decreased attention by members of the organization in order to change the culture.

The initial measurement done in February 2004 indicated that the culture in the middle school division where the researcher was principal was predominantly passive / defensive rather than constructive. The passive / defensive culture was characterized by an unduly strong orientation toward 'people' as opposed to 'tasks', fuelled by and reinforcing individual security (Cooke & Lafferty, 1989). The measurement also indicated that levels of satisfaction were low amongst the divisional members.

In July 2004, the researcher undertook specific training with Human Synergistics to develop her understanding of organizational culture and the effect that leadership style had on organizational culture. From August 2004 when the school year began, time and attention were regularly extended to the focus of developing a constructive culture within the division. In April 2005, approximately 14 months after the initial measurement, a second assessment of the culture was undertaken following the same process. The second measurement indicated that the actual culture was predominantly constructive, reflecting "a healthy balance of 'people' and 'task' related concerns and promoting the fulfilment of higher order needs" (Cooke, 2004, p. 80). Additionally, the measurement indicated that levels of satisfaction had increased amongst the divisional members. This represented a significant accomplishment for the members of the division and for the researcher in her role as principal.

However, with the change of Director in the 2005-2006 school year, the initiative to focus on the culture of the school was not continued. Hence, funding for the use of Human Synergistics resources was no longer available. Regardless, the researcher has maintained a conscious focus on culture within the middle school division. For example, orientation for members of faculty new to the middle school includes a review of the process undertaken to identify and change the divisional culture, and annually faculty engages in a process of some kind to reflect upon the culture within the division.

Brief review of school improvement planning at ISA

School improvement plans have typically been linked to attainment of the school vision. It is significant to note that records kept by the Board of Directors show that the first vision statement for the school was written in December 1999, and then re-written in June 2000, December 2002, April 2005, and May 2006 (BOD, 2008). The creation of the vision statement in December 1999 coincided with the appointment of a new Director who began at the school in August 1999, and the re-writing in May 2006 coincided with the appointment of the next Director who began at the school in August 2005 at the beginning of the 2005-2006 school year. As a divisional principal, the researcher participated in each of the process involving the rewriting of the vision statements for the school.

The change of Director in the 2005-2006 school year influenced the school improvement plans. Only four of the ten strategic objectives established by the previous Director were reflected in the school improvement initiatives for the 2006-2007 school year (ISA, 2006). In addition to the four areas carried over from the previous administration, eleven additional

initiatives were undertaken (ISA, 2006). In the researcher's memory of ISA, this is the largest number of initiatives undertaken at any one time.

As stated, one of the initiatives not continued was the initiative to focus on the culture of the school. In separate workshop settings in September 2002, Dr Schiller interacted with members of the administrative team and with members of the Board of Directors. She helped each group reflect upon the organizational culture of the group itself and of the school as a whole. She focused much of her energy on developing shared understanding of the behaviours that exist in all healthy organizations, regardless of industry, size, or other variables that give evidence to their constructive cultures (Schiller, 2002). Simply stated, Dr Schiller maintained that in organizations with constructive cultures, it was expected that people work together toward common goals and that they were supported and valued for their contributions, while in organizations with cultures that were not constructive, it was expected that people compete for attention and resources and /or blend in, follow orders, and avoid making waves (Schiller, 2002). Dr Schiller continued to work with ISA in a variety of ways throughout the 2002-2003, 2003-2004 and 2004-2005 school years, focusing attention on the perceived need to help the organization build a consistent constructive culture. This need was further acknowledged by the WASC accreditation team during their visit in 2003-2004 school year. One of the key recommendations of the visiting team was that ISA continue its focus on the development of a constructive culture (WASC, 2003).

One of the initiatives identified for commencement in August at the beginning of the 2006-2007 school year was the initiative about Building Leadership Capacity (ISA, 2006). Three consultants where engaged in the initiative. Dr Paul Rusty, Former President of the National Association of Independent Schools was the Scholar-in-Residence at the school for an extended period during the 2006-2007 school year (ISA, 2006). Daisy Jones, Director of the Academy of International School Heads, offered a day-long training on a Saturday in September 2006 for all formal teacher leaders in the school. The agenda for the day was divided into three key sections: understanding teams in the Professional Learning Community, the role of department or grade level leader or committee or task force leader, and understanding individual leadership styles. Dr Faye Henton, National Facilitator, National School Reform Faculty, worked to establish professional learning communities in the form of Critical Friends Groups (CFGs). Dr Henton visited the school in September 2006 to begin training the administration and with a volunteer group of teachers from across the school. As explained by her, the theory of change behind CFG work is that since the skills of

professional community are minimally supported in schools, they must be intentionally learned. Dr Henton described those skills as the ability to collaborate, to reflect in public, to be transparent about practice, to build shared understanding of important norms and values, and to focus on student learning. Over time through the intentional use of structures and protocols participants internalize the processes and extend them to affect more general school culture (Bambino, 2002).

1.6 Significance of the study

The findings from this study contribute significantly to the existing body of research related to international schooling in four key areas which research is yet to explore:

- Ways of building leadership capacity to sustain school improvement initiatives in international schools,
- What actually happens in an international school that intentionally embarks upon the process of building leadership capacity,
- What motivating factors attract and sustain teacher leader involvement and administrator involvement in building leadership capacity,
- What framework should guide initiation and enactment of innovations in an international school context.

Given the high rate of turnover of members of the administration in international schools, building leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders is a significant means of sustaining school improvement initiatives (Lambert, 2003). Despite this significance, the researcher is unable to identify any investigation of ways to build leadership capacity to sustain school improvement initiatives in international schools. Given the pending change of Director, Curriculum Coordinator, Director of Development, Communications, and Marketing, and two principals for the 2009-2010 school year, the outcomes of the study have heightened relevance for the ISA community.

As teachers represent the most stable group of adults and the most politically powerful in schools (Lambert, 2003), their contributions to leadership capacity need to be clearly understood. However, research is yet to explore what actually happens in an international school that intentionally embarks upon the process of building leadership capacity, including consideration of discourse about leadership, organizational context, and

relationships. Accessing and developing an understanding of what happened at ISA is a means of understanding what may happen in other contexts.

Teacher leaders' motivation and administrators' motivation for involvement in the initiative to build leadership capacity needs to be explored so that international schools can foster these motivating factors to attract and sustain involvement in support for such an initiative.

Additionally, a framework to be used when getting started with and when enacting innovations in an international school context needs to be developed. Multiple holistic recommendations responding to key issues related to innovation in international schools are needed to enhance the possibilities of sustainability of initiatives in international schools.

1.7 Overview of the structure of the dissertation

Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 reviews the literature that is relevant to the study. It considers literature in the fields of theories of organization, sustainability within the international school context, leadership, teachers in professional learning communities, developing teacher leaders, discourses related to leadership, organizational context, and motivation for developing teacher leadership.

Chapter 3 provides details of the methodology used in the study, including the processes and techniques involved in the collection and analysis of the data. The findings that emerged from the data collected are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 describes the analysis and interpretation of the data. Chapter 6 identifies key issues related to innovation in international schools, and makes holistic recommendations to address these issues. The chapter also contains discussions of the significance of the findings, limitations of the study, suggestions for further investigations, and a reflection of the researcher's personal growth during the engagement in this study.

CHAPTER 2 – A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Overview

This study investigates what happened in an international school when the school launched an innovation to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leadership. This literature review informs and supports the study. The sections of the review are interrelated in multiple ways. Firstly, a review of theories of organization is carried out, highlighting the importance of metaphorical thinking in the development of a multi-paradigm view of organizations. This section provides the foundation for all other sections.

The second section considers sustainability in international schools, paying particular attention to the special nature of international schools. Gaps in the literature regarding sustainability in innovations in the international school context have been identified. This suggests that this study contributes significantly to the literature in this area.

The third section explores literature related to leadership within organizations, focusing on four relevant aspects within that literature that relate directly to this study: power and influence, leadership and change, contemporary views of leadership and leadership capacity. The concept of teachers in professional communities is then considered, paying attention to the potential roles that learning and reflection may play within such communities. A sub-section focusing on developing teacher leaders follows. This provides insight into definitions of teacher leadership as well as into possible development of teacher leadership and the relationship between teacher leadership and school improvement.

The final three sections of the review correspond to the three sub-questions which provide the focus for the research. Discourses related to leadership are considered. Organizational context is reviewed, giving attention to relationships and culture within that context. Lastly, motivation for participation in improvement initiatives is examined.

2.2 Organisations

Theories of organization

Theories of organization provide a basis for understanding what happened at ISA when the organization intentionally sought to bring about change through building leadership capacity, and help to explain various outcomes of the initiative.

Theories aim to explain phenomena and complex problems in a systematic way and range from simple generalizations to complex sets of laws (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Owens & Valesky, 2007). Organizations are "… consciously coordinated social units, composed of two or more people that function on a relatively continuous basis to achieve a common goal or set of goals" (Robbins, Millett, & Waters-Marsh, 2004, p. 4). When theories are applied to organizations, they provide a means to describe and explain what is happening, to predict outcomes for the future given certain circumstances, to control events under given circumstances (Owens & Valesky, 2007), and to guide the further development of knowledge (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). The researcher recognizes the value of having a systematic body of knowledge on which to base assumptions about the nature of an organization and the behavior of people within the organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Further, she recognizes the importance of the use of theory in organizational analysis to reflective practice (Hoy & Miskel, 1996).

There are both traditional and contemporary approaches to theories of organizations. Typically, two main traditional approaches to theories of organization are represented in the literature: classical or bureaucratic, and human relations (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Morgan, 1997; Owens & Valesky, 2007; Hoy & Miskel, 1996). Classical or bureaucratic theory views organizations as characterized by hierarchy, top-down centralized decision making, emphasis on rules and regulations, and impersonality in human interactions (Owens & Valesky, 2007). This classical, traditional view is rooted in concepts of scientific management developed in the 1890s when Frederick Taylor sought ways to use people effectively in industrial organizations, believing that individuals could be programmed to be efficient machines (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Hoy & Miskel, 1996). In endeavoring to make work more rational and efficient, work processes were described and results measured (Evans, 1996). While Taylor's original concepts have been softened and adapted, modern management still reflects their highly rational, structured, command-and-control mindset (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Evans, 1996). Focus moved from Taylor's preoccupation with the

individual worker to give attention to the total organization, viewing it as a complex web of social relationships and interdependencies and placing more emphasis on motivation beyond monetary reward (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Other organizational issues such as division of labor, organizational hierarchy and power, and defined lines of authority were focused upon (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Classical or bureaucratic theory contrasts with human relations theory that emphasizes the prime importance of the conscious thinking of persons in the organization, of their abilities, and of their socialization to the values and purposes of the organization as a basis for coordination and motivation (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Hoy & Miskel, 1996). The contrast tempers the classical or bureaucratic concentration on organizational structure with an emphasis on employee motivation and satisfaction and group morale (Hoy & Miskel, 1996). The culture of the organization is seen to clarify the organization's values, beliefs, and goals, and provides ways for individuals within the organization to identify with the culture, building motivation from personal identification with it (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

While a complete discussion of contemporary theory of organization is beyond the scope of this review, attention is drawn to the metaphorical basis of organization theory investigated by Morgan (1997) as this basis has been applied throughout the study. In responding to the question, "What is an organization?" Morgan (www.imaginiz.com, April 2009) explains that the way we define what an organization is, is going to determine how we observe and understand it, and he clearly distinguishes between the ontological and the epistemological perspectives to the answer. From an ontological perspective organizations exist as real entities and have quasi "objective" characteristics. However, from an epistemological perspective, organizations have no presence beyond that of the people who bring them to life (Morgan, www.imaginiz.com, April 2009). Morgan (www.imaginiz.com, April 2009) maintains that knowing what organizations are can only be accessed subjectively through the images, frames and perspectives we, as human beings, bring to our study of them (Morgan, www.imaginiz.com, April 2009).

Morgan (1997) explains that the concept of organization is a product of the mechanical age and new organizing principles are needed to make the transition to, and meet the challenges of, the electronic age. He maintains that all theories of organization and management are based on implicit images or metaphors that influence how people see, understand, and manage situations in particular ways (Morgan, 1997). Morgan (1997) maintains that there is no single authoritative position from which organizations can be

viewed, and that there is no single theory, metaphor or paradigm that will provide a "… perfect or all-purpose point of view" (p. 5) of an organization or situation, and that there is no simple "correct theory" for structuring everything we do (Morgan, www.imaginiz.com, April 2009). Given that organizational life is so complex and ambiguous, Morgan (1997) advocates a multi-paradigm or pluralist approach to theories of organization.

To gain a full appreciation of Morgan's work, an understanding of metaphor is essential as a basis for understanding his perspective. The following section clarifies the conceptual nature of metaphor to provide a perspective from which to appreciate the explanation of the multi-paradigm or pluralist approach developed in the subsequent section.

Metaphorical thinking

From the time of Aristotle, literature has explored the impact of metaphor on the way people think, on the way they use language, and on systems of scientific and everyday knowledge (Morgan, 1997). It was not until the twentieth-century, however, when some philosophers emphasized language and other modes of symbolism in reality construction that the concept gained in importance. Metaphor is generally understood to be characteristic of language alone, and a matter of words rather than thought or action (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). However, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) suggest that the human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined, and that this conceptual system plays a central role in defining our everyday realities, including what we perceive, how we get around, and how we relate to people. In short, our daily thoughts, actions and experiences are a matter of metaphor.

Morgan (1997) supports the notion that metaphor is not simply a matter of words and contends that metaphor implies "a way of thinking and a way of seeing" (p. 4) that permeates how people generally understand the world around them, and consequently how they assess the wide and varied range of action possibilities available to them. Similarly, Bowers (1993) explains that all human thinking is both cultural and metaphorical in essence. When applied to organizations and management, Morgan (1997) maintains that metaphor can be used to help in understanding and exploring theories of organization and management, and in viewing and understanding situations in fresh, new ways. This generative function, the inherent potential to create new ways of seeing the world, is the most often discussed feature of metaphor (Tietze, Cohen & Musson, 2003).

Two important aspects of metaphor influence its application to organization and management. Firstly, metaphors frame understanding in distinctive yet partial ways, by emphasizing certain aspects but ignoring or hiding differences between the entities compared (Morgan, 1997; Tietze, Cohen, & Musson, 2003). Secondly, metaphors stretch the imagination to develop powerful insights, but also always create distortions or constraints (Morgan, 1997; Tietze, Cohen, & Musson, 2003). In maintaining that all theories of organization and management are based on metaphors, these two aspects of metaphor are highly significant as they imply that any theory, metaphor or paradigm brought to the study of organization and management, "… while capable of providing valuable insights, is also incomplete, biased, and potentially misleading" (Morgan, 1997, p. 5). Because of this, the importance of gathering multiple perspectives through a multi-paradigm approach is emphasized.

A multi-paradigm approach to organization

The importance of looking at things from more than one perspective is echoed in the work of others. For example, Bolman and Deal (2002) emphasize that the best leaders in schools use multiple frames or lenses to offer different perspectives on challenges. They identify three advantages to using multiple frames:

1. Each can be coherent, focused, and powerful;
2. The collection can be more comprehensive that any single one;
3. Only when you have multiple frames can you reframe, that is, find a new way to handle a situation.

Similarly, contingency theory rests on the concept that no single approach to organization and administration is superior to all others in all cases; therefore, the best approach is contingent upon variable factors in the context of the situation (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996). New ways of analyzing the critical variables in a given situation are available before selecting an organizational design or administrative style appropriate to the situation (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

The creative, responsive nature of adopting multiple perspectives is evident. For Morgan (1997) metaphors provide the potential for seeing, understanding, interpreting and shaping situations to be organized and managed in fresh ways. They allow for a range of complementary and competing insights to be generated, building on the strengths of different points of view and allowing individuals to develop and take their own positions

(Morgan, 1997). For Bolman and Deal (2002), the use of frames helps people see what they once overlooked and helps them determine what is really happening around them. Further, frames allow people to see new possibilities and to become more versatile and effective in their responses (Bolman & Deal, 2002). Contingency Theory provides new ways of analyzing the interrelationships within and among the interacting parts of the organizational system, so that a systematic understanding of the dynamics can be gained in order to diagnose or analyze the specific situation that exists (Owens & Valesky, 2007; Morgan, 1997).

This kind of creative responsiveness has a significant advantage given the complexities of the current changing world. Tolerance and comfort in dealing with competing and diverse viewpoints and perspectives is developed, which is an essential way of thinking for "… understanding, managing, and designing organizations in a changing world" (Morgan, 1997, p. 8). Focusing on a fluid perspective and applying fluid frameworks to challenges and problems contrasts with the fixed perspective and application of fixed frameworks often promoted by traditional theories of organization (Morgan, 1997).

Tietze, Cohen, and Musson (2003) emphasize that Morgan (1997) goes further and views images and metaphors as more than interpretive constructs, explaining that he highlights their potential in the active construction of organizational worlds. For Morgan (1997), organization is essentially a creative process of 'imaginization'; through creative images that allow individuals to act in new ways, it is possible to rethink almost every aspect of organization and management including organizational structure, strategy, and change, to revitalize and reform and create new ways of understanding organization. He cautions, however, that it is impossible to 'imaginize' and develop new styles of organization and management while continuing to think in old ways (Morgan, www.imaginiz.com, April 2009).

Theories of organization help to systematically explain phenomena and complex problems by providing means for describing and explaining what is happening within an organization as well as for predicting outcomes and controlling events. The two main traditional approaches to theories of organization are classical or bureaucratic, and human relations theories. Morgan's investigations into organizations resulted in his a metaphorical basis of contemporary organization theory, and a multi-paradigm or pluralist approach to theories of organization (1997). These aspects of Morgan's work are applied throughout the study, providing a means of analysis and reflective practice.

2.3 Sustainability of international schools

This section examines the concept of sustainability of international schools. While attention is given to the concept of sustainability in general, because the context for the study is an international school, particular attention is paid to the nature of international schools.

Improvement efforts often fail, if they are dependent on a single person or few people, and it is not uncommon for the momentum, energy, and commitment to reform to be lost with a change in key personnel, especially if incoming personnel have different priorities and mandate new directions (Lambert, 1998). Similarly, Mintzberg (as cited in Fullan, 2001a, p. 134) stresses that improvement cannot be based on "… a great new chief executive on a great white horse … because as soon as that person rides out, the whole thing collapses unless somebody can do it again." Graetz, Rimmer, Lawrence and Smith (2006) echo this concern stating that companies often stumble when strong leaders depart, leaving behind a leadership vacuum. Fullan (2001a) and DuFour, Dufour, Eaker and Many (2006) maintain that the ultimate leadership contribution is to develop leaders in the organization who can move the organization further forward, even after the leader has left the organization. Threats to the sustainability of school improvement initiatives due to turnover of key personnel have particular significance to international schools. To gain a clearer understanding of the threat to maintaining improvement initiatives in an international school context, it is appropriate to consider the nature of international schools.

The nature of international schools

The term 'international school' incorporates a wide range of "… disparate approaches and institutions" that are largely market driven and based upon community expectations (Richards, 1998, pp. 173-175). At the time of writing (March 2009), there were approximately 5,200 international schools in 236 countries (ISC Research, 2009). In 1995, there were an estimated 1,000 such schools (Hayden & Thompson, 1998b). In developing rapidly to keep pace with the growing numbers of global workers (Lauder, 2007), international schools now represent a global, multi-billion dollar industry (MacDonald, 2006). Lauder (2007) notes that we are only at the start of the present round of globalization with its new set of emerging educational, social and economic conditions, and that the nature of the demand for global workers is also changing. Hayden (2006) suggests that the number of international schools may continue to increase due to the developing

global economy leading to increased numbers of multi-national organizations with associated increased numbers of employees moving around the world with their families.

Due in part to the vast increase in numbers of international schools, the growth has been relatively ad hoc, and as a result, there is little shared philosophy and little consensus about what constitutes an international school and the relationship between the schools themselves (Hayden, 2006). Compared with national schools, international schools face some unique issues. These include, for example, the variety of higher education destinations of the student populations, the nature of the curriculum, the transience of the student and teacher populations (Hayden, 1998), and the influence of both teachers and students as being raised as 'third culture kids' (Fail, 2007, p. 103).

Investigation into the integration of school and local culture in international schools has uncovered that integration of the local culture into the school's culture is rare, with links between the local community and the school tenuous or non-existent (Hayden, 2006). International schools, particularly those like ISA to which students from the host nation are not admitted, were revealed to generate similar recognizable 'Western-centric' organizational cultures regardless of geographical location (Blandford & Shaw, 2001a, p. 16).

While there are no formal links amongst international schools across the world, there are several associations aimed at catering for the needs of international schools to which schools in particular regions may choose to belong (Hayden, 1998). A full examination of the issues faced by international schools is beyond the scope of this literature review, but insights are provided into aspects of the international schools context that are relevant to this study. Consideration is given to the diversity of international schools, and to the comparatively high rate of turnover of personnel which in turn influences succession planning, recruitment and induction, relationship building, and policy churn.

Diversity in international schools

Hayden (2006) argues that the huge diversity of schools and the absence of a central body overseeing the schools means there is little value in attempting to categorize international schools as a means of helping define them. However, listing characteristics of international schools that would match them to one category rather than another is useful in highlighting the diversity of schools to which the term 'international school' can be applied (Hayden, 2006). Broadly speaking, the term identifies schools that provide an English-medium

education in cities around the world for children of international organizations and multinational companies whose parents work in many different countries and change their assignment at frequent intervals (Murphy, 1991).

International schools vary widely in design and intent and diversity exists in a range of features relevant to international schools (Hayden, 2006). For example, while international schools are generally independent, with their own mission, vision, policies and procedures, some international schools exist as part of a conglomerate of schools scattered around the globe (Sylvester, 1998). Some are strictly non-profit, sponsored by consulates or foundations, for example, while others are established specifically with the intention of making a profit (Hayden, 2006). Whilst the governance of some schools is provided for by a Board of Directors or Trustees elected from and by the parents of the school, governance is provided in other schools through boards that are appointed in a self-perpetuating manner, or through boards that consist of a combination of appointed and elected members (Blandford & Shaw, 2001b). Both coeducational and single sex schools exist (Hayden, 2006). While most are day schools, some provide partial or full boarding facilities for students (Hayden, 2006). Whereas some schools enroll children of expatriate families only, others also allow a pre-determined percentage of children from the nation in which the school is located to enroll (Hayden, 2006). Although many schools are focused on a specific national orientation, for example, American, Australian, British, or Canadian, some deliberately aim to provide students with an international perspective (Hayden & Thompson, 2000b). Many international schools are English-language orientated, but some offer bilingual educational experiences (Hayden & Thompson, 2000b).

Diversity is also reflected in the size and scope of international schools. The Council of International Schools, International Schools Services, and the European Council of International Schools collect data related to international schools. The data show that international schools range in size from catering for 4,000 students at one end of the continuum to catering for 50 students at the other (www.cois.org, April 2009; www.iss.edu, April 2009; www.ecis.org, April 2009). The data also show that while it is not unusual for the scope of curriculum offered to range from pre-kindergarten to grade 12, it may not necessarily cover this full range, with some international schools choosing, for example, to offer only elementary curriculum from pre-kindergarten to grade 5 or secondary curriculum from grade 6 to grade 12 (www.cois.org, April 2009; www.iss.edu, April 2009; www.ecis.org, April 2009). Similarly, it is not unusual for an international school to operate

on multiple campuses. Most frequently, different divisions would be housed on different campuses, for example, with elementary in one location and secondary in another (www.cois.org, April 2009; www.iss.edu, April 2009; www.ecis.org, April 2009).

The extent of the diversity within international schools should raise awareness that the experience gained in the context of one international school may not have direct relevance to or be directly transferable to another international school (Hayden, 2006). This has significance given the rates of turnover in international schools. The next section explores the dynamics associated with rates of turnover in international schools.

Rates of turnover in international schools

Regardless of design, intent, size, or scope, high rates of turnover of members of the school community are characteristic of international schools in general. High rates of turnover are evident for members of Boards of Directors, administrators, teachers and students, and are key contributors to instability within international schools (Cambridge, 1998; Hayden, 2006). Hawley (1995) reports from his ten year study that international school heads remain, on average, only 2.8 years in a given position. Matthews (1989) reports that on average, students remain less than three years at an international school. Overall, this type of turnover inevitably and consistently offers a challenge to the continuity and sustainability of innovations (Voke, 2003) and school improvement in international schools.

Given that the total time frame for initiation, implementation and institutionalization of educational change is three to five years for moderately complex change and five to ten years for larger scale efforts (Fullan, 2001b), it is unlikely that the Chairperson of the Board of Directors, a member of the Board of Directors, an administrator or a teacher involved in the conceptualization or initiation of innovation at an international school will be at the school to see the innovation institutionalized (Welton, 2001). As already noted, it is not uncommon for the momentum, energy, and commitment to an improvement initiative or innovation to be lost with a change in key personnel (Lambert, 1998). Those leaving their roles within the school take with them their insights and shared understandings around the innovation, as well as their knowledge of, and expertise developed in relation to, the innovation (Lambert, 1998). They may also take with them their demonstrated passion for the innovation which may have served as impetus for the change (Lambert, 1998). Succession planning for those leaving their roles at all levels of an organization is critical for long-term success (Graetz et al., 2006). In particular, Fink (2001) advises that succession planning of key administrators is an important component of sustaining change.

In addition to succession planning for those leaving the school, recruitment and induction of those coming into the school is crucial in sustaining change (Fink, 2001). Attention, time and financial resources are needed to attract and replace those who leave (Voke, 2003) and to ensure that those new to the school have the knowledge and expertise to participate in the continuing implementation of the innovation (Fink, 2001). Frequently, assumptions are made that those joining an international school to continue an innovation understand the intention and the meaning of the innovation (Hardman, 2001). Given the great diversity of contexts in international schools, Fink (2001) explains that an innovation with a specific objective in operation in one school may manifest in a very different way to the same type of innovation with the same specific objective in a different school context. The understandings developed around the innovation in one context may not be directly transferable into a new context (Fink, 2001). Fink (2001) highlights the concern that the meanings that new teachers bring to the organization can be quite different from those of existing staff, and he stresses that developing a sense of shared purpose is critical.

Succession and induction planning in international schools is further complicated by what Welton (2001) refers to as a tradition of school change and development based on firing and hiring. The tradition of turnover in international schools is influenced by the notion that people who do not support or involve themselves in an innovation will be asked to leave the school, and others can be brought into the school to make things happen in line with desired innovation (Hayden, 2006). This adds significantly yet subtly to the dynamics around succession and induction planning. The researcher became aware of additional concerns connected to succession and induction through email correspondence with Alan Conkey, the main board governance consultant at the Council of International Schools. Conkey expressed concern that rather than opposing innovation openly at the risk of being fired, those who do not support an innovation often resign at their own discretion, and in doing so, they may disconnect socially and emotionally from the school, devoting little energy to succession planning (A. Conkey, personal communication June 29, 2008). Similarly, those coming into the school may have an understanding that they are to apply their knowledge and skills to lead the school in a new direction (Fink, 2001). Indeed, those coming into the school may be used by administrators to serve as 'change agents' in the school (Hardman, 2001). If incoming personnel have different priorities and mandate new directions, it is not uncommon for improvement initiatives or innovations to falter or fade (Lambert, 1998).

High rates of turnover of both administrators and teachers inevitably influence relationship building within international schools. Networks of relationships take time to establish and administrators and teachers joining an organization need multiple opportunities to connect with others. International school administrators are challenged to facilitate the creation of social connections and community in their schools when turnover brings large numbers of new administrators and teachers each year (Stoll & Louis, 2007). At the beginning of a school year these challenges are often in competition with other challenges of a more practical nature, becoming familiar with day-to-day running of the school, along with "… school policies and procedures, rules and regulations" (Hardman, 2001, p. 134). It is tempting for induction programs to give priority to the practical rather than to relationship building, forgetting that "people crave connection" (Wong, 2003, p. 43). Induction, orientation and transition programs often focus on becoming familiar with the structures and processes of the school, knowing who does what and how to solve practical problems. However, primary focus should be given to providing opportunities for those new to the school to establish their own networks of relationships and to develop a shared perception of the culture of the school (Hayden, 2006). Priority should not be given to the structural conditions, 'the tyranny of the urgent', with the idea that when practical details are in place, attention can be given to relationships and culture building, the social and human resources (Kruse, Seashore Louis & Bryk, 1994).

Due to the rate of turnover, administrators are often not involved with the long-term consequences of their planning decisions (Welton, 2001). Welton (2001) notes that unlike Roman architects who were required to stand under the arches they constructed while the scaffolding was being taken down, administrators are not likely to even witness the consequences of the planning, let alone share in the accountability for the consequences of the planning. The researcher received further information about the trend in schools, known as 'policy churn', through email correspondence:

> I taught with Dr Charles Glenn at Boston University based on his text, Social and Civic Context of Education. This explains more in detail what policy churn is and it may help ... Many [superintendents] stay less than three years in the job before moving on. Some start looking for their next job almost before they have moved into their offices and learned the names of their top staff. In order to make their mark and build their reputations, they are rarely content to continue to implement the policies laid out by their predecessors. New

> initiatives rather than steady persistence seem to represent vigorous leadership in the superintendency.
>
> Since, there are severe limits on a superintendent's real ability to influence what happens in classrooms, he or she can create the impression of leadership by announcing new initiatives which cannot be expected to pay off for years ... by which time he or she may be on the way to the next job. A careful study of 57 urban school districts concluded that 'reform, rather than being the remedy to what ails urban schools, has generally been a distraction and a hindrance.' 'Policy churn' is the tendency of urban superintendents to start many different initiatives, most of which are never implemented to a point which could produce real success. "The irony of school reform is that the sheer amount of activity—the fact that reform is the status quo—impedes the ability of any particular reform to have a lasting effect" (Hess 1998, 121). (A. Conkey, personal communication July 3, 2008).

The comparatively high rate of turnover of members of international schools creates unique considerations for international schools in approaching innovation and continuous school improvement. High rates of turnover, along with substantial ad hoc growth and great diversity, add to the challenge of innovation in the international schools context, a context in which innovations are already highly vulnerable. Nonetheless, the researcher has been unable to identify any investigations into this area of international schooling.

2.4 Leadership

This section explores literature related to leadership in general, though with some focus on leadership in a school context, and to four relevant aspects within the literature on leadership that relate directly to this study: power and influence, leadership and change, contemporary views of leadership and leadership capacity.

Leadership has been extensively studied for well over a century (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996). Though there are widely ranging opinions about the nature of leadership, there is general agreement that leadership is a group function and leaders intentionally seek to influence the behavior of other people (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Lingard, Hayes, Mills & Christie, 2003; Owens & Valesky, 2007). Implicit in accepting the concept of leadership as involving leaders exercising influence on others through social interaction is the need to examine the nature and quality of the social interaction involved. Owens and Valesky

(2007) suggest that power and influence are at the heart of this examination, raising the need to question the kind of power and influence exercised and how it is exercised.

Power and influence

Traditionally, the influence base of leadership was the downward exercise of power and authority, emphasizing legitimacy and hierarchical control (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Implicit in the notion that a leader intentionally seeks to influence the behavior of other people are the notions that power and influence are unevenly distributed between leaders and followers and that followers must consent to this (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996). Owens and Valesky (2007) concur that the power of leaders is voluntarily granted by followers who accept the leader's influence and direction by formal or informal shared agreement. However, the dynamic of power within an organization will be influenced by the views dominant at any time and place; generally these serve the interests and perspectives of those who exercise the power in the particular culture (Patton, 2002). Different kinds of power and influence, from different sources, exercised in different ways can be used to influence others (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Five generally accepted forms of power are legitimate, reward, coercive, expert, and referent (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Owens & Valesky, 2007; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). The power that administrators gain from their position in the organization is legitimate power, affording to those in power the legitimate right to obedience from others. By controlling rewards like promotions and stipends, administrators influence others to comply with their intentions. Administrators exercise coercive power by controlling punishment that people wish to avoid. Expert power comes from having knowledge that others want for themselves, so they comply to acquire knowledge or benefit from it. Referent power involves the personal charisma of the power holder, or of the ideas or beliefs held by the power holder in influencing others through the opportunity to be associated with or become like the power holder. Bolman and Deal (1991) recount these five forms of power and add an additional three sources. Alliances and networks of relationships serve as a means of getting things done. Access to and control of agenda through alliances and networks provide access to decision making arenas through influencing agenda setting in those arenas. Control of meaning and symbols provides an opportunity to influence the way groups define who they are, what they believe in, and what they value.

The strength of the leader's power is related to the number of sources upon which a power holder can draw (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Generally, leaders influence others through exercising legitimate and referent power (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996).

It is important to note the distinction between the power of those who command and the power of those who lead (Owens & Valesky, 2009). The power to command comes from the legal power associated with a position within the hierarchy. In theory, subordinates have no control over it and must yield to it. The power to lead is voluntarily granted by followers who accept the leader's influence and direction by shared agreement which may be formally or informally determined (Owens & Valesky, 2009). These are not necessarily mutually exclusive as a leader may gain influence from both. However, it is important to consider who controls the granting of power in any situation (Owens & Valesky, 2009).

Tracy (1990) maintains that leaders can achieve ultimate power by giving it to the people who work for them, that is by empowerment. While Barth (1988) notes the critical importance of principals relinquishing power, he also notes that principals often show a not surprising unwillingness to share power. Leithwood, Jantzi, Silins and Dart (1992) identify two tasks related to relinquishing power and developing new power relationships: delegating authentic leadership responsibilities, and developing collaborative decision-making processes. In this regard, Murphy (2005) emphasizes the importance of a trusting relationship between principal and teachers as foundational in developing new power relationships.

Leadership and change

Owens and Valesky (2007) explain that one of the key concepts of organizational theory is the role of change and stability in the environment of the organization in selecting a strategy for leadership. In this regard, Murphy (2005) stresses the need for leaders to replace a traditional focus on stability with a focus on change, functioning less as classical managers and more as change agents. Fullan (2001a) cautions that leaders must understand the complexities of the change process and accept the messiness of change, knowing that there is no guaranteed recipe for successful change leadership (Graetz et al, 2006). Evans (1996) also stresses the multiplicity and complexity of factors influencing change and reminds leaders that every event is both cause and effect, where no single element can be altered without affecting the rest.

Change can be led but not managed or controlled (Fullan, 2001a; Merideth, 2007) and Fullan (2001a) offers advice as to how best to understand the change process. He warns leaders against taking on too many innovations so that there is not sufficient time to develop depth and coherence around the innovations. He notes that the "presence of too many disconnected, episodic, piecemeal, superficially adorned projects" (Fullan, 2001a, p. 109) is a significant problem for schools as this generates overload and causes fragmentation. Hatch (2000) adds that an endless cycle of innovation may sap the strength and spirit of schools and their communities.

Fullan (2001a) also advises leaders that even though an innovation may be worthwhile, it should not be pushed through or pushed from the top down if there is not sufficient 'buy-in' to generate widespread internal commitment to the innovation amongst members of the organization. Fullan (1993) notes that simultaneous top-down and bottom-up approaches to change can be highly effective. Similarly, Graetz et al. (2006) caution that while sponsorship at the highest level is pivotal in promoting and sustaining change, change leadership cannot be the sole prerogative of senior managers, if new behaviors are to be instilled throughout the organization.

In addition, Fullan (2001a) stresses that re-culturing, transforming the culture of the organization, is the main aim of change and describes the type of culture to be developed as one which promotes collaboration, respects differences, and builds and tests knowledge against measurable results. Fullan notes (2001b) that rather than change that focuses on restructuring, change that focuses on re-culturing is needed, as this is the way in which teachers come to question and change their beliefs and habits and the way in which deep and more lasting change is attained. The new culture must have the capacity to support the diverse leadership approaches and configurations necessary to re-culture the school (Fullan, 1995). In short, leadership of change requires creating a culture of change, not just a structure for change (Fullan, 2001a).

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) note that one of the constants about K- 12 education is that "… someone is always trying to change it" (p. 65), and that despite the innovations being well thought-out, well articulated and well researched, most are short lived. The distinction between two types of change is drawn in several ways. First-order change is incremental, as it fine-tunes a system through a series of small steps that do not depart radically from past practice, while second-order change is deep change, representing a dramatic departure from the expected in terms of defining a problem, in

direction, and in requiring new ways of thinking and acting (Argyris, & Schon, 1974, 1978; Graetz et al., 2006; Evans, 1996). Argyris and Schon (1978) address the distinction in terms of single-loop and double-loop learning. Single-loop learning approaches change by reference to strategies that have been successful in the past, while double-loop learning approaches change without reference to existing strategies, seeking to conceptualize the situation differently and expand the organization's repertoire of strategies.) Most organizations employ single-loop rather than double-loop learning (Robbins et al., 2004).

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) emphasize the importance of the leadership supporting an innovation being consistent with the order of magnitude of the change represented by the innovation, and draw a distinction between the leadership needed for first-order change and second-order change. They advise that the leadership needed for first-order change involves a wide range of responsibilities related to the daily management of the school, including monitoring, focus, order, communication, input, relationships, and responsibility flexibility. The leadership needed for second-order change involves leaders in seven particular responsibilities that, while they are a part of leadership for first-order change, gain greater significance in second-order change (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). These responsibilities are:

- Actively helping teachers with curriculum, instruction, and assessment related to the change;
- Providing an optimistic view of the change and the future;
- Fostering knowledge of research and theory on best practice related to the change;
- Showing a willingness to challenge established school practices to move the change forward;
- Monitoring the impact of the change;
- Being directive and nondirective in regard to the change as the situation demands;
- Operating from a well-articulated and visible set of ideals and beliefs relative to the change (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005, pp. 70-71).

Particular attention is given to some aspects of these responsibilities. It is noted that second-order change does not eventuate by simply talking about it, a strategy seen to be used by those who hold a vision but ignore what is going on around them (Fritz, 1984). The need for behaviors to be consistent with the ideals and beliefs espoused is emphasized, as

behavior inconsistent with announced ideals and beliefs is seen to undermine change initiatives (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005). Argyris and Schon (1974) explain the importance of trust building for the espoused theories of leaders to match their theories-in-use, that is, for their stated ideals and beliefs to match their actual actions. In general, school leaders are advised to intensify their idealism, energy, and enthusiasm when second-order change is desired, and to be ready to live through a period of frustration likely to be experienced by some faculty members (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005).

Contemporary views of leadership

Traditionally, leadership in schools has been focused on the role of the principal, and teachers, parents, and students have had little chance to share in the responsibility for leadership. How leadership is defined frames how people participate in it (Lambert, 2003), and all too often, traditional definitions of leadership have focused on a few people at the top of the hierarchy, separating the leaders from the followers. Top-down leadership is based on the belief that the best and brightest ideas are "… or ought to be, found at the higher levels of the organization and are passed down to be implemented by those at lower levels" (Owens & Valesky, 2007, p. 270). It is also based on the belief that the few at the higher levels possess vested authority or the legitimate right to command and those at lower levels have no control, so yield to the power exercised from above (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Teachers continue to recognize the authority of those in formal positions in the school because they value the organization, and, therefore, they largely defer to the legitimate power of those occupying official positions in the hierarchy (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Traditional, hierarchical views of power and authority and beliefs that reserve the work of leadership for formal authority roles prevent teacher leadership developing (Lambert, 2003).

In contrast, contemporary views on effective organizations emphasize that the authority to lead can be separated from person, role, and status, and can be shared, dispersed or distributed within the organization between and among organization members, (Day, Harris, Hadfield, Tolley, & Beresford, 2000; Graetz et al., 2006). In this view, the influence base of leadership is seen as expertise and/or social capital (Murphy, 2005), and leadership is concerned with developing respect and concern for followers and the ability to see followers as crucial sources of knowledge, creativity, and energy for improving the organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). These sources have previously been untapped by administrators whose focus tended to be hierarchical control (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Fullan (2001a) maintains that leadership must be dramatically different from what it has been and that it must be "… cultivated deliberately over time at all levels of the organization" (p. x). The primary focus of this type of leadership is the relationships and the connections among individuals in the school (Harris & Muijs, 2003).

There is a movement away from the concept of leadership as the downward exercise of authority and power toward developing relationships through concern and respect for individuals, seeing them as crucial sources of knowledge, creativity, and energy for improving the organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Murphy (2005) concurs that the influence base of leadership has moved away from legitimacy and control to a focus on expertise and social capital. When people work collaboratively to turn intention into reality, power is the energy for initiating and sustaining action (Bennis & Nanua, 1985). Barth (1990) and Lambert (1998) also maintain that leadership lies within the membership of the school, not just in the position of the principal.

Traditional views of leadership contrast with contemporary views of leadership in a number of significant ways. Notably there is a shift of focus from power and authority residing at the top of the hierarchy. Current notions of leadership focus on dispersing or distributing power and authority amongst members of the organization.

Leadership capacity

The problem of building and sustaining leadership capacity cannot be ignored by schools wishing to sustain long-term improvement. Building leadership capacity for school improvement reflects dominant themes in literature on leadership in schools (Harris & Muijs, 2002; Lambert, 2003; Murphy, 2005). Moving away from the traditional concept that leadership lies with someone who has formal authority to lead, schools must build their own leadership capacity if they are to "… stay afloat, assume internal responsibility for reform, and maintain a momentum for self renewal" (Lambert, 1998, p. 3). To sustain performance, leadership should be spread through many levels of an organization (Fullan, 2001a).

Building leadership capacity is building broad-based, skillful involvement in the work of leadership (Lambert, 1998). It follows that high leadership capacity schools are those in which broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership can be readily identified (Lambert, 2003). 'Broad-based' implies the meaningful involvement of many people in the school community in leadership, and 'skilful' implies that participants have a

comprehensive understanding of and proficiency in the dispositions, knowledge and skills of leadership (Lambert, 2003, p. 4). The breadth of participation and skilful involvement creates what Lambert (2003) defines as the organizational concept of leadership capacity. Through developing teacher leadership capacity, high leadership capacity schools are created that can sustain school improvement (Lambert, 2003).

In focusing the definition of leadership capacity around "… broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership," (Lambert, 2003, p. 4) Lambert (2003) combines "breadth of participation" and "depth of skilfulness" (p. 4) to lead to four possible organizational scenarios presented in a Leadership Capacity Matrix. The matrix describes the relationship between the two variables; level of participation and degree of skilful participation. Patterns of participation constitute the structure of leadership capacity; while skilled performance of collaborative tasks constitutes the process (Lambert, 2003). The matrix focuses on the role of the principal as the key administrator in a school that is part of a wider American school district shown in Table 2.1. A principal in this context would have a larger degree of autonomy than a principal at ISA.

Table 2.1: Leadership capacity matrix

	Low Degree of Participation		High Degree of Participation
Low Degree of Skill – Quadrant 1	1. Principal as autocratic manager; 2. One way flow of information, no shared vision; 3. Co-dependent, paternal/maternal relationships; rigidly defined roles; 4. Norms of compliance and blame, technical and superficial program coherence; 5. Little innovation in teaching and learning; 6. Poor student achievement, or only short-term improvement on standardized tests.	**Low Degree of Skill – Quadrant 2**	1. Principal as a laissez-faire manager, many teachers develop unrelated programs; 2. Fragmented information that lacks coherence; programs that lack shared purpose ; 3. Undefined roles and responsibilities; 4. Norms of individualism; no collective responsibility; 5. "Spotty" innovation; some classrooms are excellent while others are poor; 6. Static overall student achievement (unless data are disaggregated).
High Degree of Skill – Quadrant 3	1. Principal and key teachers as purposeful leadership team; 2. Limited use of school-wide data; information flow within designated leadership groups; 3. Polarized staff with pockets of strong resistance; 4. Efficient designated leaders; others serve in traditional roles; 5. Strong innovation, reflection skills, and teaching excellence; weak program coherence; 6. Student achievement is static or shows slight improvement.	**High Degree of Skill – Quadrant 4**	1. Principal, teachers, parents and students as skillful leaders; 2. Shared vision results in program coherence; 3. Inquiry-based use of data to inform decisions and practice; 4. Broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility reflected in roles and actions; 5. Reflective practice that leads consistently to innovation; 6. High or steadily improving in all divisions for all students.

Adapted from Lambert (2003).

Lambert (2003) also developed a District Leadership Capacity Matrix which was adapted from the Leadership Capacity Matrix. The District Leadership Capacity Matrix focuses on the role of the director or superintendent as the key administrator of an American school district which consists of many separate schools. It addresses the need for districts to develop their own leadership capacity as well as the leadership capacity of the schools within the district. See Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: District leadership capacity matrix

	Low Degree of Participation		High Degree of Participation
Low Degree of Skill – Quadrant 1	1. District managers are autocratic 2. Actions are derived from external directives, rather than shared vision 3. Top-down accountability systems promoting compliance and standardization 4. Direction is centralized in the form of mandates, resources, and rules. resulting in dependency relationships 5. Professional development is erratic and one-size-fits-all 6. Student achievement is low or directly correlated with ethnicity and socioeconomic status	**Low Degree of Skill – Quadrant 2**	1. District managers take a laissez-faire approach 2. Because shared vision is lacking, information is fragmented and program coherence among schools 3. Schools and individual teachers design assessment with minimal systemic use of information and evidence for accountability and improvement 4. Direction is decentralized and school-based, with little emphasis on coordination, focus or coherence 5. Professional development is a potpourri of unrelated training courses 6. Student achievement varies widely among district schools – some are doing well while others show little or no improvement
High Degree of Skill – Quadrant 3	1. District Administrators delegate some authority and resources to schools, with trained leadership teams 2. District and school visions are coordinated 3. District and school leadership teams develop lateral accountability systems, but without broad engagement 4. Coordination is generally close, with greater autonomy for schools with skilful leadership teams 5. Professional development is focused on district vision and goals 6. Student achievement and development are improving and gaps among groups are narrowing	**High Degree of Skill – Quadrant 4**	1. District Administrators model, develop, and support broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership 2. Shared vision results in district-wide program coherence 3. An inquiry-based accountability system informs decision making and practice at classroom, school, and district levels 4. Organizational relationships involve high district engagement and low bureaucratization 5. Professional development selection and development, administrators recruit and educate learners and leaders in partnership with schools 6. Student achievement and development are high or steadily improving in all schools for all students

Adapted from Lambert (2003).

The literature indicates that inherent in the intention to build leadership capacity at a school is the need to change structures of leadership, patterns of participation in leadership, and skill levels related to achieving leadership inside and outside the classroom.

(Barth, 1990; Lambert, 2003; Murphy, 2005). To build leadership capacity, traditional authority based structures of leadership must give way to multiple, complex structures of leadership, characterized by dense networks of relationships in which leadership is shared (Lambert et al, 1996). As teachers represent the most stable group of adults and the most politically powerful in schools (Lambert, 2003), their contributions to leadership capacity need to be clearly understood. However, research is yet to explore what actually happens in an international school that intentionally embarks upon the process of building leadership capacity to sustain school improvement.

Lambert (2003) notes the main aim of leadership capacity development is sustained school improvement. The diverse nature of international schools, involving both the rapid growth of international schools and the high rates of turnover characteristic of the international school context, highlight these schools' vulnerability to issues related to sustainability of school improvement. It follows that enhancing sustainability in international schools is of particular significance.

In teachers contributing to leadership capacity within a school there is the implication of a different role for teachers, becoming involved in issues beyond the classroom, within professional communities within the school context. To explore this further it is first necessary to look more closely at the nature of a professional learning community.

2.5 Teachers in professional learning communities

DuFour et al (2006) note how interesting it has been to observe the growing popularity of the term 'professional learning community' and speculate as to whether or not the term has become so commonplace and its use so ambiguous that it is in danger of losing all meaning. Hord (1997) lists the main attributes of a professional learning community as shared and supportive leadership, shared values and vision, collective learning and application, shared personal practice, supportive conditions both in terms of structures and relationships, and focus on learning. DuFour et al. (2006) identify the main features as focus on learning, collaborative teams, collective inquiry, action orientation, continuous improvement, and results orientation. For Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001), professional learning communities imply a commitment to teachers sharing and to the generation of a school-wide culture that expects collaboration. Kruse et al. (1994) identify five critical elements necessary for strong professional learning communities: reflective dialogue, de-privatization of practice, collective focus of student learning, collaboration, and shared

norms and values. Lieberman and Miller (2008a) define professional learning communities as "… ongoing groups of teachers who meet regularly for the purpose of increasing their own learning and that of their students ... where new ideas and strategies emerge, take root, and develop; and where competence can truly be cultivated and nurtured" (p. 2). Lambert (2003) sees high leadership capacity schools as excellent learning communities, as both environments contain the same key features: shared vision, inquiry, reflective practice, and collective responsibility. She maintains that in such learning communities teachers are able to share ideas and knowledge that lead to ways of creating shared knowledge together, and that teachers choose to lead because their environment allows them to do so (Lambert, 2003).

For professional learning communities to develop, several factors must exist. Kruse et al. (1994) identify both structural conditions and social and human resources that are needed within a school for professional learning communities to develop. Structural conditions – time to meet and talk, physical proximity, interdependent teacher roles, communication structures, and teacher empowerment and school autonomy – were seen as less critical than social and human resources: openness to improvement, trust and respect, cognitive and skill base, supportive leadership, and socialization, for the development of professional learning communities (Kruse et al., 1994). Lieberman and Miller (2008e) explain that teachers need space to "… leave the old norms and habits of their schools at the door and enter into communities where they [can] share their learning and have a major voice in their own agenda" (p. 104). They point out the time and practice needed in balancing the complexity of simultaneously creating learning and creating a community, in correcting false assumptions, and in gaining confidence in making work public (Lieberman & Miller, 2008e). They also explain the importance of building trust, noting that trust must be established before competence or community can develop and before openness about practice can develop (Lieberman & Miller, 2008e). Additionally, Crowther, Ferguson and Hann (2009) detail the benefits evident in professional learning communities where trust is nurtured, practiced, and valued.

Functioning in professional learning communities requires teachers to learn new ways of thinking and new ways of learning. Amongst other capacities, teachers need to develop the ability and disposition to learn from their peers, to do knowledge work, and to engage with theory and research as well as practice (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c). In describing the work of Newmann et al. (2000), Fullan (2001a) explains that developing the knowledge, skills,

and dispositions of individual teachers is not sufficient to change the organization. While professional development of individuals or small groups may influence individual classrooms, the organization must change along with the individuals. To achieve, schools must focus on relationship building through creating school-wide professional learning communities (Fullan, 2001a). Given that learning, seen as teachers increasing effectiveness and deepening practice, cannot happen outside the professional communities to which they belong (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c) the following section explores the importance and the nature of learning within a professional learning community and of reflection as a part of learning.

Learning and reflection

> The concept of learning in practice is not viewed as foundational to teacher leadership; it rests on the idea that learning is more social, collaborative, and context-dependent than was previously thought (Lieberman & Miller, 2004, p. 22).

Continuous learning is integral to professional learning communities. Senge (1990) stresses that work must be "learningful" (p. 4) and forecasts that learning organizations, where committed people at all levels of the organization are continually learning how to learn together, are those which will truly excel in the future. Fullan (2001a) concurs, noting the importance of schools becoming learning organizations in order to survive, and the challenge in cultivating and sustaining learning under conditions of complex and rapid change. DuFour et al. (2006) assert that, if organizations are to become more effective in ensuring that all students learn, the adults in the organization must also be continually learning and that job-embedded learning should be part of routine work practices.

Since knowledge is socially constructed (Lambert et al., 1996), the learning that occurs within professional learning communities involves teachers in learning relationships with their peers. The concept that learning occurs within peer interactions was first introduced by Lave and Wenger in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Lieberman & Miller, 2008b) to describe how learning occurred within groups that share a common purpose. Smith (2009) describes their basic premise that learning results not from individual cognitive processes or direct teaching but through the social interactions that are part of participation in daily life as members of communities of practice. The learning arises out of what happens in people's relationships and conversations with members of the community engaged in common work (Lieberman & Miller, 2008b). Such communities are not only about what

works in terms of technical skills and knowledge, but also embrace what matters in terms of shared experiences (Lieberman & Miller, 2008b). The professional relationships aspired to when learning takes place in this way are in contrast to the kind of isolation and autonomy implicit in the traditionally defined teachers' work (Smylie & Hart, 1999).

Fullan (2001a) supports the assertion that learning for teachers happens best in the professional communities to which they belong in several ways. He points out the need for learning in context, as it produces knowledge that is specific and useable and because it is social in nature, serving to connect people and ideas within the context in which they collectively aim to achieve (Fullan, 2001a). Lieberman and Miller (2008b) assert that context matters as it, amongst other things, influences how professional learning communities emerge and develop, and the kinds of challenges and tensions that emerge. Fullan (2001a) emphasizes that learning in context changes the individual and the context simultaneously, both developing leadership and improving the organization.

Elmore (2000) places the responsibility for developing learning in context with the leadership in the organization. He claims that leadership should create conditions that value learning as beneficial individually and collectively, and should create an environment in which individuals and groups do not expect their practice to be private but welcome having their personal and collective ideas and practices examined by other individuals and / or groups. Teachers struggle with the notion of going public with their work, as this stands in stark contrast to the norms and traditions of a "lonely profession" (Sarason, 1996). Fullan (2001a) concurs that leadership develops through reciprocity, focusing on the mutual obligation and values of sharing knowledge among members of the organization. He points out that if learning is not mutually shared, it will not be available to the organization, and emphasizes that leadership must create "… conditions for individual and organizational development to merge" (Fullan, 2001a, p. 132). Lambert's (2003) definition of leadership as "reciprocal, purposeful learning in a community" (p. 2) also gives prominence to the need for leadership to involve everyone in a school to take collective responsibility as a community of learners.

To create this situation, leaders must be able and willing to model the learning and new behaviors they expect of others, and must be willing to have their ideas and practices examined by others (Elmore, 2000; Graetz et al., 2006). The dangers of words without deeds, grandiose talk not followed by concerted action, or writing a mission without living a

mission are noted (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; Graetz et al., 2006; Dufour et al, 2006).

Recruiting and rewarding talented people and providing members of the organization with professional development opportunities, does not necessarily lead to organizational learning or improvement (Fullan, 2001a). Elmore (2000) explains that learning and improvement occur when organizations create and nurture agreement on what they want to achieve, and when they determine the process through which members of the organization progressively learn how to do what is needed to achieve what they agreed was worthwhile. Further, Elmore (2000) explains that recruiting and rewarding people should be based on their willingness to engage in the social learning needed to achieve what has been agreed upon as worthwhile, and that this type of learning should be seen as the individual and social responsibility of every member of the organization.

A key area of learning for teachers within professional learning communities is to develop the capacity to construct and apply new knowledge (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c). While generally teachers place little value on theory and research and are not conscious that they are continually working from tacit knowledge and implicit theories, they must become self-conscious knowledge workers who are able to generate and manipulate knowledge (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c). Attention must be given to both 'inside knowledge' and 'outside knowledge' in this pursuit (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993). 'Inside knowledge' focuses on teachers as 'knowers' within the complex contexts of the schools in which they work, while 'outside knowledge' comes from external resources to prevent professional learning communities from becoming stale (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993).

One of the key ways in which learning takes place in communities is through reflective practice that uncovers and examines the values and assumptions which guide work done (Schein 2004; Schon 1983; Senge 1992). Owens and Valesky (2007) maintain that reflective practice is essential for professionals to continue to develop and improve their professional practice. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) stress the need for teachers to be reflective practitioners engaged in the intellectual work of continuous learning through inquiry and reflection. Similarly, Lambert (2003) asserts that reflective practice is a source of critical information or data that help make sense of the world through meta-cognition and that leads consistently to innovation.

Argyris and Schon (1978) address the distinction in terms of single-loop and double-loop learning. Single-loop learning approaches change by reference to strategies that have been

successful in the past, while double-loop learning approaches change without reference to existing strategies, seeking to conceptualize the situation differently and expand the organization's repertoire of strategies. Robbins et al. (2004) state that most organizations engage in single-loop rather than double-loop learning.

Lieberman and Miller (2008c) explain that the term, reflective practice, was first used by Schon in the 1950s to describe the way professionals learn and think about their craft. The process begins with experience but works toward theory (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c) by involving teachers in rethinking assumptions, beliefs, and values that guide behavior at work to either reaffirm them or modify them, based on the reflection and in consideration of new understandings (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Schon (1983) maintains that professionals learn through reflection-in-action, where they look at their own behaviors and responses to situations to generate hypotheses and new understandings about the situations. Then, through reflection-on-action, they record in writing what has occurred or talk to a colleague about it, which in turn leads to new questions and ideas about practice and future actions. This reflects the theory of double-loop learning (Argyris & Schon, 1974) which relates to learning to change fundamental values and assumptions by questioning underlying current views and hypothesizing about behaviour that has been tested publically.

Through reflective practice professionals develop a repertoire of images, ideas, actions and metaphors to draw upon when they encounter new situations, make predictions, and determine new actions. Through well developed repertoires, professionals create mental maps to help analyze the familiar and unfamiliar in a new situation. Shared mental maps are developed when professionals work collaboratively to define and solve problems. In turn, mental maps lead to practically constructed ideas that guide actions related to theory-in-use. A theory-in-use is the actual theory manifest in the behavior of an individual or group and since these develop through experience, professionals depend more on them than formally learned or espoused theories that are the theories to which one publicly subscribes. Essentially, reflective practice promotes learning that is "… reciprocal, practical, active and open to revision" (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c, p. 21).

Dissonances inevitably arise between theory and practice, revealing disconnection between knowledge and action (DuFour et al, 2006). A professional's espoused theory may be significantly different to the professional's theory-in-use. Principles of reflective practice indicate that in reflecting on and thinking through the dissonances and disconnections, greater harmony can be established between espoused theory and theory-in-use (Owens &

Valesky, 2007). It is important to note that dissonance or disconnection between espoused theory and theory in use is commonplace in organizational leadership (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Pfeffer and Sutton (2000) regard the disconnection between knowledge and action as one of the great mysteries of organizational management and emphasize the need for knowledge to result in action or behavior that is consistent with that knowledge.

Professional learning communities support the development of teacher leaders (Lieberman & Miller, 2004; Lieberman & Miller, 2008a; Murphy, 2005). Murphy (2005) suggests that those closest to the teacher leadership movement believe it will be a catalyst in creating communities of professional practice that in turn will enhance learning for students. It is now appropriate to consider developing teacher leaders, including a review of the definitions of teacher leadership, as well as a review of approaches to developing teacher leadership and the relation of teacher leadership to school improvement.

Developing teacher leaders

While the literature highlights overlapping and competing definitions of teacher leadership (Harris & Muijs, 2003), the definitions have in common an expanded concept of leadership for teachers beyond traditional classroom boundaries (Beachum and Dentith, 2004). Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) propose a definition of teacher leaders as "… teachers who are leaders lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others toward improved educational practice" (p. 5). Crowther et al. (2009) define teacher leadership as:

> ... essentially an ethical stance that is based on views of both a better world and the power of teachers to shape meaning systems. It manifests in new forms of understanding and practice that contribute to school success and to the quality of life of the community in the long term (p. 10).

Lambert (2003) views teacher leaders as those whose dreams of making a difference have either been kept alive or have been reawakened by engaging with colleagues and working within a professional culture. Lambert et al. (1996) state that teacher leadership necessitates redefining the role of teacher, administrator, parent, and student, and maintain that teachers need to be prepared with requisite commitments, knowledge, and skills of collaboration, learning, and community-building in order to be successful. The definition of teacher leaders applied at ISA is as follows:

At ISA teacher leaders engage peers in improving student performance through group processes and their individual actions that promote:

- Solutions to problems;

- Innovation to practice;

- Reflection and inquiry related to teaching and learning (ISA, 2006, p. 5).

Everyone at ISA was "… encouraged to be a leader in one area or another related to the school improvement initiatives" (ISA, 2006, p. 1).

In conjunction with the definition offered, Crowther et al. (2009) outline a framework for teachers as leaders. The framework reflects the well acclaimed work of extraordinary, designated teacher leaders that significantly influenced their schools. The authors encourage readers to regard the framework as "… idealistic in its purposes, practical in its origins, and authoritative in its conceptualization" (Crowther et al., 2009, p. 4). While acknowledging that no individual teacher leader observed fully demonstrated all of the six elements contained in the framework for all of the time, all demonstrated aspects of each of the six elements in some way at some time in their work. The six elements are:

- Convey convictions about a better world;

- Facilitate communities of learning;

- Strive for pedagogical excellence;

- Confront barriers in the school's culture and structures;

- Translate ideas into sustainable systems of action;

- Nurture a culture of success (Crowther et al., 2009, p. 3).

In addition to the definition of teacher leadership adopted at ISA, this framework has been applied throughout this study to guide reflection on the discourse related to leadership.

As a basis for the improvement initiative, ISA (2006, pp. 2-6) makes several assumptions in regard to teacher leadership. These assumptions were made explicit to guide the implementation of the initiative to build leadership capacity. Key assumptions are that teacher leadership:

- Has the potential to contribute significantly to leadership capacity and to school improvement initiatives;

- Can be developed through on-going training and professional development of teachers who hold formal leadership roles within the school;
- Exists and is to be developed in addition to the traditional leadership responsibility of the faculty who hold formal leadership roles and receive a stipend for their leadership activities.

Acknowledging that teacher leadership is not a simple concept (Murphy, 2005), Wasley (1991) notes that the more one moves from conceptual analysis to implementation as to 'how' teacher leaderships play out in practice, the more evident the complexity becomes. In this regard, Lambert (2003) draws a distinction between roles of leadership and acts of leadership, noting that teachers may not always be in positions to take on new roles but that they are always able to engage in acts of leadership like asking thoughtful questions, bringing different perspective to conversations, and mentoring.

Another layer of complexity lies in the variety of pathways that lead to teacher leadership, as the opportunities for teacher leadership come in many forms from a range of programs, policies, and initiatives (Murphy, 2005). Murphy (2005) categorizes the various opportunities and models for developing teacher leadership into two broad pathways: role-based strategies and community-based approaches. In general, role-based strategies reflect teacher career strategies and broadening administrative structures and roles, while community-based approaches reflect shared leadership and communities of practice. These two pathways are reflective of the distinction between roles of leadership and acts of leadership to which Lambert (2003) draws attention. Throughout this study, consideration was given to both role-based and community-based approaches when exploring the impact the initiative has on the context of and the relationships within the organization as a whole.

Choosing the development of teacher leaders as a means of initiating school improvement at ISA is well supported by the literature. Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) state that teacher leadership can be a strong catalyst for change and that the complex, dynamic demands of change are best met through the efforts of everyone. Further, they propose that capitalizing of the resources each teacher leader brings to focus on continuous improvement will produce comprehensive and long-term change, and that when given opportunities, teacher leaders can influence school reform efforts (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Merideth (2007) states that it only makes sense that teachers work together with administrators for change as teachers hold the best knowledge of the community, and students and teachers will be responsible for implementing change. Lambert (2003) notes

the main aim of leadership capacity development is sustained school improvement, and Murphy (2005) acknowledges that teacher leadership has gained a central place in school improvement literature.

Murphy (2005) cautiously points out that teacher leadership was initially linked to other broad based reform movements, such as school-based management and professionalization. He maintains that it is difficult to fully identify whether teacher leadership is a causal variable in the school reform algorithm or a product of reform movements such as learning organizations and communities of practice (Murphy, 2005). By intentionally focusing on the development of teacher leaders, ISA was using this as a distinct strategy for school improvement. However, including the initiative under the umbrella of the Integrated School Improvement Initiatives, acknowledges that as an improvement initiative teacher leadership is often an embedded concept, "… a defining a strand in a larger reform effort" (Murphy, 2005, p. 4).

The final three sections of this literature review relate to the three sub-questions which provide the focus for the research. First, discourses related to leadership are examined. Then, organizational context is considered, including relationships and culture within the organizational context. Finally, motivation for participation in school improvement initiatives is examined.

2.6 Discourses related to leadership

This section clarifies the concept of discourse used in the study and considers discourses related to leadership relevant throughout. A discourse is a framework of ideas or a coherent set of concepts that frame a way of looking at, understanding, or making sense of the world (Patton, 2002). Discourses are socially constructed and culturally embedded and become evident in the speech or writing, actions and products of the human social world. Multiple, competing discourses exist and people using one discourse may act very differently from others who may use an alternative discourse as a way of understanding (Patton, 2002).

For the past two decades, research has focused on leadership as a critical theme in school improvement literature, and our understanding of leadership has deepened and become more complex (Murphy, 2005). Traditional discourses on leadership are concerned with maintaining hierarchical views of power and authority and beliefs that reserve the work of leadership for formal authority roles (Lambert, 2003). In contrast, contemporary discourses

on leadership are concerned with developing respect and concern for followers and the ability to see followers as crucial sources of knowledge, creativity, and energy for improving the organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007). While traditional discourses work to prevent teacher leadership from developing (Lambert, 2003), contemporary discourses value teacher leaders as sources which have previously been untapped (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Crowther et al. (2009) assert that in the next decade the development of theories of teacher leadership will challenge the broad field of educational administration which reflects traditional discourses on leadership.

In reviewing literature on educational leadership, Crowther et al. (2009) found that until recently there was surprisingly little recognition of the potential of the role for teacher leaders in schools, or for the actual role of teacher leaders in schools. They reviewed four well-known approaches to contemporary educational leadership and their relation to teacher leadership. Transformational leadership, emphasizing the personal traits of the leaders in bringing about social and cultural change has limited historical association with teachers but may now be developing to potentially explain some aspects of teacher leaders' work (Crowther et al., 2009). Strategic leadership, which emphasizes systematic, rational management processes developed and implemented by the leader, was developed primarily with principals and other administrators in mind but is an essential element of teacher leaders' work (Crowther et al., 2009). Educative leadership, with its close responsiveness to cultural context and its advocacy for emancipation or liberation necessarily involves teachers as educative leaders (Crowther et al., 2009). Whereas the principal has previously been seen to be best placed to be involved in this kind of leadership, the influence of teacher leaders over the past ten years has changed dramatically with teachers clearly involved in educative or advocacy functions. The concept of leadership as an organization-wide quality aligns closely with the concept of teacher leadership: firstly, as it implies the existence of leadership capabilities at all levels of an organization and focuses on core organizational processes rather than on positional authority; and secondly as it is essential in enhancing democratic values in the development of future citizens (Crowther et al., 2009). However, the concept does not specify teacher leadership (Crowther et al., 2009).

Crowther et al (2009) maintain that teacher leaders evidence all of the four forms of educational leadership that they used as benchmarks for legitimate leadership action. While transformational, strategic, and educative forms of leadership developed with a

focus on the position of principal and organization-wide leadership does not entail a conceptualization of teacher leadership, all of the four forms have clear relevance to teacher leaders. Crowther et al. (2009) maintain that over the last decade of development of educational leadership, "… teacher leadership stands tall, if not supreme" (p. 36).

Other authors also draw parallels between discourses on leadership generally and teacher leadership in particular. For example, Murphy (2005) states that the evolving nature of leadership in post-industrial organizations is one of the fundamental sources of the teacher leadership phenomenon. He draws a link between transformational leadership and teacher leadership, and suggests that the role of the formal leaders in the organization, especially the presence or absence of transformational leadership, can have a profound influence on whether the theory powering teacher leadership functions as hypothesized. Gronn (2000) views distributed leadership theory in relation to teacher leadership, noting that it incorporates the activities of multiple groups of individuals involved in the change process, it stretches the leadership function over multiple leaders, and it implies an interdependency and shared responsibility for leadership. Owens and Valesky (2007) and Heifetz (1994) advocate for adaptive leadership in today's schools to confront adaptive problems which arise from the need for change and to which there can be no advance blueprint for solutions. This requires the insights of teacher leaders at various levels in the school and their involvement and cooperation in leadership processes iteratively over time (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Fullan (2001a) suggests that, in the complexity of modern human society, leaders must harness collective capacity to meet the challenges of the difficult circumstances, implying the need for teacher leaders to nurture a culture of success by encouraging collective responsibility in addressing school-wide challenges, as featured in the Teachers as Leaders Framework in Crowther et al. (2009, p. 3).

As evident in the arguments put forward by Crowther et al. (2009), Murphy (2005), Gronn (2000), Owens and Valesky (2007) and Fullan (2001a) there is a relation between the prevalent discourses on leadership evident in an organization and the potential to fully develop teacher leadership. This holds implications for a school intentionally seeking to develop teacher leadership. With the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, it would be logical to assume that prevalent discourses of leadership held throughout the school from a range of perspectives would inevitably be questioned, challenged, and changed to incorporate and reflect the development of teacher leadership.

2.7 Organizational context

Organizational context is reviewed to address the second research sub-question, paying attention to relationships and culture within a context.

As previously noted, Morgan (1997) explains that the pervasive concept of organization is a product of the mechanical age and new organizing principles are needed to make the transition to, and meet the challenges of, the electronic age. When considering organizational context, it is important to keep in mind Morgan's perspective that through creative images that allow individuals to act in new ways, it is possible to rethink almost every aspect of organization and management including organizational structure, strategy, and change, to revitalize and reform and create new ways of understanding organization. It is also important to keep in mind the caution that it is impossible to 'imaginize' and develop new styles of organization and management while continuing to think in old ways (Morgan, www.imaginiz.com, April 2009).

The development of teacher leadership is closely linked to the context of the school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Mitchell (1997) explains that activities designed to develop teacher leadership have been thwarted by constraining contexts. New approaches to teacher leadership are not likely to be effective if they are not supported by broader organizational and institutional contexts in which they develop and function (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002). Simply stated by Lieberman and Miller (2008d), "… context matters" (p. 38). Contexts present different demands and require different perspectives (Lieberman & Miller, 2008e). In particular, traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic organizational contexts of schools are not conducive to the development of teacher leadership (Murphy, 2005), as they challenge the long-standing and deeply rooted patterns of teacher isolation and autonomy which are evident in such contexts (Murphy, 2005). The behaviors associated with new roles and norms cannot be accommodated within traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic contexts. Further, within such contexts, teachers are discouraged from taking on additional responsibility (Smyser, 1995) and teachers find it difficult to view themselves and one another as leaders in the current contexts of schools (Coyle, 1997). However, Murphy (2005) maintains that teacher leadership is both a catalyst for and an outcome of a shift away from a narrow focus on hierarchical organizational systems and institutional views of schooling.

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) state that, "… if the context where teacher leadership takes place is important, then the relationships within that context are pivotal" (p. 29). New approaches to teacher leadership imply substantially different working relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators (Smylie & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992; Harris & Muijs, 2003). Ogawa and Bossert (1995) note that leadership is embedded in the relationships that exist among those who take on leadership roles, rather than being embedded in particular roles. Further, Crowther et al. (2009) point out the need for relationships which bind students, teachers and leaders through trust, collaboration, shared mission, risk taking and ongoing professional learning in the creation of professional learning organizations. The new relationships found in professional learning communities are seen to be crucial for schools (Fullan, 2001a).

Owens and Valesky (2007) point out that the character and quality of relationships between leaders and followers are reflections of the bedrock assumptions that the leaders hold about people in the work place, which influence what types of interactions are considered desirable and how they are likely to be elicited. They use Douglas McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y to illustrate the way that differing assumptions about people in the workplace can lead to differing kinds of relationships between leaders and followers (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Briefly, the concept is as follows. If leaders hold Theory X assumptions that people dislike work and will avoid it whenever possible, they need close supervision to keep on task, they will shirk responsibility and seek formal direction from those in charge, they value their job over other job-related factors and have little ambition, relationships will manifest accordingly (Owens & Valesky, 2007). If leaders hold Theory Y assumptions that people will accept work as natural and as acceptable as play if it is satisfying to them, they will use initiative, self-direction, and self-control if committed to the objectives of the organization, they will accept and seek responsibility under proper conditions, and they value creativity and seek opportunities to be creative at work, a very different kind of relationship will manifest (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Influencing both the context and the relationships within the school is the prevailing culture of the school. Culture refers to "… shared designs for living ... not the people or things or behavior themselves [and] can be equated with the shared models people carry in their minds for perceiving, relating to and interpreting the world around them" (Spindler, 1984, as cited in Sergiovanni, 2005, p. 27). March (1984) makes the point that administrative theory may underestimate the significance of these interpretations and their influence on

the effectiveness of an organization. Deal and Peterson (1999) explain that positive cultures affect many features of schools: including effectiveness and productivity; collegial and collaborative activities that foster better communication and problem-solving practices; change and improvement efforts; commitment and identification of staff, students and administrators; energy, motivation, and vitality of staff, students and community; and daily behaviour and attention to what is important and valued. They (Deal & Peterson, 1999) emphasize that sustaining strong, positive cultures requires leadership from everyone, and that successful school improvement initiatives must be embedded in supportive, spirit-filled cultures. Similarly, Crowther et al. (2009) stress that, given the complex, multidimensional nature of culture, the "… responsibility for its development should be shared across a broad spectrum of the school community" (p. 79).

Building a positive culture is seen to be crucial to enhancing or deterring reform and innovation (Robins & Alvy, 2004; Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson, & Hahn, 2002; Crowther et al., 2009). Deal and Peterson (1999) relate a five-year study of school restructuring carried out by Newmann et al. (1996) which found that, along with new structures, a professional culture was necessary for successful reform. Though culture is a natural by-product of people working in close proximity, it can be a positive or negative influence on school effectiveness (Marzano, Water & McNulty, 2005). Crowther et al (2009) point out that the various dimensions of school culture can be managed and shaped in constructive or negative ways. For example, Deal and Peterson (1999) cite cases of fragmented cultures where there is not a sense of togetherness or shared purpose and of dysfunctional cultures where teachers feel personally lost or pessimistic, discouraged, and despondent. In line with this, the culture within a school may actually create dynamics that obstruct efforts to develop teacher leadership in schools (Murphy, 2005).

2.8 Motivation

The third and final research sub-question relates to the factors that motivate members of an organization to participate in improvement initiatives.

Murphy (2005) expresses his surprise that "… systematic exploration of the motivations of those seeking and/or accepting teacher leadership roles and functions is nearly conspicuous by its absence from the literature in this area" (p. 66). Teacher leader motivation needs to be explored so that schools can foster these motivating factors to attract and sustain teacher leader involvement in school improvement. Correspondingly, without an

understanding of what motivates administrators to take on and support this initiative, there is little chance of sustaining their support for the initiative, and consequently little chance of the initiative being successful.

From the research of others Murphy (2005) identifies the following motivational factors for those applying for or involved in teacher leadership roles:

- Personal, intrinsic reasons (Stone, Horejs, & Lomas, 1997) rather than status or extrinsic rewards (Smylie, 1996);
- Dissatisfaction with current curriculum and conditions of work (Smylie, 1996), and to change and improve what exists (Manthei, 1992);
- To satisfy their need for professional growth and stimulation (Manthei, 1992);
- To be catalysts for other teachers' learning (Smylie, 1996);
- To contribute to the profession (Manthei, 1992).

Crowther et al (2009) add to this by identifying the desire to provide students with a better future as the motivation for the teacher leaders uncovered in their case studies.

Discourses on leadership and approaches to relationships are also seen to influence motivation. Owens and Valesky (2007) explain that bureaucratic theory generally holds that people are motivated by the lower levels of needs, with emphasis on pay and benefits, job security, and advancement in rank, rather than higher levels of needs associated with self-esteem, autonomy, and self-direction. Similarly, Fullan (2001a) maintains that for people to experience internal commitment to innovation, it "… cannot be activated from the top but must be nurtured in the behaviours demonstrated on a daily basis in the organizational, and for that to happen people need many leaders around them" (p. 133). Owens and Valesky (2007) explain that transactional and transformational relationships affect motivation differently. In transactional relationships, motivation and effort are limited by the inherent expectations of the agreed upon roles in the transactional relationships (Owens & Valesky, 2007). However, in transformational relationships motivation comes from uniting with others in a mutual commitment to share in solving problems and creating solutions, as well as by the sense of mutual effort or team membership involved (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

In contrast to process theories of motivation which focus on how motivation occurs, content theories of motivation focus on what energizes human behavior (Lunenburg &

Ornstein, 1996). One of the most popular content theories of motivation is the two-factor theory, which was developed by Frederick Herzberg in 1959. Through his intensive research into job satisfaction in industry, Herzberg (1959) developed the two-factor theory of motivation which identifies factors in the work environment that prompt either positive or negative attitudes towards work in general (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996). These attitudes toward work were seen to strongly influence success or failure (Robbins et al., 2004).

In Herzberg's theory, certain factors tend to be consistently related to job satisfaction and others to job dissatisfaction (Robbins et al., 2004). Intrinsic factors, such as advancement, recognition, responsibility, and achievement are seen to be 'satisfiers'. Extrinsic factors, generally related to the environment surrounding the work, such as supervision, salary, working conditions are seen to be 'dissatisfiers' (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Robbins et al., 2004). In general, people who felt good about their work attributed these factors to themselves, while dissatisfied people tended to cite extrinsic factors (Robbins et al., 2004).

Unlike the traditional belief that the opposite of satisfaction is dissatisfaction, both satisfiers and dissatisfiers operate along a dual continuum, indicating that the opposite of 'satisfaction' is 'no satisfaction' and the opposite of 'dissatisfaction' is 'no dissatisfaction' (Robbins et al., 2004). Herzberg (1959) maintained that attention to dissatsifiers could reduce dissatisfaction, yet could not lead directly to satisfaction. While attention to dissatisfiers may ensure minimum levels of performance, it fails to truly motivate as this is possible only through satisfiers (Robbins et al., 2004). To motivate, Herzberg (1959) suggested emphasizing factors associated with the work itself or outcomes directly related from it, like promotional opportunities, opportunities for personal growth, recognition, responsibility, and achievement as these are intrinsically rewarding (Robbins et al., 2004).

Sergiovanni (1996) replicated Herzberg's study with teachers and confirmed the general tenor of the work, confirming that satisfiers and dissatisfiers tend to be mutually exclusive to the work itself and that dissatisfying factors tend to relate to conditions or people in the work environment. He identified key satisfying factors as achievement, recognition, and responsibility, and key factors leading to dissatisfaction as poor interpersonal relationships with students, inadequate supervision, rigid and inflexible school policies and administrative practices, and poor interpersonal relations with colleagues and parents (Sergiovanni, 1996).

With regard to satisfiers, the two studies differed in two key ways. Herzberg (1959) identified advancement and the work itself as satisfiers. However, Sergiovanni (1996) did

not find these two factors of significance to teachers. As structured at the time of his study, Sergiovanni (1996) claimed that teaching offered little opportunity for concrete advancement in terms of a change in status or position. Further, Sergiovanni (1996) found that work itself appeared to both satisfy and dissatisfy teachers and hypothesized that the satisfying aspects of the work related to the unlimited opportunity for creative and varied work, while the dissatisfying aspects of the work related to the maintenance type activities including taking attendance, doing paper work, and supervising at lunch time.

The framework of the two-factor theory of motivation can be applied to help identify what motivates teachers to support the initiative to build leadership capacity at ISA. While Herzberg (1959) investigated general attitudes to their work held by accountants and engineers, and Sergiovanni (1996) investigated general attitudes to their work held by teachers, the framework provides useful insights into general attitudes to the work of building leadership capacity held by administrators and teachers at ISA.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the literature related to an international school seeking to intentionally build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leadership.

To provide a basis for understanding the various outcomes of the initiative to build leadership capacity, a discussion of how organizations can be theorized was undertaken. Given the position of this research that organizations have no presence beyond that of the people who bring them to life, a multi-paradigm approach to theories of organization was considered the most appropriate. The nature of conceptual metaphor as interpretive constructs with the potential to create new images and in turn new ways to act was also explored. Of significance is the inability for individuals to develop new styles of organization and management if they continue to think in old ways. The way individuals conceptualise an organization influences the way in which they are likely to act within an organization.

Sustainability of school improvement and reform was seen to be dependent upon shifting focus away from a limited number of leaders at the top of a hierarchy. The diverse nature of international schools, including the rapid growth of international schools and the high rates of turnover characteristic of the international school context, accentuate these schools' vulnerability to issues related to sustainability of school improvement and reform. It follows that for sustainability of school improvement and reform in international schools to be actualized, particular attention needs to be given to maintaining the momentum,

energy, and commitment to innovation in the face of changes in key personnel. Efforts to build leadership capacity are thus of great importance.

Leadership was seen as a group function through which leaders intentionally seek to influence others, and a review of the nature and quality of the social interactions related to leadership was undertaken. Forms of power and influence were investigated and the influence base of leadership was viewed in a traditional perspective as the downward exercise of power, and from a contemporary perspective as empowerment of teachers to engage in authentic leadership and in decision-making. The challenges and complexities of leadership for change were investigated. Contemporary views of leadership were contrasted with traditional views of leadership, and concepts related to leadership as an organizational property and a professional phenomenon were contrasted with concepts identifying leadership as individually based. Consideration was given to the relationship between the view of leadership held and the consequent potential to develop teacher leadership. The need to build leadership capacity at all levels of the organization as a means of enhancing the chances of successful school improvement and reform was outlined. Building leadership capacity was also seen as critical given the fast paced changes that are part of our current world and the need for improvement and reform to respond to the changes.

Professional learning communities were seen as vital to providing a context in which administrators and teachers can continue to learn together for their individual and collective benefit, and in which teachers can choose to lead. Approaches to learning and reflecting were viewed as essential to renewal and continuous improvement within the context of the professional learning community.

Definitions of teacher leaders and teacher leadership clearly indicate the importance that teacher leaders have in the future of schooling. Pathways to developing teacher leaders were identified and the contributions that teacher leaders can potentially make to school improvement and reform were discussed. Multiple discourses of educational leadership were reviewed in regard to the extent to which the discourses encompassed the notion of teacher leadership. The link between the prevalent discourses of leadership evident and the potential to fully develop teacher leadership was drawn. Prevalent discourses of leadership reflective of traditional images of organizations will prevent the development of new understandings of leadership within schools and consequently limit the development of teacher leadership. The importance of the organizational context in relation to the

potential of developing teacher leadership was emphasized. Particular attention was given to relationships and culture within the context as these have significant influence on the context itself and, therefore, on the development of teacher leadership within the context.

Attracting and sustaining involvement in improvement initiatives is essential to their continued success. A framework of Herzberg's theory of motivation was provided giving insights into factors that lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction within the work place and influence the willingness of administrators and teachers to become and remain part of school improvement efforts.

CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

This chapter describes the way the research was designed and conducted. It explains the research orientation, research strategy, data design and collection procedures and the data analysis processes. In addition, the researcher discusses her position as a practitioner-researcher, the criteria for judging the quality of the study, and ethical considerations.

The focus of the study is one of the school-wide improvement initiatives, building leadership capacity, in which the researcher has been actively involved from its launch. The study explores the perceptions of administrators and teachers in relation to the outcomes of the initiative, how it influenced discourse about leadership in the school, how it influenced the relationships within the school, and what motivated administrators and teachers to become and remain part of the initiative.

3.2 Research orientation

The orientation of this research is qualitative. Characteristics of qualitative research influence both the nature of the research itself and the approach taken by the researcher. In keeping with the characteristics of qualitative research advanced by Rossman and Rallis (1998), the research took place in the natural setting of a school, was emergent rather than prefigured, was fundamentally interpretive, and used multiple methods that were interactive and humanistic. Further, the researcher adopted a holistic view, employed iterative, complex reasoning involving both induction and deduction, and systematically reflected upon who she was in the inquiry, being sensitive to the ways in which her personal biography shaped the study (Rossman & Rallis, 1998).

The purpose of the study was to learn from participants in the school setting how they had experienced the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, the meanings they put on it, and how they interpreted what they experienced (Richards & Morse, 2007) at ISA. This purpose is reflected in the research focus question:

> What happens in an international school when the school intentionally seeks to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, and how does this influence discourse about leadership in the school?

A qualitative orientation was needed to allow the researcher to discover and do justice to the perceptions of the participants and the complexity of their interpretations (Richards & Morse, 2007) in an effort to answer the research focus question.

Throughout the study, the researcher adopted the theoretical perspective of social constructionism (Kuhn, 1970). Brufee (1986) suggests that the assumptions underlying social constructionism may be reflected in a variety of terms, such as "new pragmatism," "dialogism," or "Kuhn," the name of the researcher who first generated interest in the assumptions. Kuhn (1970) proposed a concept of scientific knowledge that assumed knowledge to be identical with the linguistic or symbolic system in which it is formulated, and "intrinsically the common property of a group or else nothing at all" (p. 201). Scientific knowledge was considered as a social construct not as a discovery of reality, in that a group constructed knowledge by justifying it socially through determining some form of consensus around it (Brufee, 1986). It follows that knowledge no longer exists if the group splits up or if the members pass away (Brufee, 1986). Further, Kuhn (1970) maintained that change in scientific knowledge occurred in a revolutionary way rather than in an evolutionary way. The revolutionary way involved scientists in replacing old paradigms of thought with new ones. This contrasted the evolutionary way where scientists were thought to contribute over time to an ever growing accumulation of evidence seen as truth (Kuhn, 1970).

Social constructionists understand that entities such as facts, knowledge, reality, etc. are constructs generated and maintained by communities of like-minded peers, and that the community-generated and community-maintained linguistic or symbolic entities define or "constitute" the communities that generate them (Brufee, 1986). In other words, "social constructionists maintain that humans are actors and participants who create their social world, with the consequences that perspectives, definitions, explanations of causation and discourses are constructed by them" (Patton, 2002, p. 102). This perspective assumes that individuals do not share a single, stable, and fully knowable external reality, but that knowledge is socially constructed and culturally embedded (Patton, 2002). The understandings uncovered are thus "… contextually embedded, interpersonally forged, and necessarily limited" (Neimeyer, 1993). Thus, focus was given to the collective generation and transmission of meaning, emphasizing the influence that culture has on shaping perspectives (Crotty, 2003).

An underlying premise was that different stakeholders would have different experiences and perceptions shaped by cultural and linguistic constructs (Patton, 2002). However, when different stakeholders interact, they do so with the understanding that their different experiences and perceptions of reality are related, and as they act upon this understanding their common knowledge of reality becomes reinforced (Marshall, 1998). Because of this, the researcher's role was to examine the implications of different perceptions or multiple realities without asserting which set of perceptions "are 'right', 'more true', or 'more real' " (Patton, 2002, p. 98), looking for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas (Creswell, 2003). Indeed, Patton (2002) warns that what makes social constructionism so challenging is the issue of judging between competing discourses. In keeping with this perspective, the goal of the research was to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the ongoing process of developing the initiative throughout the school. The intent was to allow the type of information to be collected to emerge from participants in the study (Creswell, 2003).

3.3 Research strategy: case study

A case study strategy was judged to be the most appropriate strategy for this study. A case study may be a detailed examination of one setting, or a single subject, a program, an organization, an event, an activity, or may involve multiple settings, subjects, or depositories of data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002). According to Creswell (1998), a case study is an exploration of a bounded system over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. In this study, the bounded system is the school where the researcher carried out in-depth exploration of the initiative to build leadership capacity over the period of two school years, from August 2006, when the initiative began, to June 2008, when the final data were collected. Multiple sources of data included mixed questionnaires, interviews using a protocol, and focus groups; the context in which the school was situated was an international school context (Stake, 1995).

Several factors influenced the selection of the case for investigation. ISA represents a typical international school in Asia. Being typical, it can be assumed that the insights gained from the study will be informative (Yin, 2003) to other international schools in the region. Additionally, the researcher had a unique opportunity to undertake detailed, in-depth data collection, analysis and description, and thus selected the case on the grounds of its

revelatory nature (Yin, 2003). For example, given her role in the school and the length of time she had been at the school, the historical perspective available to the researcher to allow for in-depth exploration may not have been accessible to her in other schools. For further example, the researcher had access to contextual material needed to fully describe the setting and to provide an in-depth picture of it (Yin, 2003), without being subjected to the whims of gatekeepers seeking to limit perspective (Silverman, 2005). Finally, the case was selected due to the intrinsic interest of the researcher and her desire to achieve as full an understanding of the case as possible, uncovering the complexities of the case (Merriam 1998).

There are various approaches to categorizing case studies and many different types of case studies. Bogdan and Biklen (2007) describe historical organizational case studies, observational case studies, life history case studies, and document case studies as the main types of case studies. A researcher conducting a case study could be interested in substantive conclusions to tell the researcher something about the case or theoretical conclusions to generate theory about the focus of the study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Stake (1995) identifies instrumental case studies as focusing on a specific issue rather than on the case itself, with the case as a vehicle for better understanding of, or insight into, the issue, and intrinsic case studies as focusing on the case in its own right because it holds intrinsic or unusual interest. The researcher is seeking substantive conclusions and identifies both instrumental and intrinsic aspects of the study.

3.4 Design and data collection

As described in Chapter 1, ISA is an international school in Asia providing a pre-kindergarten to grade 12 curriculum for approximately 2, 900 students of expatriate families. The school is located on two campuses and each campus is divided into three divisions: the Elementary School division from pre-kindergarten through Grade Five, the Middle School division from Grade Six to Grade Eight, and the High School division from Grade Nine to Grade Twelve. Participants in the study were volunteers solicited from the entire organization, that is, the administrative team and the teachers in all divisions on both campuses. The three consultants connected with the initiative were also invited to contribute. Anonymity was honoured, all participants were briefed on the purpose of the study in advance of their engagement in it, and all acknowledged informed consent before they engaged in the study, including protection of their rights during the data collection (Creswell, 2003).

The study followed a multimethod qualitatively-driven design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), answering the research questions by using three qualitative methods of data collection. The overall design of the study is shown in Table 3.1 where the links between the research questions, the data collection tools and the approaches to data analysis are described. The research questions guided the development of the mixed questionnaire which was the first method of data collection used. Following data analysis, interviews using a protocol were completed as the second method of data collection. Following further data analysis, focus groups were conducted as the final method of data collection. Thus, the mixing of the methods occurred sequentially, and the data were collected following the requirements of intermethod mixing, also known as method triangulation (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

The data were collected in three phases, from October 2007 to June 2008, and each phase employed one of the primarily qualitative methods:

Phase 1 – mixed questionnaire, conducted from October 2007 to November 2007,

Phase 2 – interviews using a protocol, conducted between February 2008 and April 2008,

Phase 3 – focus groups responding to open-ended questions posed by the researcher to explore findings resulting from earlier phases were conducted in June 2008. Table 3.2 shows the tools used in data collection.

Combining data collection methods provided both convergent and divergent evidence of the effects of and the motivation for the initiative, and increased the potential for the researcher to portray the participants' meanings and perceptions about the initiative rather than her own, thus strengthening the trustworthiness of the study (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Secondary data were used with other data for corroboration (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Official documents recorded by those acting on behalf of the school were available to the researcher. These documents were useful for extended exploration in areas uncovered by the findings. The reflexive journal was not a form of data collection but, rather, served as a place for the researcher to record her thinking and responses to the data as the research process unfolded.

Table 3.1: Links between research questions, data collection tools and data analysis

Research focus question and sub-questions	Data collection: Phase 1 – Mixed questionnaire October to November 2007	Data analysis	Data collection: Phase 2 – Interviews February to April 2008	Data analysis	Data collection: Phase 3 – Focus groups June 2008	Data analysis
- What happens in an international school when the school intentionally seeks to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders?	- Data were collected by responses to open-ended questions - **1**, **2**, **3** on questionnaire	- Occurred concurrently with data gathering - Active exploration of the data was ongoing - Units of data were coded; patterns, categories, or themes were generated - Constant comparative method was applied - General categories were determined in advance based on key topics in questionnaire - Subcategories were established from recurring or emerging patterns or themes - Cross-participant analysis took place - NVivo 7 (QSR, 2007) qualitative software package was used to support analysis - Member checks took place - Reflexive journal was written	- The findings from the questionnaire were used to identify topics on the interview protocol - All administrators and external consultants were interviewed - Purposeful sampling took place to identify information-rich key teachers	- Active exploration of the data was ongoing - Units of data were coded; patterns, categories, or themes were generated or confirmed - Constant comparative method was applied - Subcategories were reviewed according to recurring or emerging patterns or themes - Cross-participant analysis took place - NVivo 7 (QSR, 2007) qualitative software package was used to support analysis - Member checks took place - Reflexive journal was written	- Were conducted to better understand and interpret information and findings from phases 1 & 2 - Focused, in-depth discussion between 6-8 participants - 10 open-ended items were listed on an interview protocol - Purposeful sampling took place to identify key members of focus groups	- Detailed description of the setting was compiled - Units of data were coded; Patterns, categories, or themes generated, adjusted or confirmed - Constant comparative method was applied - Cross-participant analysis - NVivo 7 (QSR, 2007) qualitative software package was used to support analysis - Member checks took place - Reflexive journal was written - Global inferences were made - Findings were presented in descriptive, narrative form - Rich, thick description was written - Holistic analysis of the case was undertaken
- How does this influence discourse about leadership in the school?	- Data were collected by responses to open-ended questions - **4**, **5**, **6** on questionnaire					
- How do discourses related to leadership change from a range of perspectives?						
- What impact does the initiative have on the context of, and relationships within, the organization as a whole?	- Data were collected by responses to open-ended questions - **7**, **8** on questionnaire					
- What motivates administrators and teacher leaders to become and remain part of the initiative and thus sustain the initiative?	- Data were collected by responses to open-ended question - **9** on questionnaire					

Table 3.2: Tools for data collection

Phase 1: Mixed questionnaire	Phase 2: Interviews	Phase 3: Focus groups
- A series of exploratory, in-depth questions were asked. - Open-ended questions, were unconstrained by researcher's preconceptions. - Closed-ended items identified specifics, e.g. gender, nationality, years as an educator. - Was administered to external consultants, administrators, and teachers. - Applied to those at ISA from the beginning of initiative and those who joined in August 2007. - Pilot-tested before administered.	-Topics for protocol were determined by findings from questionnaire. -All administrators and external consultants were interviewed. -Purposeful sampling identified information-rich key teachers to be interviewed. -Guiding questions were reworded where necessary -recorded and transcribed verbatim. -Reflections were written after interviews. -Pilot-tested before administered.	-Used for the researcher to better understand and interpret information and findings from the interviews. -Were focused, in-depth discussions between 6 – 8 participants. -10 open-ended items were listed on an interview protocol. -Purposeful selection of participants was based on findings from interviews.

Phase 1 – Mixed questionnaire

In Phase 1, a mixed questionnaire (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) was administered. The questionnaire employed intramethod mixing (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), using both closed ended and open ended questions. The closed ended section asked participants to identify specifics of gender, nationality, educational background, number of years as an educator, number of years employed at ISA, campus and division at which they work, and type of engagement in the initiative to build leadership capacity, as appropriate. The open ended section consisted of a series of exploratory, in-depth questions designed to gather perspectives related to the research focus question and sub-questions.

The questionnaire was constructed following the principles of questionnaire construction described by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003). Pilot-testing the questionnaire was carried out in mid-October 2007. The participants provided answers in their own words and responded to items in any order (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The use of open-ended questions aimed at providing information that was not constrained by preconceptions held by the researcher.

All members of three stakeholder groups within the school community i.e. external consultants, members of the senior administrative team, and teachers on both campuses were invited to respond to a questionnaire. Wording within the questionnaire was adjusted appropriately to capture the perspectives of the different stakeholder groups. Wording within the questionnaire given to members of the administrative team and to teachers was further adjusted to reflect whether the participant had been involved in the initiative since its inception in August 2006, or whether the participant had been involved in the initiative since joining the school in August 2007. This distinction allowed participants who have been involved in the initiative for different lengths of time to share their perspectives of the situation. In all, five separate questionnaires were created: one for consultants, one for administrators at the school in August 2006, one for administrators who joined the school in August 2007, one for teachers at the school in August 2006, and one for teachers who joined the school in August 2007. Appendix 1 contains examples of all five of the questionnaires distributed.

A group email message was sent to all participants in advance of the launch of the questionnaire to request participation (Appendix 2). The variant forms of the questionnaire were housed on SurveyMonkey, an online survey tool. Weblinks were generated and included in a group email message sent to participants in each of the five separate groups (Appendix 3). Activating the weblink took the participant to the website where the questionnaire could be completed. Six days before the questionnaire was due to close, the Director emailed all administrators and teachers to encourage them to participate in completing the questionnaire (Appendix 4). The number of questionnaire responses was analysed for each of the five groups. Table 3.3 shows the number of links sent and both the number and the percentage returned, and the number of the responses returned as fully, partially, or not completed.

Table 3.3: Number and percentage of questionnaires returned

Group	Links sent	Response returned (% of links sent)	Fully completed (% returned)	Partially completed (% returned)	Not completed (% returned)
Consultants	3	3 (100%)	2 (66.6%)	-	1 (33.3%)
Admin 06	12	12 (100%)	9 (75%)	3 (25%)	-
Admin 07	4	4 (100%)	4 (100%)	-	-
Teacher 06	246	143 (58%)	101 (70.6%)	20 (14%)	22 (15.4%)
Teacher 07	86	45 (52%)	30 (66.7%)	8 (17.8%)	7 (15.6%)
Total	351	207 (58.9%)	146 (70.5%)	31 (15%)	30 (14.5%)

The data were collected by SurveyMonkey and appropriate software was used to aid in data analysis.

Phase 2 – Interviews using a protocol

Findings from the questionnaire were used to pre-specify and list the topics on the interview protocol (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) used in Phase 2. Appendix 5 contains the interview protocol. All members of the extended administrative team, including vice principals and the curriculum consultant were invited to interview and did interview (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Members of senior administrative team interviewed arranged in order of number of years at ISA (least to most)

Admin. interview #	Name	Nationality	Division	Campus	# years at ISA	Gender
3	Daniel	American	ES	North	1	M
7	Don	American	MS	North	1	M
12	Maria	American	ES	South	1	F
15	Maggie	American	ES	South	1	F
14	Joyce	American	Central	Both	2	F
4	Joe	American	HS	North	3	M
6	Abbot	American	HS	South	3	M
8	Aron	American	Central	Both	3	M
10	Larry	American	Central	Both	3	M
5	Paul	American	HS	North	4	M
9	James	Canadian	MS	North	4	M
13	Sandy	Canadian	ES	North	4	F
2	Pam	New Zealand	Central	Both	6	F
1	Eric	American	MS	South	10	M
11	Ed	Canadian	HS	South	11	M

The fifteen administrators evidenced a range of characteristics. They represented the various divisions of the school relatively evenly. There was a significant range from eleven years to one year in the administrators' length of tenure at the school. However, of the fifteen administrators three had been at the school between five and eleven years and twelve had been at the school between one and four years. The majority were at the school between one and four years.

Similarly, all three external consultants were invited to interview and did interview, (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: External consultants interviewed

Consultant Interview #	Name	Nationality	# Years at ISA	Gender
1	Daisy	American	5	F
2	Paul	American	3	M
3	Faye	American	2	F

The external consultants had been engaged at the school over a spread of years ranging from five to two.

To purposefully identify a sample of teacher leaders to interview, all administrators and all teachers at ISA were asked to nominate two to four teacher leaders at ISA whom they valued greatly in their professional lives. Names nominated were rank ordered according to the frequency of nominations. To determine the number of teacher leaders to be interviewed the researcher looked for a natural grouping. This resulted in the selection of fifteen teachers. Details related to the identified teacher leaders interviewed are contained in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Identified teacher leaders interviewed arranged in order of number of years at ISA (least to most)

#	Name	# Nomi-nations	Nationality	Division	Campus	# years at ISA	Gender
9	Jane	8	American	MS	South	2	F
14	Betty	7	American	ES	North	2	F
4	Harold	6	Australian	MS	South	3	M
6	Justin	14	Canadian	MS	South	3	M
7	Joan	12	Australian	ES	South	3	F
12	Mike	7	American	HS	North	3	M
13	Kate	15	Canadian	ES	North	3	F
1	Terry	10	Canadian	ES	South	3	M
5	Melinda	8	New Zealand	MS	South	4	F
10	Marc	9	American	MS	South	4	M
3	Candy	7	New Zealand	HS	North	5	F
2	Connie	11	Canadian	HS	South	6	F
8	Ellen	12	American	ES	South	9	F
11	Nelly	8	American	MS	South	8	F
15	Millie	6	Spanish	HS	South	10	F

The fifteen teachers shared a range of characteristics. There was a significant range from ten to two years in the teachers' length of tenure at the school. Overall, five teachers had been at the school from between five to ten years, ten of the teachers had been at the school from between two to four years. The majority of teachers had been at the school for two to four years. This length of tenure corresponded to the length of tenure represented by the administrators interviewed. The majority of administrators and teacher leaders interviewed had been at ISA for a period of four or less years.

Interviews were arranged to take place over a four week period, in conjunction with the time the researcher would be scheduled for work on each of the campuses. General emails were sent to participants, inviting them to interview and informing them that the researcher would be interacting with them as a student, not in her capacity as an employee at ISA. They also reminded participants of the researcher neutrality, noting that nothing shared would provoke either approval or dissatisfaction. At the time of the interview, each participant signed a consent form outlining details related to confidentiality. The interviews ranged in time between 30 to 40 minutes each.

Based on responses to the questionnaire, guiding questions were developed into a protocol for use during the interviews. Rather than being fixed and inflexible, however, the guiding questions were reworded if necessary to help the interviewee understand the question.

Further, while the questions were covered in approximately the same sequence with each interviewee, a sequence deemed most appropriate and natural at the time of the interview was followed (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). The researcher probed for further information as appropriate (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Open-ended discussion afforded those involved the opportunity to relate their perceptions and experiences, and to emphasize their perceptions as they deemed appropriate (Merriam, 1998). Since getting good data from interviewing is dependent upon asking good questions, pilot interviews were conducted to identify questions that were confusing and needed rewording, and those that did not yield useful data (Merriam, 1998).

Interviews were recorded digitally and then sent to a transcription service where they were transcribed verbatim. The researcher was aware of the possible inaccuracies in the transcriptions due to the simple fact that the person transcribing was unfamiliar with the context in which the interviews took place. Thus, when the transcriptions were returned, the researcher listened again to the interviews matching the spoken versions of the interview with the written versions of the interviews (Merriam, 1998). The transcriptions were then imported into the analysis software. Notes were taken during the interviews, and a summary of, and reflections for, each was written immediately after each interview. The reflections included insights suggested by the interview, descriptive notes on the verbal and/or non-verbal behaviour of the interviewee, and parenthetical thoughts of the researcher (Merriam, 1998). The researcher regarded the interviews as a social interaction (Patton, 2002), in which the researcher and the participants shared in the meaning-making process (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995).

Phase 3 – Focus group

In Phase 3, two focus groups were conducted to help the researcher better understand and interpret information and findings from the questionnaire and the interviews (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Based on the level of engagement of each of the interviewees during the individual interviews and on the extent to which the interviewees proved to be information rich, all interviewees were considered to be information rich and thus worthy of participation in one of the focus groups. One focus group consisted of six of the teacher leaders (Table 3.7). All teacher leaders who had been interviewed were invited to participate in the focus group interview. Those who did participate were simply able to be at the interview, if they had no other commitments at that time.

Table 3.7: Members of teacher leader focus group arranged in order of number of years at ISA (least to most)

Teacher leader focus group	Name	Nationality	Division	Campus	# years at ISA	Gender
3	Terry	Canadian	ES	South	3	M
4	Joan	Australian	ES	South	3	F
6	Justin	Canadian	MS	South	3	M
2	Melinda	New Zealand	MS	South	4	F
1	Connie	Canadian	HS	South	6	F
5	Ellen	American	ES	South	9	F

The six teachers represented a range of characteristics. Again, there was a significant range from three to nine years in the teachers' length of tenure at the school, but the majority of teachers were at the school for four or less years. All of the teachers worked on the South Campus, conveniently where the focus group interview took place.

The other focus group consisted of eight members of the Senior Administrators (Table 3.8). Again, based on the interviews, all members of the Senior Administrative team were considered to be information rich, and thus suitable for participation in the focus group. As with the teacher leader focus group, convenience governed which members of the Senior Administrative Team were able to participate at the pre-arranged time.

Table 3.8: Members of administrative team focus group arranged in order of number of years at ISA (least to most)

Admin. focus group	Name	Nationality	Division	Campus	# years at ISA	Gender
8	Daniel	American	ES	North	1	M
5	Don	American	MS	North	1	M
6	Maria	American	ES	South	1	F
3	Joyce	American	Central	Both	2	F
1	Abbot	American	HS	South	3	M
2	Larry	American	Central	Both	3	M
4	Joe	American	HS	North	3	M
7	Aron	American	Central	Both	3	M

The eight administrators shared common characteristics. All of the administrators had tenure at ISA of less than 4 years. The focus group interviews served to enhance credibility by ensuring that the researcher's interpretation reflected the understanding of the participants (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

When introducing to the focus groups, the researcher outlined the objectives of the groups and the procedures to be followed. In presenting the key findings to date from the data collection, the researcher explained the aim of the group to provide a better, deeper understanding of the findings to help her better interpret the information and the findings, and to identify issues that may surround the findings of which she may be unaware. The researcher reminded the groups that there were no predetermined outcomes for which she was looking, that nothing right or wrong about anything that might be shared, and that all comments were confidential. She explained that her role was to allow members of the focus groups to discuss issues that have come from the data collected to date, by loosely facilitating the discussion around the priorities that they set, in the time frame they decided upon.

Interpretations of the findings in four areas of investigation were presented: Involvement and Sustainability, Leadership and Potentials, Dynamics and Relationships, and Motivation. Each of the four areas was accompanied by open-ended questions to guide the discussion. There was a total of ten open-ended questions on a focus group interview protocol (Appendix 6). There was the possibility for each of the focus groups to raise other relevant issues or ideas. Focus group participants decided the order of discussion (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2007). The teacher leader focus group was approximately 90 minutes and the administrative team focus group was approximately 70 minutes in length.

As in Phase 2, discussion was recorded digitally, transcribed verbatim and checked for accuracy. The transcriptions were then imported into the analysis software. Notes were taken during the focus group interviews, and a summary of and reflections for each was written immediately after each focus group interview. As in Phase 2, the reflections included insights evoked by the interview, descriptive notes on the verbal and/or non-verbal behaviour of the interviewee, and parenthetical thoughts of the researcher (Merriam, 1998). Similarly, the researcher regarded the interviews as a social interaction (Patton, 2002), in which the researcher and the participants shared in the meaning-making process (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995).

3.5 Data analysis

As deemed appropriate for a case study, data analysis involved a detailed description of the setting before analysis of the data to provide answers to the research focus question and sub-questions (Creswell, 2003). While an overview of ISA has been provided in Chapter

One, a deeper analysis of specific aspects of the context of the research of particular relevance to the research questions was undertaken. To aid in analysis of the data, the researcher described changes in the Senior Administrative Team that had occurred over a ten year period, the growth of the school enrolment at the school from 1996-1997 school year, challenges presented by the school configuration of six divisions on two campuses, preparations for re-accreditation, changes in school improvement initiatives, and approaches to school improvement planning.

As appropriate to qualitative methods, the researcher started analysing the data as soon as the research began and active exploration of the data was on-going (Merriam, 1998). Analysing data concurrently, as soon as they were gathered, allowed the data gathering process to be data driven (Richards & Morse, 2007). With 207 responses from the 351 links sent to members of the ISA community, the 58.9% return rate for the questionnaire produced a considerable amount of data in the first phase of data collection. Survey Monkey allowed the researcher constant access to the questionnaire data as they were being collected. Further, once the data had been imported into the analysis software, the researcher had access to the responses per individual participant as well as per individual question.

While reading data collected from the questionnaires from both of these perspectives, the researcher commented on the data and recorded her thoughts and responses to them (Richards, 2005; Merriam, 1998) by adding annotations and memos. For example, common annotations identified recurring comments on topics, like 'CFG,' or 'hierarchy,' or noted observations, like 'unusual' or 'great insight'. For further example, when completing analysis of the data collected from the questionnaires, the researcher wrote a memo stating: "The usual advice is to code generally at first and then move to more specific coding later. However, since I'd developed the nodes from the research questions and from the literature review as part of my proposal, I think I've managed to work with the specifics as well as at a general level."

With a general sense of the data having been gained from this process, the previously established general categories were confirmed. Six broad coding categories had been determined in advance of data collection. The categories were identified based on key topics in the questionnaire which were in turn identified by the key issues raised in the research question and sub-questions. Since the categories directly reflected the purpose of the research (Merriam, 1998), their significance to the study was established in advance.

The six categories that provided the framework for the data collected were: outcomes – what happened; view of leadership; discourses related to leadership changing; desired changes in discourse; organizational context – dynamics; and motivation (Table 3.9). With general insights gained from reviewing the data collected in phase 1, the categories were confirmed as appropriate and units of data were coded. In keeping with Merriam (1998), units of data were heuristic and interpretable within the context of the study.

Table 3.9: Starting list of broad categories for data analysis

Research focus question and sub-questions	Data collection: Phase 1 - Mixed questionnaires	Corresponding broad category in starting list of categories
What happens in an international school when the school intentionally seeks to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders?	Data collected by responses to open-ended questions **1**, **2**, **3** on questionnaire.	Outcomes – what happened?
How does this influence discourse about leadership in the school?	Data collected by responses to open-ended questions **4**, **5**, **6** on questionnaire.	View of leadership. Discourses related to leadership changing.
How do discourses related to leadership change from a range of perspectives?		Desired changes in discourse.
What impact does the initiative have on the context of, and relationships within, the organization as a whole?	Data collected by responses to open-ended questions**7**, **8** on questionnaire.	Organizational context – dynamics.
What motivates administrators and teacher leaders to become and remain part of the initiative, and thus sustain the initiative?	Data collected by responses to open-ended question **9** on questionnaire.	Motivation.

The constant comparative method of data analysis as developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967; & Bogdan & Biklen, 2007) was used to analyse the data. As the basic strategy of the method is compatible with the inductive, concept-building orientation of all qualitative research (Merriam, 1998), it was applicable, even though the method was designed to develop grounded theory, which was not the aim of this study. The basic strategy of the method is to constantly compare pieces of data with each other, sorting them into categories where they have something in common, and looking for recurring regularities in the data (Merriam, 1998). For example, a desired outcome of the initiative to build leadership capacity at ISA was to focus teacher leadership on student learning (ISA, 2006). The category of 'Outcomes – What happened?' contained a sub-category 'Student Learning' which recorded the intention to focus teacher leadership on student learning (ISA, 2006) as

a starting point. Constant comparisons led to this sub-category containing additional data. The Director endorsed the concept stating the focus was “one about student learning and on student learning” (Larry I). Only three other administrators vaguely mentioned students when reflecting about the outcomes of the initiative, and these comments were added to this category. One comment referenced a hope that decisions may lead to making “things better for kids”. Another comment referenced it not being possible “to do everything that we need to do with the quality that we require, unless we have broad based, horizontal leadership,” since the school is such a complex organization “made up of people doing hundreds of different kinds of things simultaneously” for students. The third comment mentioned an outcome of the initiative being an “increased knowledge of curriculum and learning issues.” Comparisons identified two teachers who commented on a positive impact on students and the classroom via questionnaire responses. One teacher felt that more students have been able to participate in after school sports as a result of the initiative, and another feels that a greater willingness to take risks “has created a more positive, informed direction in the classrooms.”

In contrast, comparison identified many more comments centred on concern for the initiative causing a distraction to teaching, the classroom, and student learning. An additional category was created to record these comments. An administrator noted that too much time out of the classroom “has taken its toll on staff morale and also on the ability of teachers to teach,” and stated that “there is so much distraction from teaching that it is suffering.” During the focus group discussion, a teacher leader stated that “I think we lose focus too, that the reason why we’re here is for student learning an there’s a lot of potential and a lot of structures in place for teacher leaders to lead their teams in discussions about student learning and to improve that, but we’re still working on the same structures and we’re spinning our wheels and we keep saying we’re going to talk about it and do things, but we don’t get anywhere.” Approximately twenty comments on questionnaire responses from teachers at ISA at or prior to the beginning of the initiate echo these concerns. One teacher states that, “I am concerned that the demands of the position may be distracting from the teacher’s first priority, the child in the classroom.” Another states that, “I’ve had to take on more roles and responsibilities as a result of this initiative and it ahs negatively impacted the amount of time I have to TEACH.” Another sees that the time that teacher leaders spend away from their classrooms attending committee meetings, etc. as “counter productive”. Further, a teacher who is not in a designated role as

a teacher leader, sees that “more work tends to trickle down to the teachers who aren’t leaders and just want to teach.”

In this way, he six broad categories were divided into sub-categories established to capture recurring or emerging patterns or themes to allow details and subtleties to emerge. Through continuous comparison of incidents, comments, and observations, with each other, further sub-categories were constructed and / or existing sub-categories reconstructed. Table 3.10 indicates the manner in which the purposive coding system allowed categories to be brought together, reviewed and further developed, leading ultimately to developing ideas and taking the enquiry further (Richards, 2005; Patton, 2002). The sub-categories changed significantly throughout the process of data analysis. Column 3 and Column 4 indicate the changes within the sub-categories as the need for additional sub-categories emerged from the data. In some cases, the sub-categories emerged in order to reflect differing perspectives. For example, the category ‘Outcomes – What happened?’ was divided into sub-categories ‘Amongst Admin’ and ‘Amongst Teachers’, so that the perspectives of both groups could be preserved. In other cases, the sub-categories emerged to reflect a theoretical assumption (Richards, 2005). For example, the category ‘View of Leadership’ was divided into the two sub-categories of ‘Traditional, Authority-Based’ and ‘Organizational Property, Professional Phenomenon’ to reflect the current contemporary understandings of leadership referred to in the literature review in Chapter Two. The definition of teacher leadership adopted at ISA, and the framework for teachers as leaders developed by Crowther et al. (2009) was applied throughout the study to guide reflection on the discourse related to leadership. Further, the framework of thetwo main pathways to creating teacher leadership, i.e. role-based strategies and community-based strategies emerged as a means of informing reflection on both discourse related to leadership and the dynamics and relationships in the organization.

Table 3.10: List of categories and sub-categories which emerged from data analysis

Column 1: Broad category in starting list of categories	Column 2: Corresponding sub-categories emerging from data	Column 3: Corresponding sub-categories further established	Column 4: Corresponding sub-categories further established
Outcomes – What happened?	Amongst admin.; Amongst teachers.	Nothing in particular; role-based strategies; Division specific comments.	Negative observations; Positive observations; Involvement of many; Skilful involvement.
View of leadership. Discourses related to leadership changing.	Traditional, authority-based; Organizational property – professional phenomenon. Community-based approaches; Role-based strategies.	Uncertainty; Divisional inconsistency. Authenticity in practices; Better world; Communities of learning; Confront barriers; Culture of success; Ideas of systems.	Disappointment; Positive observations. Nothing – uncertain.
Desired changes in discourse.	Community-based approaches; Role-based strategies.	Collaboration; Instruction & learning; Number of initiatives – focus – time.	Non-hierarchical – less traditional; Cultural – relationships.
Organizational context – dynamics.	Community-based approaches; Role-based strategies. Relationships.	Negative observations; Positive observations; None – uncertain.	Organic – cultural; Traditional – hierarchical.
Motivation.	Admin. & consultants – self; Admin. & consultants – others; Administrators – self; Administrators – others; Teachers – self; Teachers – others.	Personal – intrinsic; Status – extrinsic; Negative observations; Positive observations; Uncertain.	Students' better future; Contribution to profession; Dissatisfaction; Valued.

The categories and sub-categories allowed the researcher to deal more effectively with the large amount of data collected in a systematic manner. It should be emphasised that the categories are "… abstractions derived from the data, not the data themselves" (Merriam, 1998, p. 181). Within each of the categories and sub-categories, the researcher paid attention to the number of times similar comments were coded within a category or sub-category (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This type of counting is suggested by Miles and

Huberman (1994) as a tactic for generating meaning in that identifying a pattern involves identifying the number of times something happens and the consistency with which it happens. It allowed the researcher to generalize the significance of certain categories or sub-categories over others and to look for trends.

Understandings built from analyzing the data were adapted to growing understandings throughout each phase of data collection. Understandings developed at each phase of the data collection process informed the next phase. The research questions were answered primarily from analysis of the data collected during the three phases of the study, by means of mixed questionnaire, interviews using the interview guide approach, and open-ended questions posed to focus groups. Secondary data were also used.

Emerging understandings resulting from the analysis and interpretation aided in the development of a framework for innovations in international schools to be used when getting started with, and when enacting, innovations in an international school context. The framework resulted from global inferences (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) or naturalistic generalizations (Stake, 1995) made in Chapter 6. Making meaning from the data or determining what were the lessons learned (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was the final step in the data analysis and resulted in multiple holistic recommendations which respond to key issues related to innovation in international schools. Data analysis also involved interpreting the data in relation to personal insights, comparing the findings with past literature, applying appropriate theoretical frameworks, and raising questions (Creswell, 1998, 2003). The findings discussed in detail in Chapter 4 were presented in descriptive, narrative form and rich, detailed or thick description was used to convey them (Geertz, 1973; Creswell, 2003) and develop a holistic illustration of the case. Where appropriate, the rich, thick description will allow the reader to generalize and to transfer information and findings to other settings because of shared characteristics (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen, 1993).

3.6 Participant-Researcher

The researcher was one of the six divisional principals at the International School of Asia which provides the context for this case study. The researcher made her assumptions, worldview, and theoretical orientation explicit earlier in this chapter and was aware of the implications of conducting “backyard research” (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Glesne & Peshkin (1992) explain that there are a host of methodological as well as potentially ethical and political dilemmas associated with conducting research at the institution at which one is

employed. While sensitive to the biases inherent in the kind of research undertaken (Merriam, 1998), the researcher was also aware that closeness does not make bias and loss of perspective inevitable (Patton, 2002).

As the primary instrument for data collection and analysis, the researcher was aware that data were mediated through her (Merriam, 1998). She was particularly careful with her dual role of participant and researcher, knowing that her interpretive perspective in the context was shaped by her personal experience and assumptions brought to the research process (Jones, 2002). Her dual role also created the potential for role conflict, for ethical considerations related to the findings affecting the school, and for not eliciting important data (Jones, 2002). Creswell (2003) cautions that this situation could lead to compromises in the researcher's ability to disclose information and raise difficult power issues, as well as creating problems of reporting biased, incomplete, or compromised data. As described in the following section, strategies were employed to ensure that these possible faults were avoided, thus maintaining the trustworthiness of the study.

3.7 Criteria for judging quality

Patton (2002) emphasises that within qualitative inquiry, different philosophical underpinnings or theoretical orientations generate different criteria for judging quality and credibility. He goes on to point out that social construction perspectives have generated new language and new concepts to distinguish quality in qualitative research (Patton, 2002). Lincoln and Guba (1986) suggest replacing the traditional criteria of internal validity with credibility, external validity with transferability, reliability with dependability, and objectivity with confirmability. Table 3.11 presents a comparison of the traditional terms and the contemporary terms for judging quality along with the purpose of the term and the way in which it is evidenced in the study.

Table 3.11: Comparison of terms to judge quality as evidenced in this study

Traditional term from social science	New term related to social constructionism	Purpose	Evidenced in study
Internal validity	Credibility	Determining whether the findings are accurate from the perspective of the researcher, the participant, or the readers of an account; confidence in the 'truth' of the findings.	Triangulation, member checking, prolonged time in the field, peer debriefing/ examination, focus groups researcher's biases, reflective journal.
External validity	Transferability	Generalizability in applying results to new settings, people or samples; showing that the findings have applicability in other contexts.	Rich, thick description, purposive sampling, reflective journal.
Reliability	Dependability	Determining the consistency between the results and the data collected; showing that the findings are consistent and could be repeated.	Member checking focused on accuracy of description of research site and participants, triangulation reflective journal.
Objectivity	Confirmability	Determining the degree of neutrality, or the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the respondents and not researcher bias, motivation, or interest.	Triangulation reflective journal .

Adapted from Merriam (1998, pp. 198-212) and Patton (2002, pp. 544-547).

The term trustworthiness was used to capture the concept that these criteria combine to produce, rather than the traditional term rigor. Multiple strategies were employed in this study to create confidence in the trustworthiness of the findings (Creswell, 2003; Patton, 2002), as shown in Table 3.12 adapted from Creswell (2003) and Patton (2002).

Table 3.12: Strategies to establish trustworthiness of findings

Strategy	Purpose	Evidenced in Study
Triangulation	To examine evidence from different data sources to build a coherent justification for themes; To capture and report multiple perspectives rather than seek a single truth.	Multiple sources of data (questionnaire, interviews, focus groups, journal).
Member checking	To check subjectivity and ensure trustworthiness of the findings.	Data, analytic categories, interpretations, and conclusions are tested with the members of those groups from whom the data were originally collected.
Rich, thick description	To convey the findings in a way that may transport the readers to the setting and give the discussion a sense of shared experience.	Findings presented in descriptive, narrative form.
Embrace subjectivity and clarify bias	To create an open and honest narrative that will resonate with readers; To develop deeper understanding of the human dimensions of the world in general as well as of the phenomena studied.	Made explicit, reflexive journaling, and including self-reflection as part of the narrative.
Prolonged time in field	To develop an in-depth understanding of the case, and to convey detail about the context and participants.	A long-time employee at the school, practitioner-researcher, extensive knowledge of context, existing relationships with participants.
Peer debriefing /examination	To locate a person to review and ask questions about the findings as they emerge.	Informal and formal discussions with peers, periodic reviews with supervisors.

Adapted from Creswell (2003, p. 196) and Patton (2002, pp. 544-547).

Lincoln and Guba (1986) further suggest that authenticity receive special consideration. Patton (2002) points out that case studies, findings and reports related to social constructionism are explicitly informed by attention to praxis and reflexivity, "… that is understanding how one's own experiences and background affect what one understands and how one acts in the world, including acts of inquiry" (p. 546). For the study to be authentic, the researcher practiced reflective consciousness about her own perspective, appreciation for the perspectives of others, and fairness in depicting constructions in the values that underlay them (Patton, 2002). To maximize reflexivity through ongoing examination of "what I know and how I know it" (Patton, 2002, p. 46), the researcher

engaged in triangulated reflexive inquiry through her journaling, regularly responding to the sets of questions recommended by Patton (2002), as shown in Table 3.13. In addition, cogent rationales were documented for each decision made, which included reflection and discernment about the motivations which influenced the decisions (Jones, 2002).

Table 3.13: Questions related to triangulated reflexive inquiry

Type of Questions	Examples	Purpose
Self-reflexivity	What do I know? How do I know? What shapes and has shaped my perspective? How have my perceptions and my background affected the data I have collected and my analysis of those data? How do I perceive those I have studied? With what voice do I share my perspective? What do I do with what I have found?	To challenge the researcher to also be a learner, To reflect on the ways she understands knowledge and the construction of knowledge, To be attentive to her own perspective and voice, To become aware of her own reflexive screens: culture, age, gender, class, social status, education, family, political praxis, language, and values, To be continuously aware of the dual role of practitioner-researcher.
Reflexivity about those studied	How do those studied know what they know? What shapes and has shaped their worldview? How do they perceive me? Why? How do I know?	To be attentive to the perspective and voice of others, To become aware of the reflexive screens of others: culture, age, gender, class, social status, education, family, political praxis, language, and values.
Reflexivity about audience	How do those who receive my findings make sense of what I give them? What perspectives do they bring to the findings I offer? How do they perceive me? How do I perceive them? How do these perceptions affect what I report and how I report it?	To anticipate how the findings will be understood, To reflect on the nature of the reporter-audience interaction.

Adapted from Patton (2003, pp. 494-495).

Particular attention was given to journaling as a strategy to help the researcher remain aware of her dual role of practitioner and researcher. Often, entries regarding reflexivity about those studied prompted self-reflexivity and vice versa, bringing the dual role into focus. For example, well after the researcher had interviewed Joan, she recorded: “I had a delightful conversation with Joan today. As a key player in the CFG development, she has an

interesting sense of the comments people make and what lies behind them. She reminded me of a comment I'd made at the PD presentation in which she co-presented on the Mentor Group. Apparently, I said that: "Administrators are human beings too!" The comment seemed to amuse her to the extent that we shared a giggle about it. She reminded me of the mission behind CFG wanting to empower all people involved with schools to work collaboratively in reflective, democratic communities. Apparently, my comment was in relation to 'all people' and that administrators should be included as part of the 'all people'. Without the antagonism between teacher and administrator, so much more could be achieved. What does Joan's comments indicate about her (and other teachers) impressions of administrators? Joan has experienced several large school contexts and I wonder how the administrators functioned within them. I think she'd like to see leadership in ACTS rather than ROLES, the more dynamic and more organizational views that Murphy (2005) promotes, but I think she's yet to live it. In people like Joan and her commitment to CFGs, there is great hope! I'm pleased she's willing to interact with me so openly – would she have done so without the study?" The journal entries were regularly reflected upon to confirm emerging issues and themes, as well as to promote self-reflexivity, encouraging the researcher to own and to be reflective about her own voice and perspective (Patton, 2002).

Entries related to reflexivity about audience took various forms, often prompted by reflexivity about those studied. For example, the researcher recorded: "The whole 'power and influence business' was on my mind today. Patton's (2002) statements about language existing to communicate the social construction of the dominant members in the group reflect concerns of social construction being influenced by power held by the most influential. Since Larry as Director is the most influential, how does the power held by him influence others and what is the reality that he is striving to construct? My discoveries are likely to be perceived very differently by those with different abilities to influence. Should I be concerned that the most influential are those most likely to be in a position to give me my next job?" Regular review of the entries helped the researcher anticipate how the findings would be heard and understood.

Journal entries also recorded rationales behind decisions made during the study. These were made following the making of significant decisions. For example, the researcher noted: "One of the key things I've done today is to make sure that all data coded at sub-nodes is coded at parent nodes to allow greater flexibility when searching. I also looked for

nodes that had no coding and considered deleting them. As some of them were part of the structure set up initially, reflecting Crowther et al (2002) thoughts on teacher leadership I decided to leave them in case there was data from the interviews that could be coded at the nodes."

Journaling allowed the researcher to practice reflective consciousness throughout the study. The entries kept the researcher aware of her own perspective, and heightened her awareness of the perspectives of others. Journaling played a key role in assisting the researcher to remain aware of her dual role as practitioner and researcher.

3.8 Ethics

In July 2007, fully understanding nature of the study to be undertaken and how ISA could benefit from the study, the Director granted permission for participants to be recruited from within ISA and willingly agreed to participate in the study. In October 2007, an Ethics Clearance was granted by the University of Southern Queensland Ethics Committee to conduct the research. All conditions detailed in the Ethics Clearance have been upheld in all stages of the study. All participants, both teachers and administrators at ISA, were briefed on the nature and purpose of the research. Anonymity has been ensured as the name of the school and the names of participants have been changed. Further, any significant titles for positions within the school have been changed to protect the identity of the participants.

The researcher was aware that her dual role of principal and researcher created the potential for role conflict, for ethical considerations related to the findings affecting the school. From the outset, all participants were made aware that the findings of the research would be available to any interested parties at ISA. In this way the potential of compromising the researcher's ability to disclose information or raise difficult issues discovered was mitigated against.

39 Conclusion

This study's qualitative orientation is appropriate to the purpose of the study, in that it allowed the researcher to learn from participants in the natural setting of ISA how they had experienced the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, and to explore the meanings they attached to it, and the range of interpretations

they drew from what they experienced. The case study strategy allowed holistic focus on the context of the study and in-depth exploration through multiple sources of data. The multimethod qualitatively-driven design (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) sequentially applied three qualitative methods of data collection in line with the three phases of the study: mixed questionnaire, interviews using a protocol, and focus groups. Data were analysed concurrently using the constant comparison method of data analysis, and the understandings constructed from the data at one phase informed the data collection process and the growing understandings of the next phase. The researcher has exercised considerable sensitivity and has systematically reflected upon her role as participant-researcher in the study. The trustworthiness of the study has been established using various techniques as outlined in this chapter.

The rich, thick description used to communicate the findings conveys them in a way that allows readers to vicariously experience the setting and a sense of the outcomes associated with the initiative to build leadership capacity, thus aiding transferability of the findings to other contexts. The following chapter, Chapter Four, presents the findings that have resulted from the methods applied.

CHAPTER 4 – DATA PRESENTATION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the data collected during the study. The chapter begins with an overview of the context in which the data were collected. Next, the general context is described along with aspects of the context of particular relevance to the research questions, including descriptions of the changes in the Senior Administrative Team that had occurred over a ten year period, the growth of enrolment at the school from the 1996-1997 school year, the challenges presented by the school configuration of six divisions on two campuses, the preparations for re-accreditation, the changes in school improvement initiatives, and the approaches to school improvement planning. Data presented were gathered from all three phases of the data collection: phase one, a mixed questionnaire; phase two, interviews using the interview guide approach; and phase three, open-ended questions posed in focus groups. The data were collected in the 2007-2008 school year at ISA.

4.2 General context

This study is situated within the context of the International School of Asia, an international school offering a pre-kindergarten to grade 12 curriculum to approximately 3000 students. It is located in a city in Asia where its two campuses are located on opposite sides of the city. Both campuses are served by a Central Administration which consists primarily of a Director, Deputy Director and Curriculum Coordinator. In addition, both campuses are served by departments of Development, Communications and Marketing, Finance, and Human Resources. There are three divisions, elementary, middle and high school, on each of the two campuses.

Changes within the Senior Administrative Team

When the data were collected for this study, during the 2007-2008 school year, the Director, Larry, was in his third school year at ISA. When he arrived at the school in the 2005-2006 school year, Larry decided to reinstate the position of Deputy Director. The decision to dissolve the position had been made by the previous Director during the 2003-2004 school year to take effect for the 2004-2005 school year. Larry recruited Cindy to the position of Deputy Director and they worked very closely together for two years. Cindy left

her role of Deputy Director at the end of her initial two-year contract. Aron replaced her as Deputy Director.

At the time the data were collected, Aron was new to the role of Deputy Director. He joined the school in the same year as Larry and Cindy, and had served on the Senior Administrative Team for the two previous school years, in two different roles. When first recruited by Larry, Aron filled the role of Elementary Principal on the North Campus, and in his second year at the school, he served as the K-8 Principal on the North Campus. Essentially, in his three years at the school, Aron had had three different roles.

In the ten school years from August 1997 to July 2007, the kinds of changes to the Senior Administrative Team described in the paragraph above were typical. For example, in August 2007, at the beginning of the school year in which the data for the study were collected, Larry made other changes in addition to the appointment of a new Deputy Director. Three positions were added: Chief Financial Officer, Curriculum Coordinator, and Director of Marketing and Development. The role of CFO expanded and eventually replaced the role of Business Manager. The role of Curriculum Coordinator had existed as part of the Senior Administrative Team structure from August 1999 to July 2001, and in some other years was a part of the role of the Deputy Director. Similarly, the role of Director of Marketing and Development expanded and replaced the role of Director of Development, which had been part of the Team structure in some years and not in others. Also in August 2007, across the Elementary, Middle and High School divisions on each of ISA's two campuses, three of the six divisional principals were new to the school. On the North campus, the Elementary School and the Middle School Principals were new to ISA. On the South campus, the Elementary School Principal was new to the school. In fact, the researcher has "watched the entire administrative team turnover in the last three years" (Larry I).

Reflecting back from the 2007-2008 school year, the number of changes in some leadership positions is noteworthy. The Middle School on the North Campus effectively had five leaders in five years (Joe I), while the Elementary School on the North Campus had three leaders in those five years. Along with the changes at the divisional or district level, the Director also changed during the five year period, and the "change in leadership at the school level and the district level have added to the challenges and the opportunities" (Consultant 1Q). As mentioned in Chapter 1, in the ten school years prior to 2007-2008 school year, at least one key member of the Senior Administrative Team changed in nine of the ten years, five or more members changed in four of the ten years, and the configuration

of the Team changed in nine out of the ten years. Table 4.1 shows the changes in personnel and in structures for the Senior Administrative Team over the past 10 years.

Several of the changes made by Larry to the Senior Administrative Team reflect the growth experienced at ISA. For example, prior to Larry's arrival, one principal served the needs of the North Campus. In its opening year, the 1996-1997 school year, the highest enrolment for the year on the North Campus was 13 students. Eight school years later in the 2004-2005 school year, the final year with one principal, the highest enrolment was 450 students. In the following two school years, two principals managed the highest enrolment of first 650 students and then 910 students. In the 2007-2008 school year, the year in which the data were collected, three principals managed the highest enrolment of 1185 students. The addition and expansion of roles for members of the Senior Administrative Team can also be seen as a response to growth of the school.

There has been a significant amount of change in the Senior Administrative Team over an extended number of years. This is evident in the rate of turnover and in the variety of configurations of members of the Team. Growth of the school has contributed to the changes.

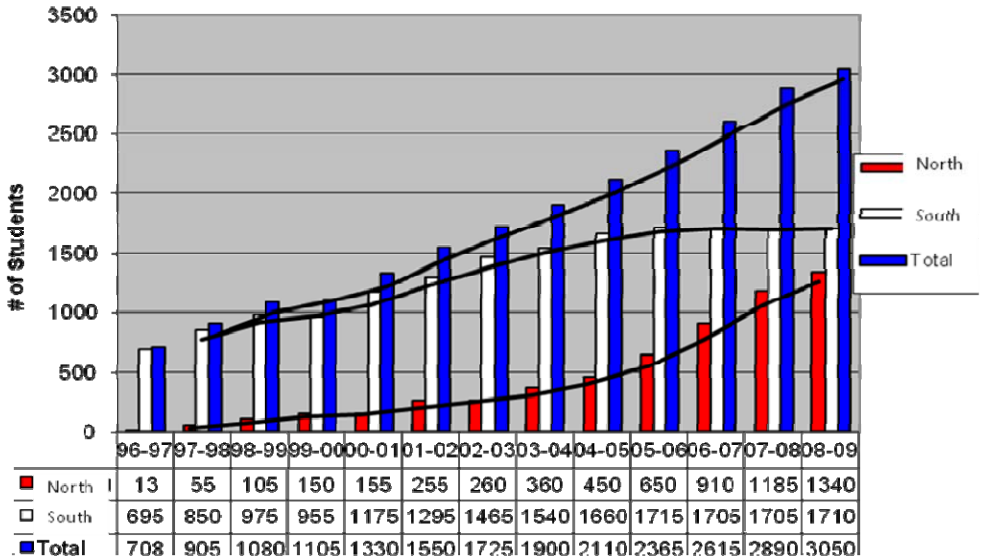
Growth of the school

The growth of the expatriate community in the city in which ISA is located mirrors the growth of the foreign business community. This growth generated increasing enrolment for ISA. The South campus reached its predetermined maximum capacity in the 2005-2006 school year, so enrolment has remained stable since then. Enrolment on the North campus continues to increase. Periods of increasing enrolment in turn generated the need for expanded facilities. Figure 4.1 shows the Enrolment School Years 1996-1997 through 2008-2009 as forecast. The highest enrolment figures for a given year are used and are rounded to the nearest five or ten.

Table 4.1: Administrative team 1997 – 1998 to 2008 – 2009 school years

	Director	Deputy Director	CFO	Business Manager	Sth HS Principal	Nth HS Principal	Sth MS Principal	Nth MS Principal	Sth ES Principal	Nth ES Principal	Curricular Co-ordinator	Director of Develop-ment	Director of Mark/ Dev
97–98	Arthur	Leverson	N/A	Lakerton	Carter	N/A	Oliver	Deborah	Alison	Deborah	N/A	Timothy	N/A
98–99	Arthur	Leverson	N/A	Ruthy	Carter	Daniel	Patrick	Daniel	Alison	Daniel	N/A	N/A	N/A
99–00	Harrison	None	N/A	Ruthy	Carter	N/A	Patrick	Daniel	Ricardo	Daniel	Arthur	Gareth	N/A
00–01	Harrison	Gareth	N/A	Ruthy	Trevor	N/A	Patrick	Daniel	Ricardo	Daniel	Arthur	N/A	N/A
01-02	Harrison	Patrick	N/A	Ruthy	Trevor	N/A	Researcher	Marc	Ricardo	Marc	N/A	N/A	N/A
02–03	Harrison	Patrick	N/A	Samuel	Trevor	N/A	Researcher	Marc	Maria	Marc	N/A	N/A	N/A
03–04	Harrison	Patrick	N/A	Samuel	Trevor	N/A	Researcher	Marc	Maria	Marc	N/A	N/A	N/A
04–05	Harrison	None	N/A	Samuel	Trevor	N/A	Researcher	Marc	Maria	Marc	N/A	N/A	N/A
05–06	Larry	Cindy	N/A	Samuel	Trevor	Joe	Researcher	Joe	Maria	Aron	Cindy	N/A	N/A
06–07	Larry	Cindy	N/A	Samuel	Abbot	Joe	Researcher	Aron	Maria	Aron	Cindy	Carlsen	N/A
07–08	Larry	Aron	Lander	Samuel	Abbot	Joe	Researcher	Don	Maria	Daniel	Joyce	N/A	Carlsen
08-09	Larry	Aron	Lander	None	Abbot	Joe	Researcher	Don	Maria	Daniel	Joyce	N/A	Carlsen

Figure 4.1: ISA enrolment school years 1996-97 through 2008-09 (forecast)



	96-97	97-98	98-99	99-00	00-01	01-02	02-03	03-04	04-05	05-06	06-07	07-08	08-09
North	13	55	105	150	155	255	260	360	450	650	910	1185	1340
South	695	850	975	955	1175	1295	1465	1540	1660	1715	1705	1705	1710
Total	708	905	1080	1105	1330	1550	1725	1900	2110	2365	2615	2890	3050

Source: ISA Self Study Report (2008, p. 6).

For periods of time both campuses were located on temporary sites while construction took place. The school moved to the current North site in 1998-1999 and to the current South site in 2000-2001. In the years following, facilities on both campuses have been expanded and improved. When South Campus reached maximum enrolment in 2005-2006, major construction had been completed for that campus. Construction of an Aquatics Centre, a Performing Arts Centre, and an Elementary Administration building was planned to complete the North campus. Inevitably, construction projects cause disruption to regular routines. On the North campus, for example, teachers have moved classrooms in several consecutive years, and operational systems like bus and food services have necessarily been reviewed to cope with increased enrolment.

Increases in enrolment have prompted a corresponding increase in the number of teachers and support staff. In the school year in which the data were collected, 93 of the approximately 370 teachers were new to ISA and approximately 45% of the faculty had less than two years service at ISA. While the rate of turnover for teachers averages approximately four years, increases in enrolment have affected the figures. Throughout the period of rapid growth, ISA has maintained a class size limit of 16 students in lower elementary classes and 18 students throughout the remainder of the school. Therefore, there has also been an increase in the number of classrooms and other facilities to cater for

the growth. Since South Campus reached maximum capacity in the 2005-2006 school year, increases have focused on the North campus. There is a perception that "when you're growing at 80% a year, you don't have a whole lot of extra time to do anything except grow" (Joe I), and that dealing with the growth in the school takes the time and energy of the Senior Administrative Team away from other matters.

In summary, rapid growth in enrolment at ISA has been a feature over several years. This growth has necessitated the expansion of facilities and support services, along with increases in the number of teachers and support staff. Planning and catering for this growth has been time and energy consuming.

Challenge of one school on two campuses

In the 2004-2005 school year, the year prior to Larry's arrival at ISA, the Board of Directors made the decision to re-open the North high school, to offer the growing expatriate community on both sides of the city two pre-K–12 schools offering an ISA education. This decision began discussion about the distinctive characteristics of each of the campuses and the desired comparability of the academic programs offered on each campus. In the 2005-2006 school year, the Senior Administrative Team drafted and presented to the Board of Directors a position paper entitled 'one school: two campuses'. The acronym OS:TC encapsulates this concept. Appendix 7 contains the full details of the position paper.

Conscious efforts have been made to bring the campuses into alignment in significant areas of philosophy and practice. As the North high school developed, lengthy discussions around alignment engaged teachers on both the North and the South campuses. Similarly, the elementary and the middle school divisions on both campuses are engaged in focused efforts to align practices. When curriculum review is undertaken in any subject area, teachers from both campuses are members of joint review committees. The distance between the two campuses makes travel from one campus to the other arduous, and growing traffic congestion adds to the complication. Consequently, face-to-face communication between teachers on either campus is limited. Communication generally takes place by email, telephone or video conference.

The decision by the Board of Directors to operate ISA as one school located on two campuses created the challenge to provide common programs and learning opportunities for students on both campuses, while maintaining the benefits of unique aspects of both

the South and North communities. Communication amongst teachers on both campuses proves difficult to facilitate.

Preparations for reaccreditation

Accreditation with WASC is based on a six-year cycle, with a full Self-Study visit occurring every six years. In the school year in which data were collected, the 2007-2008 school year, ISA was undertaking critical preparations for the Self-Study visit due to occur in October of the following school year. Six Focus Groups were formed at the beginning of the 2007-2008 school year to collect data about various aspects of the school to measure progress in specific areas. Ultimately, each group prepared a written report which included a set of school improvement recommendations. These group reports were included in the school-wide Self Study Report.

To support the work of the Focus Groups, monthly meetings called Facilitator Seminars (FacSem) were created and launched at the beginning of the 2007-2008 school year. All stipended teacher leaders and all members of groups connected to the Self Study process attended these monthly seminars. The meetings were designed to provide stipended teacher leaders with a common understanding of the accreditation related tasks that were to be completed with the groups they led. Stipended teacher leaders attended Facilitator Seminars to be trained to complete tasks within their various groups. Ultimately, the information gathered through the completion of the tasks in smaller groups was channelled back to Aron and Joyce for inclusion in the Self Study documentation. These meetings lasted only for the duration of the 2007-2008 school year.

During the 2007 – 2008 school year, FacSem were conducted to progress the work required in the Self Study process that was a vital step in completing re-accreditation procedures. These processes were layered on top of the existing processes designed to bring about school improvement as targeted in the school improvement initiatives.

4.3 School improvement initiatives

A significant number of school improvement initiatives were undertaken in the 2006-2007 and 2007-2008 school years. A few of these were continued from the previous Senior Administration.

Previous focus – Constructive culture

For three school years prior to 2005-2006 school year, that is, three years prior to Larry and Cindy working at ISA, one of the school-wide improvement initiatives focused attention on developing an understanding of the behaviors that exist in healthy organizations, regardless of industry, size, or other variables, that give evidence of a constructive culture, and on the known need to build such a consistently constructive culture throughout the organization. In the first months of the 2005-2006 school year, administrators present in the school during the time of the culture building initiative invested energy in building a shared understanding of the need for the focus, and the benefits generated from the focus to that point in time. The Board of Directors endorsed this initiative as having the highest priority amongst school improvement initiatives in the school.

During the 2005-2006 school year, Larry and Cindy determined that the initiative would no longer feature as a school-wide improvement initiative. In the 2007-2008 school year when the data were collected, the researcher was the only administrator in the Senior Administrative Team who had been at the school during the culture building initiative. No efforts had been made to introduce members new of the Senior Administrative Team in the 2006-2007 school year to the concepts behind the initiative.

Data collected from teachers who experienced the culture building initiative refer to it positively in a variety of ways. The term 'constructive culture' was commonly used in the school during the period in which the initiative was in focus.

In summary, the initiative to develop and maintain a constructive culture in the school had featured prominently at ISA for a number of years. With the change in Senior Administration in 2005-2006, the initiative ceased to be a school-wide focus, though many at the school during the time of the initiative remember and refer to its positive influence.

Focus for August 2006

In August 2006, at the beginning of the 2006-2007 school year, fifteen school-wide improvement initiatives were launched by Larry and Cindy, in their second year of employment at ISA. Details of the improvements planned were set out in a document called "School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07." Four of the fifteen initiatives reflected initiatives carried over from school improvement plans developed by the previous Director. The remaining eleven initiatives were identified during the 2005-2006 school year, which was Larry and Cindy's first year at the school.

At the launch of the fifteen initiatives, Larry and Cindy explained guidelines for teacher involvement. Teachers were encouraged to see the improvements planned as providing "… opportunity for varying degrees of involvement" (ISA, 2006, p. 1). Everyone in the ISA learning community was encouraged "… to be a leader in one area or another over the course of the year," and everyone was encouraged "… to seek his or her own level depending on interest and time available" (ISA, 2006, p. 1). Larry referred to the opportunities for involvement as a 'smorgasbord' or 'buffet', offering a range of differing levels of participation. A deadline was announced by which those interested in any of the opportunities were to respond.

At the launch, each of the fifteen initiatives was clearly defined (ISA, 2006). The purpose, timeline, chair person, and administrative team representative were published as part of the overview information. As a part of the supporting detailed information, a more specific description of the initiative and the charge for the group was identified. They focused on aspects of the school as a whole, and did not reflect the various divisional initiatives that were undertaken, or the routine undertakings to which divisions were committed. For example, the North and South Elementary School divisions continued an initiative to review Language Arts curriculum, and this initiative demanded considerable collaborative effort from the teachers involved. In all divisions, routine activities like coordinating extended field trips, staging performances, and hosting sporting events continued.

Focus for August 2006 – Building Leadership Capacity

The Senior Administrative Team, under the direction of Larry and Cindy, had spent a year setting the stage for the launch of the improvement plans in August 2006. One of the new initiatives launched was focused on building leadership capacity at ISA, and provided the focus for this study. The overview of the initiative, "Building Leadership Capacity," stated that its purpose was two-fold:

- Develop revised leadership structure over 2-3 year period, and
- Support teacher leadership capacity through Professional Development Program (ISA, 2006, p 1).

The timeline was to be on-going and the persons involved were listed to be Dr Faye Henton, Dr Paul Rusty, Daisy Jones, Teacher Leaders, and Principals. As indicated, the initiative to build leadership capacity was linked to another initiative launched at the same time, that is, Implementation of the ISA Professional Development Plan.

The ISA Professional Development Plan consisted of three parts. The plan was to make available to interested teachers the opportunity to participate in a Master degree program, to undertake training to conduct Critical Friends Groups, and / or to engage in Action research teams (ISA, 2006). Teachers were invited to take the opportunity to involve themselves in one or more of the parts of the Professional Development Plan. There was no overt obligation to do so.

By examining the details of the initiative Building Leadership Capacity a greater understanding of the thinking behind the initiative is possible. Exhibit 4.1 shows the ISA documentation related to the initiative to build leadership capacity.

Exhibit 4.1: Building Leadership Capacity

In order to accomplish 5-year vision, ISA is committed to engaging teachers in various leadership roles within the school. In addition to traditional leadership responsibility of faculty, ISA will emphasize the importance of teacher leadership being directly focused on student learning on specific strategies of the long-range educational plan and on each component of the ISA vision statement. ISA is committed to support and train teachers in order to build leadership capacity of the organization and to focus the majority of our leadership energies on student learning.

Charge

- Develop revised leadership structure over 2-3 year period.
- Identify means for accomplishing "management" tasks while freeing teachers to take on greater role in instructional leadership throughout the school.
- Support teachers in leadership positions by providing clear expectations and leadership training.
- Support teacher leadership capacity through Professional Development Program.

Consultant support for accomplishing charge
Daisy Jones, Dr Faye Henton and Dr Paul Rusty.

Proposed leadership definition
At ISA teacher leaders engage peers in improving student performance through group processes and their individual actions that promote:

- Solutions to problems.
- Innovation to practice.
- Reflection and inquiry related to teaching and learning.

Leadership expectations

- Facilitate effective dialogue among members of the school community.
- Approach every colleague as a valued contributor.
- Build relationships and focus the dialogue on teaching and learning.

- Create forums for sharing, dialogue and critique that may include collaborative planning, critical friends, peer coaching, action research and/or reflective writing.

Leadership skill set

- Knowledgeable of group and organizational dynamics.
- Evokes reflection in others.
- Facilitator.
- Convene and lead conversations.
- Effective practice in group facilitation (nuts and bolts).
- Effective listener.
- Effective communicator.
- Active learner.
- Identify and mobilize resources.
- Connect the thinking and planning of a given group with that of the whole staff.
- The ability to delegate effectively.
- Good organizational skills.

Timeline

Daisy Jones' training for all stipended teacher leaders required Saturday, September 16.
Dr Faye Henton's training for Critical Friends Groups Oct. 5, 6, 7 and April 12, 13 14 for teachers; training for Admin Team Oct. 9 and 10, and April 10 and 11.
On-going development over next three years (ISA, 2006, pp. 4-5).

The timeline implementation of the initiative did not provide information about the involvement of all three consultants. ISA documentation indicates that the initiative will be supported by three consultants: Daisy Jones, Dr Faye Henton and Dr Paul Rusty. While the timeline indicated the dates and the type of involvement by Daisy Jones and Dr Faye Henton, this information is not provided for Dr Paul Rusty.

As stated in the ISA documentation, compulsory training took place for stipended teacher leaders in September 2006 and was led by the consultant, Daisy Jones. The training was entitled, "Developing Leadership Capacity: one day skills workshop." Exhibit 4.2 details the objectives of the training as stated by Cindy in ISA documentation.

<u>Exhibit 4.2: Objectives for Developing Leadership Capacity Skills Workshop</u>

- To review pertinent leadership literature to develop a common framework of effective leadership traits.
- To identify and practice skills and strategies for effective faculty leadership in the context of task force, committee and department, team and grade level activities.
- To develop approaches for:
    a. Dealing with resistance, passive and active,
    b. Reaching consensus,

c. Implementing effective group decision making strategies, use of data in decisions,
d. Nuts and bolts of meetings,
    i. Agenda,
    ii. Minutes,
    iii. Promoting communication and involvement of all members,
    iv. Focusing work on teaching and learning.

In addition, Cindy explained in ISA documentation that the workshop would involve participants in group activities and discussions and would deal with actual agendas and issues currently being addressed at the school. In doing this, participants would implement effective leadership skills together in the workshop setting.

At the training Daisy Jones distributed a workbook entitled, "Leading an Effective Team" (Academy of International School Heads, 2006). Exhibit 4.3 shows the agenda for the training.

Exhibit 4.3: Agenda for Leading an Effective Team

Part 1: Teams in the professional learning community

- What we mean by a 'team'.
- Types of teams.
- Characteristics of effective teams.
- Stages of development of teams.
- Why some people resist teams.
- How we adopt new ideas.

Part 2: The context - Your specific role as a department grade level leader, committee or task force leader

-Overarching role.
-Proximity to student learning.
-Ideas from international schools.
-Some curriculum leadership tools.

Part 3: You as a leader

-Characteristics of effective leaders.
-Specific leadership strategies.
-Using collaborative time effectively (like meetings, agendas, and timing).
- Symbolic leadership.
-Norms of collaborative work.
-Positive team roles.

As indicated in the agenda, the training began with a focus on the term 'professional learning community'. Criteria to identify a professional learning community were listed as follows:

- Everyone is engaged in learning.
- Risk taking is part of a shared ethos.
- Collaboration is embraced by all members of the community.
- Relationships are collegial in nature.
- Educational change is defined in terms of student performance and the capacity of the school to improve student performance (Academy of International School Heads, 2006, p. 3).

Additionally, "… the capacity of teachers to examine student performance data and inform their instruction …" was stated to be the "… cornerstone of a professional learning community" (Academy of International School Heads, 2006, p. 3).

It is important to note that this training was not offered again at the school. Stipended leaders who took up their positions after September 2006 did not have access to this kind of training. Further, there was no review of the workshop for administrators joining the school in the 2007-2008 school year to inform them of the content and the concepts covered by the workshop.

Focus for August 2006 – Professional Development

As stated, one of the school-wide improvement initiatives launched in August 2006 related to the implementation of the ISA Professional Development Plan. To implement the ISA Professional Development Plan, the school was to establish a school-wide Professional Development Committee. In the overview section at the beginning of the ISA document "School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07," the initiative was shown to consist of three parts: Critical Friends Groups (CFG), partnership with Plymouth State University (PSU), and action research teams. In the section of the document which provided the detailed information related to the initiative to implement the ISA Professional Development Plan, specific information was given for Critical Friends Groups (CFG) and the partnership with Plymouth State University (PSU). Specifics related to the third part of the initiative, action research teams, did not appear as a part of the implementation of the ISA Professional Development Plan. Details related to action research teams were given elsewhere in the document, but no link was made between the action research teams and the ISA Professional Development Plan.

The Professional Development Committee charged with implementing the Professional Development Plan, deemed CFG as critical in providing a "protocol for learning effectively from each other" (ISA, 2006, p. 1). Exhibit 4.4 details the ISA documentation related to the Professional Development Committee.

<u>Exhibit 4.4: Professional Development Committee – Critical Friends Groups</u>

Background:

- Identified by PD committee as essential component of PD vision
    - Defined need to adopt a protocol for learning effectively from each other.
- Commitment by Admin team to implement Critical Friends Groups (CFG) protocol.
- Training of teacher facilitators to implement protocol set up for Fall and Spring SY06-07.

Implementation:

- Voluntary participation: self-selected groups.
- Limit to six faculty CFG for school year 06-07.
- Admin team will form a seventh CFG.
- Training offered October 4, 5, 6 and April TBD.
- CFG will meet monthly outside of the teaching school day October through May.

- Each CFG must identify a facilitator, who will attend CFG training and will faithfully implement CFG protocols.
- CFG size: 6-10 members.

Potential CFG:

- ESOL.
- Academic support.
- Technology.
- ES reading.
- 2 or 3 self-selected groups.

Admin Supervisor: Joyce.

The voluntary training that took place for teachers in October 2006 was led by the consultant, Faye Henton. The three-day training was entitled, "Critical Friends Group" and was the first half of the training. The second part of the training took place in April 2007. The first part of the training explored the characteristics of professional learning communities and of Critical Friends Groups.

Discussions around professional learning communities focused on an article, "Building Professional Community in Schools," (Kruse et al., 1994) which linked school reform to an emphasis on 'professionalization' of the work that teachers do in schools. Participants considered the factors described in the article that supported the development of professional learning communities:

- Critical Elements: reflective dialogue, de-privatization of practice, collective focus on student learning, collaboration, shared norms and values.
- Human Resources: openness to improvement, trust and respect, cognitive and skill base, supportive leadership, socialization.
- Structural Conditions: time to meet and talk, physical proximity, interdependent teaching roles, communication structures, and teacher empowerment and school autonomy.

The article concludes that 'Human Resources' i.e. openness to improvement, trust and respect, cognitive and skill base, supportive leadership, and socialization, are the most critical aspects of developing professional learning communities (Kruse et al. 1994). While structural conditions are important, without constant attention to the aspects related to human resources professional learning communities are not likely to develop.

On the basis of this understanding, Critical Friends Groups were introduced as professional learning communities. A CFG was described as "a professional learning community, a small group of educators (6-10) who share a commitment to improving teacher practice and student achievement through a process of collaborative, critical, and continuous learning (National School Reform Faculty, 2006, p. 3). CFG members share their individual experiences and expertise offering each other new perspectives and developing shared knowledge and understanding through four key areas of agreement:

- A commitment to mutual accountability and support,
- Establishment and practice of shared norms,
- Skilled facilitation, and
- The intentional use of structures and processes including protocols (National School Reform Faculty, 2006, p. 1).

Two specific assumptions in regard to CFGs are worthy of note. Firstly, the formation of a CFG is assumed to occur when a group of likeminded teachers gather together to voluntarily form a group, rather than being formed through the workings of some external forces. Secondly, with use over time, protocols become internalized processes that extend " … to more general school culture – to more productive hallway and lounge conversations, more equitable policy and curriculum decisions, and more distributed leadership" (Little & McLaughlin, 1993, and Louise & Kruse, 1995, as cited in National School Reform Faculty, 2006, p. 2).

The October 2006 training for teachers was followed by a two-day training for administrators. Faye Henton provided additional training for both the teacher group and the administrator group in April of 2007. Additionally, a five-day training session took place in the first five days after the end of the school year in June 2007. For teachers, professional development connected to Critical Friends Group training occurred again in the 2007-2008 school year in a similar format, with the first days of training in September and follow-up training in February. There was no specific training for administrators in the 2007-2008 school year. As mentioned earlier, however, there was significant change in membership of the Senior Administrative Team at the end of the 2006-2007 school year, and the 2007-2008 school year started with four new members of the Team, none of whom had prior CFG training.

The partnership with PSU was a means of providing ISA faculty with the potential to earn graduate credit that would lead to a Master in Education in Curriculum and Instruction. The partnership with PSU replaced a similar partnership with SUNY, State University of New York that had existed in the school for the previous four years. In addition to earning credit for coursework, faculty could earn credit for ISA "committee work and task force work related to identified school goals and initiatives", (ISA, 2006, p. 6) as well as through participation in professional development programs offered by the school. Participation in the PSU program offered faculty a chance to earn an advanced degree at a significantly reduced cost. Further, completion of the Master degree program would guarantee faculty a significant increase in annual salary, as the pay scale for the holder of a Bachelor degree and for the holder of a Master degree is different. Exhibit 4.5 shows the related ISA documentation.

Exhibit 4.5: Partnership with Plymouth State University

Background

Upon completion of SUNY cohort, PD Committee sought new partnership through which to offer graduate studies to ISA faculty.

Solution - Provide to ISA faculty graduate credit through Plymouth State University for:

-ISA committee work and task force work related to identified school goals and initiatives.
-Designed courses to offer credit for consultant work and PD programs at ISA.
-M.ED program in Curriculum and Instruction.
-Course work towards Certificate of Advanced Graduate Study (CAGS).
-Course work and credits applicable towards continuing certification in home state.
-Course work that can be transferred to Doctoral Programs through CAGS achievement.
-Degree and certification programs on the Plymouth State University campus in New Hampshire during two summers.

Admin supervisor: Cindy Johnston.

Overall, the expectation for teachers who participated in professional development opportunities like CFG or the PSU program was that they would renew their contracts for at least one additional year following completion of the professional development.

During their first year at ISA, 2005-2006 school year, Larry and Cindy investigated areas of school improvement. At the beginning of the 2006-2007 school year, they launched an extensive plan of school improvement initiatives, the majority of which did not continue the focus of the previous Senior Administrative Team. Teachers were invited to choose where and to what extent they would be involved in the initiatives. Two interrelated initiatives were Building Leadership Capacity and Implementing the ISA Professional Development Plan. Both of these initiatives consisted of component parts and were supported by external consultants (ISA 2006, p7).

Focus for August 2006 – Core Values and Expected School-wide Learning Results

Another of the school-wide improvement initiatives launched in August 2006 related to the review of the mission and vision statements and the development of expected school-wide learning results, ESLRs. An external consultant facilitated the process, and relevant ISA documentation is contained in Exhibit 4.6.

Exhibit 4.6: Core Values and ESLRs

Charge
-Review and revise current Mission statement.
-Review components of Vision and community feedback to review themes or topics to be included in core values.
-Develop written core values statement.
-Review ESLRs developed for previous Mission and Vision.
-Review sample ESLRs from other schools.
-Create ESLRs consistent with Mission, Vision and Core Values statement.

Membership
-Dr Paul Rusty: Scholar-in-Residence.
-Admin Supervisor: Daniel Larry.
-Board of Directors.
-ISA Admin Team.
-Representative focus groups of parents, students, teachers, support staff.

Timeline
-Call for participation and process outlined week of September 18th.
-September – October 2006 (ISA, 2006, p4).

It should be noted that mission and vision statements had been previously established and reviewed under the previous Administrative Team, and that core values and ESLRs had been established by the previous Senior Administrative Team in conjunction with the

previous cycle of the accreditation process. The mascot for the school is an eagle. At some point during the 2006-2007 school year, the ESLRs were envisioned as being framed within an acronym related to the name of the mascot, eagle. The term ESRLs was replaced in general usage with the term EAGLES, standing for Empowered, Adaptable, Global-minded, Literate, Ethical, and Skilled.

Core values and EAGLES were established within the school through a process led by an external consultant involving representatives from various stakeholder groups in the school community.

Focus for August 2007

A similar concept was evident when the school improvement initiatives were launched at the beginning of the 2007-2008 school year. Aron had replaced Cindy as Deputy Director, and Joyce had joined the school as Curriculum Coordinator. Together, Aron and Joyce formed the Educational Programs Office. In addition, the school engaged the services of a consultant, Pam Newly, to support the Educational Programs Office, particularly focusing on the work of the WASC Self Study for reaccreditation purposes. Information about school improvement initiatives was included in the Curriculum and Professional Development Handbook, which was a new publication for the school.

While the essence of the school-wide improvement initiatives launched in August 2006 was comparable to the essence of the initiatives launched in August 2007, there were similarities and differences between the initiatives launched in each of the two years. Similar language was used to describe the initiatives, calling some committees and others task forces. Obviously, initiatives that had been completed in the 2006-2007 school year were not listed as part of the initiatives in August 2007. For example, the Core Values and ESLRs had been developed, so the initiative did not feature in the list of initiatives for August 2007.

Nine of the fifteen initiatives launched the previous year were clearly evident in some form. For example, what was shown as '7 – 10 Math Action Research Team' in the previous year became '6 – 12 Mathematics Program Renewal Task Force' in 2007-2008. Five new initiatives were added, bringing the total number of initiatives to fourteen. The three key additions included 'Facilitator Seminars' (FacSem) focusing primarily on the self study work associated with accreditation; 'Technology: Innovative, Authentic Learning' involving more teachers in the use of technology to enhance learning and communication; and 'Self Study

Focus Groups' consisting of six separate focus groups related to the accreditation process. The initiative related to renewing the Performance Evaluation Program was one of the initiatives listed in 2006-2007 yet, though it continued the following year, it was not listed as an initiative for 2007-2008.

In August 2006, 'Building Leadership Capacity' was listed as one of the Integrated School Improvement Plan Activities, and developing teacher leadership was identified as part of the initiative. In August 2007, the comparable initiative was listed as 'Organizational Norms: Facilitation, CFGs, Teacher Leadership' (ISA, 2007, p. 7). The goals of this initiative were said to be linked to those for curriculum and technology, and work involved in the initiative would focus on:

1. Creating structures through which educators at ISA can examine student learning and adult work;
2. Foster an environment in which all voices are heard, reflective practice is honored, civil discourse is practiced;
3. Develop teacher leadership across the school. (ISA, 2007, p. 7).

The term 'Building Leadership Capacity' did not appear in the ISA documentation that supported the launch of school improvement initiatives for the 2007-2008 school year.

In the Curriculum and Professional Development Handbook (ISA, 2007), Critical Friends Groups were described as providing teachers "… with opportunities to learn together as they look at student work, plan assessments and unit plans, and address dilemmas that arise through their practice" (p. 6). The wording of the previous descriptions offered by Faye Henton and appearing in ISA documentation during the 2006-2007 school year did not appear in the ISA documentation during the 2007-2008 school year.

Key aspects of the professional development initiative were evident again in the 2007-2008 school year (ISA, 2007). However, 'Implementation of the Professional Development Plan' was not listed as a separate initiative. The Curriculum and Professional Development Handbook contained a separate section called 'Professional Development at ISA' (ISA, 2007, p. 8). The Professional Development Committee continued to operate and a range of options were available for teachers interested in Critical Friends Group training and participation. Coursework was offered for credit toward the PSU Master degree program (ISA, 2007, p. 10).

The style of launch and the essence of the school improvement initiatives remained more or less consistent between August 2006 and August 2007. However, there were significant changes to the format of presentation and in the language used in relation to the initiative, 'Building Leadership Capacity'. The initiative, 'Implementing the Professional Development Plan', was no longer considered as an initiative, yet component pieces of CFGs and Master degree courses were still available.

In summary, a total of fifteen school improvement initiatives were undertaken in the 2006-2007 school year. Larry and Cindy had worked closely together during their first year at the school, the 2005-2006 school year to craft the improvement initiatives to be introduced in August 2006, the beginning of their second year at the school. A total of fourteen initiatives were undertaken in 2007-2008, the majority of which were continued from the previous school year. With Cindy's departure from the school and the introduction of the position of Curriculum Coordinator, Larry, Aron and Joyce shared responsibility for the development and the launch of the initiatives. The initiative of 'Building Leadership Capacity' was presented in August 2007 in a significantly different manner to that in which it was presented in August 2006.

School improvement planning at ISA

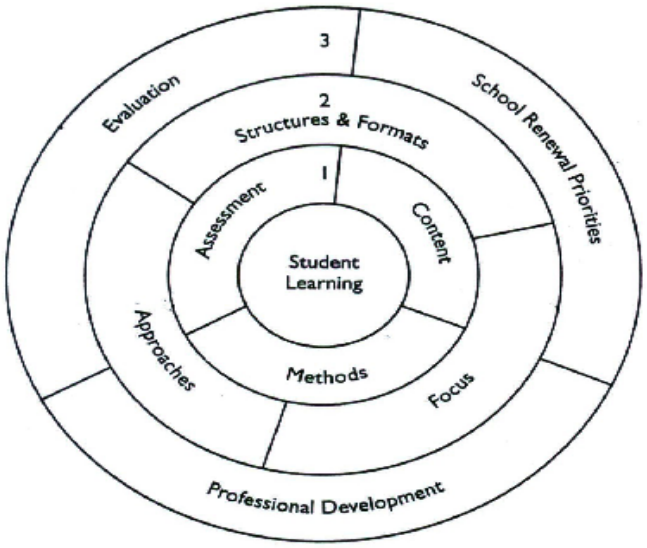
The initiative to build leadership capacity was one of the School Improvement Initiatives launched at the beginning of the 2006-2007 school year. The initiative to build leadership capacity and the other fourteen initiatives launched at that time resulted from school improvement planning at ISA. To fully understand the initiative, the researcher sought to trace its origin as part of overall school improvement planning. School improvement planning at ISA was influenced by several factors. The factors included the work of Carl D. Glickman (2002), the Long Range Educational Plan which is an element of the ISA Integrated Planning Model, and the component pieces of the vision statement, with the vision statement being an element of the ISA Integrated Planning Model (ISA, 2005). These factors are considered in relation to the development of the school improvement initiatives in general and in particular to the development of the initiative to build leadership capacity. At this point, it is important to note again the wording from the ISA School Improvement Initiatives documentation in regard to the initiative to build leadership capacity:

> In order to accomplish 5-year vision, International School of Asia is committed to engaging teachers in various leadership roles within the school. In addition to traditional leadership responsibility of faculty, ISA

> will emphasize the importance of teacher leadership being directly focused on student learning, on specific strategies of the long-range educational plan and on each component of the ISA vision statement. ISA is committed to support and train teachers in order to build leadership capacity of the organization and to focus the majority of our leadership energies on student learning (ISA, 2006, p. 4).

Carl D. Glickman's work influenced school improvement planning at ISA. His book "Leadership for Learning: How to Help Teachers Succeed" (2002) provided the conceptual understanding of the need for a focus on student learning that is reflected in the initiative to build leadership capacity as stated in ISA documentation in August 2006. Glickman (2002) provided a diagram placing student learning at the focus of all that is undertaken in classrooms and schools.

Figure 4.2: Elements that influence student learning in renewing schools and classrooms



Student Learning – The focus of all we do in schools

1. Elements That Directly Influence Students' Learning
   - **Content** of what is taught
   - **Method** used for teaching
   - **Assessment** of student learning
2. Elements That Organize Instructional Leaders' Work with Teachers
   - **Focus** for observations and use of data
   - **Approaches** to working with teachers
   - **Structures and formats** for organizing instructional improvement efforts
3. Elements That Provide the Overarching Context for Instructional Improvement
   - **School renewal priorities** that convey the school vision
   - **Professional development** plans and resources
   - **Evaluation** of how and what students are learning

From Glickman, (2002, p. 7).

The purpose of the diagram is to show the various classroom and school contexts for improving student learning and eventually achieving the overall mission of the school (Glickman, 2002). As described in Figure 4.2 the circular diagram, student learning is directly influenced by the first concentric circle, the curriculum or content of what is taught, the teaching methods, and the diagnostic assessments undertaken. The second concentric circle shows the tools that educational leaders have to improve student learning:

1. Focus on what to attend to in improving teaching, observing classrooms, using achievement data, and considering samples of student work,
2. Approaches from a human relations perspective to use with teachers to increase reflection, problem solving, and improved practice, and
3. Structures and formats of various ways to work individually or in groups with teachers (Glickman, 2002, pp. 7-8).

To have a school wide effect, the first and second circles must be embedded into the third concentric circle which represents the overall vision and renewal priorities, professional development, and an evaluation of how and what students are learning and how this influences future priority setting (Glickman, 2002, p. 8). Glickman (2002) explains that continuous improvement requires a shift of responsibility for growth from the supervisor to the supervisee and from master teacher to mentee, requiring more individual autonomy for influencing student learning.

ISA identified several of the elements listed by Glickman as influencing student learning, for focus during the 2006-2007 school year to promote school improvement. In the first concentric circle, focus was given to <u>content</u>, as reflected in the 'Curriculum Development and Documentation' initiative (ISA, 2006). In the second concentric circle, focus was given to <u>structures and formats</u> for organizing instructional improvement efforts, as reflected in the 'Performance Evaluation Program Committee,' the 'Action Research Teams' and the Critical Friends initiative (ISA, 2006). In the outer circle, focus was given to <u>professional development</u>, as reflected in the 'Professional Development Committee' which was charged with the task of implementing the ISA Professional Development Plan (ISA, 2006).

Glickman (2002) points out that the diagram oversimplifies the complexities of efforts to improve student learning, and explains that comprehensive efforts attending to "… all the elements of the process" (p. 97) provide the greatest potentials for student learning. No

specific reference is made in the diagram to building leadership capacity or to the development of teacher leaders. However, Glickman (2002) identifies Critical Friends as a structure for assisting, focusing, and improving classroom teaching and learning, along with clinical supervision, peer coaching, and classroom action research for teams or study groups.

School improvement planning at ISA was also influenced by the Long Range Educational Plan, which is an element of the ISA Integrated Planning Model (ISA, 2005). In a presentation to the faculty in May 2006 at the end of the 2005-2006 school year, Cindy, the Deputy Director at that time, outlined the timeline for the ISA Integrated Planning Model as follows:

SY04-05

-Mission Statement

SY05-06

-Vision Statement

SY06-07

-Core Values Statement

-Expected Student Learning Results

-Long Range School Improvement Plan

-Three To Five Year Financial Plan (ISA, 2005).

It is noteworthy that the vision statement was re-written in May 2006 and that the Core Values Statement and Expected Student Learning Results (ESLRs) were featured in the School Improvement Initiatives launched in August 2006 and were re-written during the course of the school year. The Long Range School Improvement Plan and the Long Range Education Plan referred to in other ISA documentation are assumed to be the same document (refer to Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Long range educational plan

Initiatives	2007 - 08	2008 - 09	2009 - 10	2010 - 11	2011 – 12
Compensation Additional Personnel Housing	1.Additional Positions	1.Compensa-tion Initiative	1.Compensa-tion Initiative	**1.Broad Range of Students - Special Educational Programming**	**1.Using Technology Innovative Means**
Unique Professional Learning Community	2.Compensation Initiative Housing	**2.Using Technology Through Innovative Means**	**2.Using Technology Through Innovative Means**	2.Compensa-tion Initiative	**2.Enhance China Experience**
Using Technology Innovative Means	**3.Unique Professional Learning Community**	**3.Unique Professional Learning Community**	**3.Unite the Two Campuses**	**3.Using Technology Through Innovative Means**	3.Compensa-tion Initiative
Broad Range of Students - Special Education Programming		*Plan for: Unite the Two Campuses*	**4. Enhance China Experience**	**4. Enhance China Experience**	**4.Professional Learning Community**
Enhance China Experience	*Technology Audit and Beginning Action Plan*	*Plan for: Enhance China Experience*	*Plan for Broad Range of Students - Special Education Programming*	**5. Unique Professional Learning Community**	*Revisit Vision Statement Plan for Next 5 Year Plan*
Unite the Two Campuses	*Technology Plan to Address Communication Needs*	*Review Needs for Broad Range of Students - Special Education Programming*		*Begin Plan for Vision Renewal*	

(Note: The plain text in the table indicates current operational needs of immediate urgency, bold text indicates action plans to be developed to accomplish the vision, and italic text indicates action plans to be developed during that year and funded the next year.)

Both the Vision Statement and the Long Range Education Plan span the years until 2012. It appears that the Vision Statement provided the framework for the Long Range Educational plan as the Vision Statement is featured in the ISA Integrated Planning Model in the year prior to the crafting of the Long Range Educational Plan, and school improvement plans have typically been linked to attainment of the school vision. Key initiatives identified in the vision statement were identified for focus in each of the five years of the Long Range Educational Plan leading to 2012. Beginning to plan for vision renewal was to take place in year four of the Long Range Educational Plan, with a plan for the next five years being

completed in year five. Several of the initiatives in the Long Range Education Plan were also part of the School Improvement Initiatives launched in August 2006.

ISA identifies the initiative 'Building Leadership Capacity' as a separate initiative, which is linked to other aspects of school improvement planning. ISA documentation states that teacher leadership should be "… directly focused on student learning, on specific strategies of the long-range educational plan, and on each component of the vision statement" (ISA, 2006, p. 4). Table 4.3 identifies school improvement initiatives as evidenced in Glickman's (2002) work identifying elements that influence student learning, the long-range educational plan, and the vision statement. The researcher has created this table from involvement in discussions, from available ISA documentation, and from conjecture. Tangible links were not made between the School Improvement Initiatives, Long Range Educational Plan, and Vision Statement. As indicated in the table, there are aspects of each of the three ISA documents that are not represented in the other two ISA documents. This is significant in assessing the planning that led to the conceptualisation of the school improvement initiatives in general and the initiative to build leadership capacity in particular. Inconsistencies in planning are evident.

Table 4.3: School improvement initiatives in relation to school improvement planning

School Improvement Initiative August 2006	Glickman (2002)	Long Range Educational Plan May 2006	Vision Statement Components May 2006
Core Values and ESLRS			
Building Leadership Capacity	"On student learning", Structures and Formats – Critical Friends	"On specific strategies of the long-range educational plan"	"On each component of the ISA vision statement"
Curriculum Development and Documentation	Content - Curriculum		
Implementation of ISA Professional Development Plan	Professional Development	Unique Professional Learning Community	Engage and support teachers, administrators, and staff in a unique professional learning community that provides opportunities to grow, develop, and learn together in all aspects of their professional lives.
Student Programs Committee			
Professional Development Committee	Professional Development	Unique Professional Learning Community	Engage and support teachers, administrators, and staff in a unique professional learning community that provides opportunities to grow, develop, and learn together in all aspects of their professional lives.
Educational Technology Task Force		Using Technology in Innovative means	Use technology in innovative and authentic ways to enhance learning and communication.
ESOL Task Force		Broad Range of Students	Serve, with honor and respect, a broad range of children as identified through a fair and well-defined admission process and complementary learning support programs.
Academic Support Task Force		Broad Range of Students	Serve, with honor and respect, a broad range of children as identified through a fair and well-defined admission process and complementary learning support programs.

Table 4.3: School improvement initiatives in relation to school improvement planning - Continued

School Improvement Initiative August 2006	Glickman (2002)	Long Range Educational Plan May 2006	Vision Statement Components May 2006
Performance Evaluation Program Task Force	Structures and Formats – Clinical Supervision		
Chinese Language Program Task Force			
Middle School at North Task Force		Unite the two campuses	Create programs, assessments and experiences that serve to unite the school and to celebrate the distinctiveness of each campus community.
2-8 ESOL Action Research Team	Structures and Formats – Action Research	Unite the two campuses	Create programs, assessments and experiences that serve to unite the school and to celebrate the distinctiveness of each campus community.
7-10 Math Action Research Team	Structures and Formats – Action Research	Unite the two campuses	Create programs, assessments and experiences that serve to unite the school and to celebrate the distinctiveness of each campus community.
9-10 Science Action Research Team	Structures and Formats – Action Research	Unite the two campuses	Create programs, assessments and experiences that serve to unite the school and to celebrate the distinctiveness of each campus community.
		Compensation Initiative – additional personnel and housing	
		Enhance China Experience	Maximize benefits derived from the cultural and linguistic learning experiences in China and from the rich multi-cultural backgrounds of ISA families.
			Provide well-balanced co-curricular activities and community service programs.
			Be financially secure and constantly strive to assure future financial strength.

The researcher could not ascertain the process followed to identify priorities in each of the three ISA documents reflected in Table 4.3, that is, School Improvement Initiatives, Long Range Educational Plan, and Vision Statement. Further, she is not certain as to the process used to identify the areas where connections exist between the documentation.

In addition, documentation used for reaccreditation purposes with WASC contains school improvement goals identified and set for the school, under the previous Director. This documentation was not reflected in the school improvement planning processes used to determine the School Improvement Initiatives for launch in August 2006. Further, the five-year vision for the school was developed in the 2005 – 2006 school year, without connection to the accreditation process.

General context summary

ISA has experienced significant change and growth in the years prior to the year in which the data were collected. Changes in the membership and the configuration of the Senior Administrative Team and growth of enrolment along with the related growth of facilities, support services, and increases in personnel have been considerable.

Complexity was added to the context due to particular challenges at ISA's stage of development. The efforts to align programs throughout ISA to establish one school on two campuses and to prepare for the reaccreditation of the school through an external agency added to the intensity of the work of the school.

Further, complications in the context were evident due to the extensive program of school improvement initiatives, identified and launched by the Director and Deputy Director in August 2006. With only four of the fifteen initiatives representing work started by the previous Central Administrative Team, the work to be undertaken in the school was considerable and largely new in nature. Two key initiatives were interrelated: Building Leadership Capacity and Implementing ISA's Professional Development Plan.

School improvement planning combines aspects of several planning processes. Glickman (2002) provides key concepts underlying school improvement planning promoting a focus on student learning. Strategies outlined in the long range educational plan, components of the vision, and school improvement initiatives also influence school improvement planning. Influences from the recommendations for school improvement related to the accreditation process are not evident in planning processes.

4.4 Outcomes of the initiative

The outcomes of the initiative are first related from the perspective of the administrators, and the external consultants, and then from the perspective of the teachers. The outcomes are firmly grounded in the data collected in each of the three phases: mixed questionnaire, interviews using a protocol, and focus groups. Comments from each of the phases can be identified. Comments from questionnaires are indicated with a 'Q' and may relate to one of the five participant groups in the study:

- Admin 06: administrators at the school in or prior to August 2006,

- Admin 07: administrators who joined the school in August 2007,

- T 06: teachers at the school in or prior to August 2006,

- T 07: teachers joining the school in August 2007, and

- Con: external consultants.

For example, Admin 06 Q following a comment indicates that the comment was made in the questionnaire by a member of the extended administrative team who was at the school in or prior to August 2006.

For comments made during interviews, names are assigned alongside the comments made by particular individuals. All names have been changed for the sake of confidentiality. Comments made during interviews are indicated with an 'I'. For example, 'Maria I' indicates that Maria made the comment during an interview. Further, 'Con Faye I' identifies that Faye, an external consultant rather than an administrator, made the comment during an interview.

Comments made during focus groups are indicated by 'FG'. These comments may relate to 'Admin', that is, the Administrative Team Focus Group or 'TL' the Teacher Leader Focus Group.

Outcomes of the initiative – The administrative perspective

With the range of initiatives being undertaken throughout the school, there was a lot of activity. Administrators were involved in the various tasks to which they were assigned; co-chairing committees, serving on task forces, interacting with consultants, and participating in program reviews. They were active in support of the initiative, and encouraged teachers to assume leadership roles and to participate in task forces and/or committees. Further, they considered ways to do the work that they normally did, "using teacher leaders" (Maria I). They saw "more and more teachers" taking opportunities to become involved in "purposeful rather than random ways" (Admin FG). That teachers could "take on some leadership roles in our school" if they showed the desire and the flexibility was considered to be a "strength of our system" (Paul I). As the Director noted, "if you are a faculty member of this school and you have an interest in developing your leadership potential, the structures are there to support you, the opportunities are there for you to be involved in various ways ..." (Larry I). Great improvement was made "in having more people involved" (Pam I), and involvement was not "an exclusive thing" (Maggie I). Opportunities for involvement were "open to lots" (Maggie I), yet the problem was noted that one person could not be involved in all of the initiatives going on (Don I) even if he or she wanted to be.

Ultimately, the goal was seen to be to "have a deeper, broader involvement with all members of our school organization" (Aron I).

Through their involvement "in leadership work of the school" teachers were helping the school move toward the vision by completing the component tasks and undertakings that lead to school improvement. Given the focus of the organization, teacher leadership was expected to align with that focus and teacher leaders were expected to help administration accomplish the goals and objectives of the organization (Larry I). Given the many goals and objectives of the school improvement program, the potential for having "more people to carry leadership tasks" was seen as "the only way things would get done" (Joe I).

In the 2005-2006 school year, key understandings were developed in regard to the initiative to build leadership capacity within the context of ISA. Firstly, the understanding had developed that as the organization was growing larger and larger; there "was simply not the means for, on a practical level, the administration to provide effective leadership, if the faculty are not in the role of leaders" (Larry I). Therefore, structures were put into place to support any teacher with an interest in developing leadership potential and opportunities were developed to allow any interested teacher to be involved in "various ways from task forces to committees, to team leaderships, to cohort groups, to critical friends" (Larry I).

Another key shared understanding had also developed within the context of ISA. The Educational Leadership Team agreed to change the focus of the organization "to be one about student learning and on student learning" (Larry I) and to develop ways to promote more conversations focused on student learning. This focus was generated from the Director's very first presentation to the whole school in August 2005 at the beginning of his first year at the school, when he "shared around Roland Barth and Sergiovanni and Mike Fullan and Carl Glickman" (Larry I).

Teacher leaders engaged in a range of administrative and management related tasks, including "passing along information to teachers" (Sandy I). The greater "compartmentalization of tasks" was seen as a positive in that it allowed for tasks to be completed more efficiently (Joe I). The possibility of "embedding some of these things more formally into teacher leader job descriptions" and "looking at the stipend, so that the remuneration better reflects the responsibilities of teachers" was suggested (Pam I).

Increased involvement had positive benefits. Teachers were "more vested in initiatives being forwarded" and the initiative was "giving more people a sense of ownership in the

organization" (Admin 06 Q). The Director pointed out that "teachers are more effective, have a greater sense of efficacy, have a greater sense of personal involvement and fulfillment in the mission and vision of the school, when they are able to take a leadership role" (Larry I).

Teachers' involvement led to advice or recommendations. The Curriculum and Professional Development Handbook for 2007-2008 stated: "Committees are advisory in nature," and "Task Forces serve as recommending bodies." (ISA, 2007, p. 6). Contributions were generally understood to contribute to recommendations made to administration rather than contributing to decisions. Structures were put into place to allow administrators to seek input from teachers (Don I). Administrators "invite people to participate ... but the ultimate decision is always at the discretion of the upper administration," where "all real decision making is happening" (Sandy I). A concern remained that teachers need to be reminded "more often [about] what is expected in their role, whether they are making decisions or whether they are making recommendations" (Pam I). "Communicating the expectations of teacher leadership to teachers" and making sure there was clarity about the responsibilities included in the "expectations of leadership" was seen as critical (Pam I).

However, decision making was seen to have been positively influenced. In building leadership capacity, not allowing responsibility to "rest within the hands of eight to ten administrators" but "diversifying who makes the decisions" was recognized as a key element (Abbot I). The initiative recognized that "there were many, many teachers within this organization that could help with the decision making process" (James I). Teachers valued that they had "more input and involvement in the decision making" than previously (Joe I). Even when involved in "something as simple as ... setting priorities, setting an agenda and even getting group input into something," teachers had "a feeling that they have had a direct input into decisions" (Maria I). So, "using teachers that have been through the CFG training to do even simple things," empowered the process (Maria I). In general, this reflected "a kind of a democratization of leadership" (James I).

Through participation in professional development, teachers were also able to "grow in new and different ways" and to "build their leadership skills" (Sandy I). Teachers who wish to be leaders developed both "their personal and professional skills" (Larry I). "As an organization of professionals, ... devoted to building people," the intention was to improve teachers, so that they would leave ISA "a better teacher than they were when they arrived

and also perhaps a more experienced and more skilled leader than when they arrived" (Ed I).

The professional development opportunities provided gave recognition to the fact that teacher leadership is not "a naturally occurring event" and that people need support or training (Con Faye I). ISA acknowledged that there were leaders in the school who had been given leadership roles, but who may not "know how to lead … what they are supposed to lead" (Con Daisy I). Hence, the professional development aimed at increasing some of "the skills and the techniques and the strategies that they might need in order to be successful" in the leadership roles to which they were assigned (Con Faye I). The "formal professional development around collaborative leadership, specific skill sets for leaders, and for effective group interactions including consultant training programs" (Con Faye I) was seen as a key way to advance teacher leadership.

Administrators recognized that there were some reasons for concern. Administrators knew that teachers felt that ISA was taking on too many initiatives (Joyce I) and trying to do too much, and that there was not enough time to accomplish all that was desired (Paul I). The tension was expected to continue to increase unless Central Administration limited the number of initiatives (Joyce I). As a result of time constraints, teachers were very busy (Eric I) and were "constantly doing two or three things at the same time, or more ..." (Peter I). Greater stress resulted from "greater empowerment of teachers to do things" without providing time, or compensation for increased responsibilities (Joyce I). Concern that teachers were feeling overwhelmed (Sandy I), frustrated (James I), discouraged (Daniel I), and burnt out (Eric I) was raised. "Time constraints and the time issues" added to the sense of concern (Joyce I). "Having enough time to do everything" was acknowledged as one of the age-old issues with which teachers struggled (Peter I). While, the Director recognized that "to reach the vision of being a unique professional learning community, we've got to find creative ways to address the difficulty and get time" (Larry I), and even though he has heard "people say it's stressful", his perspective was "the benefits do outweigh the additional responsibilities and stress that people feel" (Larry I).

Additional concerns were expressed regarding reactions to teacher leaders from other teachers. They could experience "push back from some of their colleagues" who may be frustrated when things don't move fast enough (Aron I). Further, some may view teacher leaders negatively, raising issues such as, "Oh, look at what teacher A is doing, they're just

trying to maybe get on the admin track," or "Why are they doing this, there is not necessarily a compensation for it, are they trying to get ahead?" (James I).

While the majority of administrators saw positive changes in relation to the initiative to build leadership capacity, there was a degree of uncertainty expressed by some administrators as to whether or not the initiative led to change. Actions leading to building leadership capacity could not be identified (Eric I). Also, teacher leadership was seen to exist prior to the commencement of the initiative, even though it was not framed in an articulated school-wide initiative (Ed I).

A few administrators felt that they could have been more familiar with the actual initiative (Eric I). In particular, those new to the administrative team in 2007 were "still unclear" as they'd never "had a conversation with anybody to sit down and explain" the initiative (Maggie I). One of the consultants expressed a similar feeling: "I can't say that I really understood fully what the whole picture was, as I wasn't really part of the conversation" (Daisy I).

Outcomes of the initiative – The teacher perspective

Teachers clearly noted the increased level of activity throughout the school with the range of initiatives in action. In general, there was "greater emphasis on having broad participation in leadership roles" with "many opportunities for teachers to assume leadership roles," and "more people sharing leadership responsibilities" (T 06 Q). The administration was "quite successful at increasing participation among staff on school-wide committees" as there were certainly more people involved in committee work "from faculty who have been in the school beyond 10 years, to those who have been in the school for 1 year" (T 06 Q).

Increased levels of participation and involvement caused some members of the ISA community apprehension for a range of reasons. Firstly, teachers perceived that along with the opportunity to participate was a sense of expectation to "step up" (T 07 Q). They perceived an obligation for "required participation" (T 06 Q) in the initiative. Secondly, the desire for broad participation of teacher leaders did not ring true for many. Teachers perceived that it seemed "to be the same people doing the same roles, just [they're] wearing four hats" (TL FG). Thirdly, there was a sense of a "level of favoritism" associated with who could participate. Teachers perceived that it was "unclear as to how the people

were chosen to be on the committees and how the leaders were chosen" (TL FG). This was in contrast to the idea of "letting people volunteer and it being very transparent" (TL FG).

Many teachers identified a sense of frustration that involvement in the initiative did not always equate with being heard or having influence. Although leadership capacity was talked about and some people were put in leadership roles on committees, the committees were "kind of taken over by someone else in the upper administration" (Terry I). In such cases, the committees "seemed more like a puppet performance, where those people were put in place on paper but in operation they were not leading, they were just kind of there" (Justin I). Further, since the agenda for task forces and committees was generally set at the administrative level, teachers had little opportunity to influence the direction of the work. Because of this, teachers saw themselves as having limited autonomy (T 06 Q).

Through their involvement in the initiative, teachers perceived themselves to be engaged with management tasks rather than with leadership. Teachers saw themselves "engaged more in the details of running the school" (T 06 Q), or acting in ways to support the effective running of the school (Joan I). Teacher leaders were "given specific responsibilities" and were "able to delegate or deal with them" (T 06 Q). They became "highly involved in all aspects of the school, from daily bus duty organizing to membership on the Student Programs Committee" (T 07 Q). A caution was offered, "Just because you are on a committee and you have more opportunity to be involved, that does not mean leadership" (Candy I). This was explained in that being a teacher leader was perceived to be not about sitting on multiple committees and so on, but "what is done before and afterwards, and how you use your work on that committee to influence change" (Candy I).

Teachers did not have "a chance to practice real leadership" and were "not involved in vision setting or developing the 'big picture'" (T 06 Q). They felt they functioned "as 'managers of information' not leaders" (T 06 Q). While expectations for involvement were seen to have been raised, the kind of involvement was regarded as "trivial" (T 06 Q). The increase in "top down initiatives" added to "teachers' paperwork and administrative tasks" (T 06 Q). Teachers felt that with work "coming down from above," there were more tasks to complete and more papers to chase" (T 06 Q). Administration was "expecting more secretarial work of their teachers" (T 06 Q).

A few teachers acknowledged some positive benefits from the increased involvement. With more leadership choices teachers were "able to follow their interests" (T 06 Q). Greater

involvement “in the direction that the school is taking” created a feeling of having “some input” (T 07 Q).

However, the majority of teachers noted that “more opportunities for teachers to be part of committees and task forces” did not mean that they were “taking part in decision making or in shaping the direction of the school” (T 06 Q). There was an understanding “that a lot of decisions have to be top down,” but in decisions that directly affect teacher leaders, they “would have appreciated a voice” (Marc I). It was assumed that teachers knew “that they have access through their team leaders to the decision-makers in the school” (T 06 Q).

Professional development available provided “great opportunities for growth” (T 06 Q). Teachers enjoyed “the large number of opportunities for individuals to put their newly learned skills into practice by volunteering for the many leadership roles available to staff” (T 06 Q). If they wished to do so, teachers could “improve their leadership skills” as they had “a multitude of opportunities to do so” (T 06 Q). However, it was perceived that while “teachers have been engaged in leadership training,” they were “not being used to build leadership capacity” (Nelly I). Rather, the training was seen as a way to help promote “teacher leaders to be thinking along the same sorts of lines” and to run their meetings using the same sort of protocols (Melinda I).

Concern was expressed with regard to the level of genuine engagement with professional development. Teachers who volunteered for leadership roles in the school “seemed more interested in earning credits for PSU than really demonstrating leadership” (T 06 Q). By earning “credits for being on certain task forces and committees,” some seemed more interested in “ticking the box” as the task was completed. Once this was completed, they were “then not referring back to the work done!” (T 06 Q). There seemed to be “a lot of people going through the motions to get their three points for their Masters, and they freely admit it, rather than for any other noble reason” (T 06 Q).

In an effort to share information and expertise, teachers who had engaged in professional development, other than the professional development related to developing leadership skills, were expected to share this with their colleagues. So, the “teachers who've taken on professional development in areas of interest to them have been obliged to take their learning and share it with other teachers” (T 06 Q). Teachers expressed interest in this type of interaction as a means of professional development, seeing “teachers teaching teachers” as “a great way to provide meaningful professional development” (T 06 Q).

Teachers recognized that there were some reasons for concern. “At every level trying to keep up with so many different initiatives,” meant that none of them could be done well (TL FG). Teachers alerted Central Administration that they felt that they were not doing well with so many initiatives and were “losing focus” (TL FG). If teachers “were focusing on one or two initiatives,” it would have solved a lot of problems. It would have meant that “the communication about them would be a lot clearer” because teachers would have “time, more time to reflect and just think” (TL FG). Doing “less things but better” was preferred over doing “too many and bad[ly]” (Millie I). With the “pace of the school and ... so many things going on at the school,” teachers whether “in a leadership position or teachers not in a leadership position” were not seen to be able to “take it all in and do a good job” (Terry I). Teachers understood that the number of initiatives “stretched staff members too thin[ly]” (TL FG). Teachers considered it as “a good thing to build leadership capacity; however ... all the initiatives came down at once and made the teachers feel overwhelmed” (T 06 Q).

Teachers felt “pulled in so many ways” with too many things pulling their time and attention (Kate I). Teachers were seen to be “burning out by stretching themselves or being asked to be involved in too many leadership roles” (T 06 Q). The school was experiencing “overall stress from the top-down because of this initiative when coupled with the others” (T 06 Q). It created “an increasingly high level of stress amongst faculty, which has then been transmitted to our students” (T 06 Q). Nurses recorded increased “rates of visits for both students and teachers for stress-related health issues” (Connie I). The levels of stress for teachers were likened to having “like this little Molotov cocktail cooking around in us sometimes” (Kate I).

The issue of time is closely tied to the concern about stress. For full-time teachers who have leadership positions, time was seen as a definite issue (Kate I). The administration was seen to have “added things to the teachers’ plate, while not giving them more time” (Maggie I). In these conditions, it is difficult to find time to make “extra commitments, when there’s no time given” (Joan I). Ideally, teachers should have “a little bit of release time” to take care of those extra responsibilities, so they didn’t “interfere with the teaching that has to take place” (Terry I). The idea of giving teachers time within their daily schedule to do the things that they’re expected to do was highly regarded (Connie I).

A source of stress for most teachers was identified as a distraction from students and from teaching and learning. Stress was seen as the “result of compromising time needed for important child-centered issues in the many initiatives and task forces viewed as of value

only to the admin themselves" (T 06 Q). Teachers expressed that the "many top down initiatives" added "to teachers' paperwork and administrative tasks while taking away from our planning, marking, and student contact time" (T 06 Q). Teachers were concerned that "they don't have time to focus on the reason why they are at ISA, that is, for student learning" (TL FG). While they see "a lot of potential and a lot of structures in place for teacher leaders to lead their teams in discussions about student learning and to improve that," the school is still working on the structures and teacher leaders are "still spinning their wheels" (TL FG). The school keeps saying "we're going to talk about it and do things, but we don't get anywhere" (TL FG). In general terms, teachers expressed concern that their classrooms and students were "suffering" (T 06 Q).

Teachers also expressed concern for the amount of time that was spent away from their classrooms and students as a result of their engagement in task force and/or committee work. This was seen as a "lot of time wasted away from our students and classrooms" and was viewed as "counter-productive" (T 06 Q). Those not directly involved in task force and/or committee work, felt like they were "taking up the slack for those people who are gone a lot" (T 06 Q). While there was no resentment at this, there was concern for how much this was needed: "I feel like I'm taking up a lot of slack … I'm happy to do it for them but it's almost too much now, too frequently" (Nelly I).

The ability to sustain the initiative was also a concern. With so many things happening throughout the school, the concern was expressed that the initiative to build leadership capacity was "not sustainable" (Mike I). Even though there were a lot of initiatives started, it was seen that "after a few months we are back doing the same thing as we have done every year," and this created "more irritation and bewilderment" (T 06 Q). Teachers felt that if there were fewer initiatives overall, "we might see change in this regard" (T 06 Q).

Additional concerns were expressed in regard to reactions to teacher leaders. Since teacher leaders were "not viewed positively," they have to acknowledge that they are going to "get a lot of backlash" (Ellen I). Teacher leaders were seen to put themselves at risk and could experience frustration directed at them by teachers who may not agree with the direction the task force or committee is taking (TL FG). This was seen as possibly "connected to the perception held of senior administration," in that "due to lack of visibility, there is a general lack of trust that people have for upper admin" (TL FG). For this reason, when teacher leaders are "working with upper admin or in a leadership kind of role," they are seen as "one of them," and people might not trust them "because of that relationship" (TL FG).

Teachers expressed some uncertainty as to whether or not the initiative led to change. “When the initiative started and when we heard from central admin at the beginning of this school year, it sounded like things were going to change, but nothing eventuated” (T 06 Q). It sounded “positive the first couple of weeks in the beginning of the school year” but then afterwards it died out, and it was back to the same path as previously” (T 06 Q). Simple statements reinforced this; for example, “This initiative has had no impact” (T 06 Q). Further, teachers new to ISA commented that they found nothing special at ISA; for example, “I have not noticed anything here at ISA that I have not seen at other schools” (T 07 Q); “It appears to me that ISA in on par with what is happening with teacher leadership in other top international schools” (T 07 Q); and “I can't honestly say that there is anything particular about ISA in regard to teacher leaders … I think it is important to focus on teacher leadership but I can't see that ISA is doing anything special” (T 07 Q).

Several teachers felt that they could have been more familiar with the initiative. The teacher leaders expressed that they were unclear about the initiative and that they didn’t feel like there was “ever a clear definition” stating from where the initiative was coming, or what the “intended purpose” was behind the initiative (Terry I). There may have been a “vague awareness of the initiative, particularly at the time of the Daisy Jones workshop” but while stipended teacher leaders participated in the training “that’s been the extent of it” (Marc I). They expressed concern that the intention of the initiative “never seemed to be clearly expressed to the staff” (Connie I and Candy I). Further, the phrases: “Teacher leadership” and “building leadership capacity” had not seemed to have been in frequent use throughout the school since August 2006, when “we had just read a Linda Lambert book that summer and we came back and the Director was giving his speech, and he was quoting things from Linda Lambert’s book” (Justin I). Similar lack of familiarity with the initiative was expressed by teachers who had been at the school when the initiative started, for example, “I didn't realize there had been an initiative to build leadership capacity” (T 06 Q), and by those who joined the school in August 2007, for example, “I didn't know there was an initiative to build leadership capacity” (T 07 Q).

Outcomes of the initiative – Summary

As the initiative moved forward, both administrators and teachers acknowledged an increase in activity, participation and involvement. The tasks to be performed targeted completing ISA’s predetermined goals and objectives, carried additional responsibilities

outside regular classroom responsibilities, and were often associated with a title, for example, Team Leader, Committee Chair, or Task Force Representative.

Perceptions of benefits of increased involvement differed between administrators and teachers. Overall, positive benefits were identified by administrators. Increased opportunities for teacher leadership were linked in the minds of administrators to increases in levels of ownership and satisfaction for teachers. In the minds of some teachers benefits were also evident. However, the benefits identified by teachers were significantly different in nature to the benefits identified by administrators. Benefits identified by teachers included choices amongst opportunities pre-determined by administrators that allowed teachers to follow their interests, and involvement allowing the feeling of providing some input. These benefits do not equate to the nature of the benefits suggested by administrators. Choice amongst predetermined opportunities is not equal to ownership, and involvement that generates the feeling of having had input does not equal satisfaction.

Further, rather than benefits, the majority of teachers expressed apprehension over increased levels of participation and involvement. In the minds of many teachers, opportunities identified by administrators were seen as expectations to participate. Apprehension was also linked to:

- Perceptions of a narrow pool of participants;
- Favoritism and lack of transparency in identifying participants;
- Manipulation of outcomes of task forces and committees;
- Limited teacher autonomy.

Identified teacher leaders expressed little trust in the processes administrators used to involve teachers in leadership activities and in the outcomes of the activities.

The relationship between involvement and empowerment was perceived differently by administrators and teachers. Administrators emphasized that the involvement of teachers led to advice or recommendations as stated in ISA documentation. However, they frequently contradicted this by speaking of involvement as a means of empowering willing teachers with leadership, and influencing their level of ownership and their involvement in decision-making at ISA. On the other hand, teachers did consider increased involvement as being equal to empowerment. Involvement was generally seen by teachers as an expectation, and the process of involving teachers was seen as biased and non-transparent.

While acknowledging the potential to offer input, teachers viewed themselves as having a very limited role in decision-making, acknowledging the top-down nature of decision-making at ISA.

Teachers perceived their involvement as focusing on management and having very little to do with leadership. Teachers widely expressed an understanding that their involvement was of a limited nature, guided by instructions and requirements set by administrators. This reflects the widely accepted perspective that leadership at ISA is reserved for the 'few at the top' of the administrative hierarchy.

Perspectives of professional development as enhancing teacher leadership varied significantly. Administrators generally viewed professional development as a valuable means of training teachers to enhance their collaborative leadership skills. For administrators, training was seen to develop personal and professional techniques, strategies, and skills that teachers needed to be successful leaders. However, whilst teachers recognized that there were increased opportunities for training, they did not link the training to increased opportunities to exercise leadership or to building leadership capacity. Training was viewed by teachers as a means of promoting uniformity in the way meetings were run and protocols applied. It was also considered as a career enhancing strategy, since earning a Master degree would lead to a higher educational qualification and higher pay. In general, apart from specific leadership training, professional development was valued by teachers. In particular, enacting leadership through the opportunity to interact and share expertise with each other was highly valued.

Shared concerns were identified. Both administrators and teachers raised concerns in regard to the number of initiatives and the lack of time to accomplish identified goals and objectives. Administrators and teachers agreed that this resulted in increased stress for teachers. However, teachers felt more strongly about these issues than administrators. Administrators and teachers also understood that predominantly negative perceptions of teacher leaders prevailed. Again, teachers felt more strongly about this than administrators did.

Additionally, teachers expressed significant levels of concern in a number of areas. They were worried that lack of focus led to inability to accomplish quality outcomes in any given area with so many areas competing for attention. Dividing attention between so many initiatives was overwhelming for teachers. They identified the distraction from teaching and learning that the initiative promoted as a serious concern. Related to this was concern over

the amount of time that teachers involved in the initiative were spending outside of their classrooms, participating in activities like attending meetings. Teachers noted that their increased stress levels in turn increased stress levels for students. Teachers viewed the initiative as unsustainable, and saw that familiar patterns were re-emerging only a few months after the initiative was started.

While the majority of administrators saw positive changes resulting from the initiative, the minority of administrators and the majority of teachers expressed uncertainty that the initiative had led to change. They acknowledged that when the initiative started it seemed like it had the potential to create change, but after a limited period of time established patterns from the past were evident rather than anything new. Further, teachers felt that the initiative had not created anything particular or noteworthy at ISA.

Doubt existed amongst administrators and teachers as to the degree of familiarity with the initiative. Both administrators and teachers expressed that there was no widespread, uniform understanding of the initiative amongst administrators and teachers. Both groups shared the perception that the initiative was not fully understood.

4.5 Perception of leadership

Again, two perspectives are explored in regard to leadership in operation at ISA. The first perspective considered is that of the administrators, and the external consultants, and the second perspective considered is that of the teachers. A summary of the perception of leadership from both perspectives concludes this section.

Perception of leadership – The administrative perspective

Administrators chose a "particular style of leadership that is built on collaboration and conversation" (Admin FG). The style chosen reflects "inclusiveness" and "hearing all voices" (Admin FG) and provides opportunities for staff to participate in leadership activities (Admin 07 Q). Teachers are "involved in distributed and generalized leadership," (Larry I) and this "has been a conscious plan on the part of the school to review leadership and define it differently, and to create structures for teachers to act as leaders, such as mentor opportunities, volunteer critical friends groups, as well as the established leadership structures of the school" (Admin 06 Q). The top-down model was "ineffective and fraught with all kinds of political, dynamic issues" and would not lead to the desired outcomes (Aron I). Through developing broad based, horizontal leadership, ISA was able "to do everything that we need to do with the quality that we require" (Joyce I). "By sharing the

decision-making process" and with "the collaborative power" of the teacher leaders ISA was seen to be "becoming a more effective organization" (Aron I).

In addition to this view of leadership, administrators acknowledged that in each of the six divisions, leadership is "different depending on the style of the principal" (Joyce I). There are "six schools with six different leaders" with different personalities, at different stages of their careers (Admin FG). So, there are "six divisions in different places and the structures within the different divisions may be better for teacher leaders in some cases than they are in others, based on whatever has been existing and what individual principals brought into place" (Admin FG). In addition to the principals' differing styles is a consideration of their "comfort level" (Aron I) in sharing leadership. Empowering teacher leadership requires principals "to give a little away in trust" and some principals "are not very comfortable with that" (Aron I). There is "a lot of work to do on building consistency across divisions" (Aron I). Hence, caution surrounds the statement "that ISA is this or ISA is that" because the divisions are really in "six different places" (Admin FG).

When reflecting upon the view of leadership evident at ISA, administrators considered the views of leadership associated with two possible pathways for the development of teacher leadership. They reflected upon the individually based view of leadership associated with a pathway focused on role-based strategies, and on the view of leadership as an organizational property or professional phenomenon associated with a pathway focused on community-based strategies. Some administrators perceived that structural and individually based leadership co-existed with distributed leadership. They also perceived that the communities of practice associated with the view of distributed leadership existed within the hierarchical, administrative structures developed at ISA. The Director considered it necessary for these two views of leadership to exist within the school, considering it "our responsibility to do both" (Larry I). He maintained that it is ISA's responsibility to promote both approaches to leadership as a means of developing teacher leadership. He saw one as more formalized, leading to further degrees and/or upward movement on a career ladder, fulfilling the responsibility to develop "future administrative leaders" (Larry I). He saw the other as "probably viewed as informal" and as developing as "a result of the administrative team consciously seeking to promote this kind of leadership" (Larry I). These two generalized views of leadership were not considered as "an either /or" (Abbot I).

When reflecting upon the views of leadership associated with the two possible pathways for developing teacher leaders, community-based strategies were identified by

administrators as the intended focus. Developing communities of practice was acknowledged as the purpose behind the initiative to build leadership capacity, and this was seen by some to contradict the reality of ISA operating in a top-down, hierarchical manner (Joe I). The disparity between intent and reality was expressed as a difference between 'words and 'behaviors', as ISA "still functions in the hierarchy mentality … the words are capacity leadership, [yet] the behaviors are very much autocratic" (Daniel I).

Administrators acknowledge that leadership for the school as a whole is perceived by some as different from leadership within particular divisions. They recognize that teachers "might have less faith in what is seen as coming from up above and filtering down, as opposed to something that's been proposed at a building level" (Peter I). There is also some realization that "upper level admin is not well integrated" and that "leadership tends to set itself apart from everyone else" (Admin 06 Q).

Administrators also acknowledge other areas of concern in regard to leadership. Concern was expressed that leadership is "layered in a hierarchy and layers are kept distinctly separate from each other" (Admin 06 Q). The leadership circle is seen as "too small and as a result decisions are made without full understanding" (Admin 06 Q). It is also acknowledged that "the practice of holding things close to you and trying to control it from start to finish is something that administratively we've created" (Admin FG). Concern was also expressed about "the whole idea of teacher leadership in a hierarchal organization" as seeming "very touchy-feely" (Joe I).

Overall, the Senior Administrative Team saw "lots of ways leadership has changed" (Admin FG). A clear distinction was made between leadership and leadership structures as, though leadership structures may not have changed, leadership was seen to have changed significantly (Admin FG). In particular, "being focused on student learning" was seen to be "certainly coming into focus" (Larry I).

Perception of leadership – The teacher perspective

Teachers understand that "top-down leadership" functions predominantly in the school and that "decisions are made by a few" (T 06 Q). There is "strong leadership by the director, input from senior administrators, and lots of committee work by teachers" (T 06 Q). The "top two," that is the Director and the Deputy Director, "make decisions that stick," while it is harder for the "decisions from the teacher-led committees (Science task force, English as a Second or Other Language task force, Academic Support task force, etc.) to stick or get

traction" (T 06 Q). The concept of a hierarchy is echoed in that "leadership looks like it comes from the Director and Deputy along with Curriculum Coordinator, and then filters down to principals/vp's to teachers" (T 07 Q). The "central administrators put schemes in place, and teachers try to please and do the 'right thing'," by volunteering to take on roles and responsibilities (T 06 Q). Teachers are "encouraged to find the area of interest to join in to support the already identified school initiatives" (T 07 Q). Therefore, for some, leadership is a "word used to get people to take on more responsibilities" (T 07 Q). Despite the initiative to build leadership capacity, "the initiative has not impacted the pecking order" (T 06 Q).

It is acknowledged that the "extremely hierarchical" or "very top down" approach to leadership in the school makes it really difficult for teacher leaders (Candy I). Since teacher leaders are "really at the bottom of the food chain of the hierarchy," it is very difficult for them to influence change (Candy I). All of the layers above that the teacher leader would have to climb up through make this difficult (Candy I). The "more traditional, hierarchical the leader is, the greater difficulty the teacher leader will have" (Candy I). Further, it is not considered "enough to provide opportunities for leadership," administrators must "believe in" teacher leadership and "model it" (Candy I).

Teachers generally did not feel able to comment on the differences across the different divisions of the school. Their focus on their own involvement in their own divisions "doesn't really provide them with a great deal of insight into other divisions" (Justin I). Some felt that they were "not informed well enough to make a comment" (Joan I). However, it was noted that some principals "are much more receptive to input and feedback from the teachers than others are" (Connie I). A "piecemeal" rather than a consistent approach to developing teacher leadership was said to exist across divisions, particularly across divisions on the same campus (Connie I).

Differences were not only presumed amongst the six current divisional principals, but also between the series of principals that may have offered leadership in one particular division over time. Reflecting on one of the Elementary School divisions, a teacher who had experienced all three divisional principals over the previous four years, noted that "it's been different under every leadership … it really has" (Kate I). Consistent expectations were not evident as "everybody has a different style and a different approach and a different agenda" (Kate I).

Most teacher leaders see structural and individually based leadership, along with hierarchical, administrative structures at ISA. This was described by one teacher leader as building a "leadership tree" (Connie I). Efforts were identified that resulted in "broadened administrative structures and roles" (Terry I), and engaged teachers in "initiatives developed to achieve specific purposes" (Connie I). Professional development was identified as a means of allowing teachers to "further their careers through gaining a masters degree" (Millie I).

Some teacher leaders expressed an interest in "leadership based more in communities of practice with more of a shared approach to leadership" (Kate I), and identified that this alternative had been "talked about a lot" (Mike I). While some aspects of the intention behind the initiative to build leadership capacity support this alternative (Betty I), it was not seen to be "happening, for a number of reasons" (Joan I). For example, teachers were seen to be working "very much in isolation," without "enough time to get into each other's classrooms … to talk and discuss what has happened afterwards" (Joan I). Critical Friends Groups were seen to promote the alternative; yet the "overall structure of ISA was still seen to be hierarchical and traditional" (Mike I). This was seen to create cross purposes at times and provoke a "mismatch, to some extent, between what we're trying to do and just the way the organization has evolved" (Mike I).

Several identified teacher leaders expressed a preference for an approach that promoted communities of practice and shared leadership. This was seen by them to be more in line with their own style and priorities as educators (Mike I, Betty I and Jane I). In fact, they described situations in which they had demonstrated leadership through networks of relationships that were not connected to their formal roles. For example, one identified teacher leader had no formal training in establishing or conducting a CFG yet described a situation in which she "did just ask a group of teachers two weeks ago to come and meet one morning … to talk about our literacy block, what we do" (Joan I). The group of nine teachers "was just a range of teachers who had shown interest in literacy, who had verbally connected like through conversation, etc." (Joan I). During the meeting, teachers "just drew a picture of our literacy block and then spoke for three minutes and told each other what literacy block is about" (Joan I). The teacher leader related the outcome:

> At the end of that – in fact, it went a little bit overtime in school – it was eight o'clock and people really had to get back to their classrooms – me too – but nobody wanted to go. Everybody was really thoroughly involved. At the end

> of the meeting, people said: we've got to do this again, this was so good to sit down and talk, and lots of people sent emails, stopped me in the hallway and said: why can't we do this and talk about some of the things that we do and find out more about each other? (Joan I).

Similarly, an identified teacher leader mentioned that a meeting during the professional development days resulted in "several hallway conversations" which were "just great" (Ellen I). She also related that "Bronwyn comes to me all the time" not that there is a formal link but that "she has a lot of my kids from last year … and we just have these awesome moments [when] we go back and forth" (Ellen I). She noted "that's what I would love to see all over the place" (Ellen I).

When considering the whole school structure, a hierarchical and traditional model was seen to apply; yet when considering only his division, an identified teacher leader saw the alternative of communities of practice and shared leadership as "a little bit more representative" of his division (Justin I). Similarly, another identified teacher leader saw that leadership based in communities of practice with a shared approach had existed in the division [to which she belonged] previously (Nelly I). However, the divisional administration "lost some autonomy [and] some of the 'power' they had to make decisions and influence the direction of the school" (Nelly I). Likewise, teachers noted that ,"A few years ago, the division had a clear purpose and everyone felt good about contributing" (T 06 Q), and that, "There was a vision ... coming from our principals ... that was great ... but now, the vision is on the back burner even with all of the great efforts from our principals" (T 06 Q).

Teachers identified some disparity in approach between the school as a whole and particular divisions. While "it is quite hierarchical at the top," it "gets more blurry and egalitarian as you move down the 'ranks'" (T 06 Q). Within some divisions teachers feel that "there are opportunities to make a difference," and they find "that is empowering" (Nelly I). At a building level, there is not the lack of trust or fear of reprisal, which is evident when teacher leaders step out of their buildings (TL FG). Further, voices seem heard at a divisional level, "but are lost in the bigger scheme of the school" (T 06 Q).

Communication both up and down the hierarchy seems problematic. Given the reality of a "chain of progression" (though it is not a preferred reality) there should still be an opportunity for teacher leaders "to have a voice and to have it heard" (Marc I). Particularly on large issues, or on issues that directly affect teacher leaders, teacher leaders would appreciate "an audience with the upper administration or whoever it is affecting" so they

could “take feedback directly or seriously” (Marc I). Similarly, it is acknowledged that “messages from the top get muddled as they go down the hierarchy” (T 06 Q).

Teachers acknowledge that there are areas of concern in regard to their influence in providing leadership. Questions were raised about the degree to which teachers could really influence decision-making. Uncertainty surrounds whether or not the “current style of empowerment” leads to “real teacher influence in substantive ways” or whether it is “really window-dressing with the majority of decisions ultimately made by Central Administration, perhaps even with predetermined outcomes” (T 06 Q). This reflects the “whole traditional aspect where admin are the ones that make the decisions” and they “go through the motions of asking for teachers’ opinions without taking them into account” (TL FG).

Questions were also raised about the role of teacher leaders as managers rather than leaders. Many administrators were seen to have a “hard time allowing others to lead,” and believing in the teacher leaders sufficiently “to allow them to control aspects of the programs over which they have been empowered to lead” (T 06 Q). Teacher leaders saw themselves “more as just mid-management” engaged in activities that addressed “the day-to-day sort of making sure that everything runs along smoothly ... making sure everything goes clockwork like” (TL FG). Given this reality and given the inevitability that they all obviously have their “own way that they would ideally like things to operate,” teacher leaders expressed frustration that there was “one overall umbrella” under which they all had to work (TL FG). They acknowledged that the “umbrella” would prevent them from ever reaching where they could be going, even though they “were always striving to get somewhere, and always wanting to be continually learning” (TL FG). Humorously, teacher leaders questioned, “Are we gerbils?” and concluded that they did not want to be gerbils (TL FG).

Additional concerns about the kind of leadership provided were raised. It was noted that there were “not enough positive changes” from the initiative, since “leadership is rigid” (T 06 Q). Further concern was expressed that “there is no indication from the central admin or my building admin that there will ever be a change in the top down approach” (T 06 Q), and that “what was hierarchical, rigid, authoritarian behavior three years ago continues to be hierarchical, authoritarian behavior” (T 06 Q). While there were seen to be “more leaders maybe” there was seen to be “no major changes in the way leadership operates” (T 06 Q). The distance evident between Central Administration and the classrooms was a cause of

concern. Teachers had “no idea what our central admin’s philosophies are” in relation to the classroom (TL FG). Further, the direction of the leadership provided by Central Administration was considered “vague or unknown,” as the Senior Administration “does not seem to have the pulse of the school” (T 07 Q).

Perception of Leadership – Summary

Stark differences in perception were expressed with regard to leadership at ISA. Administrators generally viewed themselves as having moved away from the top-down leadership, establishing broad-based, horizontal leadership and sharing the decision-making process. From the administrators’ perspective, leadership was seen to have changed significantly at ISA. However, teachers understood leadership to be top-down, reflecting traditional, hierarchical leadership with decisions made by a few at the very top of the hierarchy. It was understood that this form of leadership makes it difficult for teacher leadership to develop. Whereas teachers acknowledged that administrators had talked about shared leadership and communities of practice, this was not considered to be a reality that administrators put into action. Teachers did not identify changes in the way in which leadership operated at ISA.

Administrators and teachers share the perception that there is significant variation in leadership across the six divisions of the school. Administrators acknowledge that leadership evident within a division depends on the principal’s style, personality, and stage in career path, along with the structures put into place to support teacher leaders within the division. Feeling comfortable in trusting others was seen as a key factor influencing the development of teacher leadership throughout different divisions. Though teachers were cautious in commenting about divisions with which they are not fully familiar, a general understanding that inconsistencies existed amongst the divisions was expressed. Similar inconsistencies were noted to exist between the principals who served in divisions over time.

Most administrators perceived top-down leadership to co-exist with shared, distributed leadership. The pathway of developing teacher leadership through role-based strategies and the pathway of developing teacher leadership through community-based strategies were not only understood to be able to co-exist, but also their co-existence was understood to be necessary for the development of teacher leadership within the school. The former was seen as a more formalized approach to developing teacher leadership, and the latter as an informal means of developing it, consciously fostered by the administrators. For the

majority of administrators, there was no sense of contradiction in acknowledging that an individually based view of leadership could exist alongside a view of leadership as an organizational property or professional phenomenon (Murphy, 2005). A few administrators, however, noted a mismatch between the initiative for ISA to develop teacher leadership and build leadership capacity and its operation in a top-down, autocratic manner. A range of understanding ways in which leadership can best support the development of teacher leadership was clearly evident.

Teachers identified top-down leadership as predominant. They also identified that ISA's pathway of developing teacher leadership was predominantly through role-based strategies. Interest was expressed in a pathway relying on community-based strategies, and CFG training was identified as potentially such a strategy. Teacher leaders related incidents that demonstrated they were engaging in communities of practice and establishing a web of relationships around them, beyond their formal roles. Overall, it was understood that communities of practice would be contradictory to the hierarchical structures at ISA, and would not be effective given the individually based view of leadership at ISA. The initiative to develop teacher leadership was not seen to influence the hierarchical structures or the individually based view of leadership at ISA.

Differences were noted between leadership in the school as a whole and leadership in particular divisions. Administrators identified differences in the way in which teachers regard the whole school and the way in which they regard their divisions. Teachers expressed that shared leadership and communities of practice once existed in one division and that some divisions were seen to function in ways that provided some opportunity for empowerment of teachers. Pockets of trust were seen to exist within divisions that identified teacher leaders as valued. However, due to more hierarchical, centralized power structures, the division which was seen to function with shared leadership and communities of practice lost some of its ability to function in this way. Communities of practice that teacher leaders experienced within their divisions were not evident in the school as a whole.

Teachers experienced difficulty with communication within the hierarchical structures of ISA. Voices from teachers were not heard by central administrators and messages from central administrators were not clearly communicated to teachers. Teachers understood that the nature of the school was that of a hierarchy and set their expectations around

communication accordingly. However, communication did not flow up and down the hierarchy in the manner in which it was intended.

Areas of concern were identified in regard to leadership. The diversity of concerns expressed by administrators showed a lack of common understanding of leadership. For example, while one administrator expressed a concern that the layers of hierarchy are kept separate from each other, another expressed that, given the hierarchical context at ISA, teacher leadership seemed 'touchy-feely'. Concerns raised by teachers, however, expressed a far greater degree of common understanding of leadership and the way in which the hierarchical nature of ISA influenced the involvement of teacher leaders. For example, teachers understood that decisions were made at the top of the hierarchy regardless of the discussions undertaken by administrators concerning empowerment. Further, they understood that they were not exercising leadership but were functioning as managers, following the directions of those higher up the hierarchy.

Diversity in perception of changes regarding leadership was significant. Central Administrators regarded leadership as having changed significantly. While changes may not have taken place in leadership structures, changes to leadership were considered noteworthy. In particular, focus on student learning was seen as a key change. Teachers, however, did not share this view. They did not recognize changes to the architecture or the view of leadership predominant at ISA. Similarly, while administrators saw focus on student learning as a positive change for leadership, teachers did not share this perception.

4.6 Impact on the context

In considering the impact the initiative has had on the context of the organization as a whole, the administrative perspective and the teacher perspective are explored. A summary of the two perspectives concludes the section.

Impact on the context – The administrative perspective

In the context of the school, the initiative has been seen by administrators to have had a range of impacts. Overall, the "desire and the vision of the upper administration to really want to create a community of learners" has had a positive impact on the context of the school (Maria I). There has been "a large degree of resources put towards" the initiative to build leadership capacity, and teachers "know it's here to stay and it's a direction" that ISA is going to follow (Maria I). Teachers were also thought to know "the desire that administrators have to support leadership amongst the teachers" (Maria I). Therefore,

administrators “are putting a lot of stock in the true meaning of the word ‘trust’ and giving teachers some leadership responsibilities and trusting that a system is going to work, that people are going to be professional” (Peter I). However, another administrator noted that while “the intentions are there about wanting to value teacher leadership ... these intentions are not reaching reality in the way possible” (Admin 07 Q). For example, for the 2007 – 2008 school year, ISA “lost leadership positions that were compensated for with a stipend, new leadership positions have emerged without stipends,” and “this has not been good for morale” (Admin 06 Q).

Administrators’ perspectives indicated that they were not certain that the initiative would be sustained within the context of ISA. Some considered that teacher leadership was not widely spread and that if key teachers leave the school, “then we start all over again … it goes with those people” (Admin FG). Others viewed the answer to the question, “Has the leadership capacity built since August 2006 contributed to sustainable school improvement?” as “emphatically yes” (Admin FG). However, the building of leadership capacity was not seen to guarantee sustainability should a new superintendent, for example, be appointed. While the vision of the school was seen to be the “road map” or plan for the next five years that could sustain the school improvement initiatives, “this happening would depend upon whether or not the incoming superintendent would choose to take the plan and say, ‘We’re going to keep working on this’” (Admin FG).

A caution was offered against presuming that there was one context for the school. Given the six divisions with six different leaders “there are realistically six different contexts” (Admin FG). This distinction was seen as particularly important since the “divisional principals heavily influence the context of the division and the culture of the division” (Admin FG). In regard to the effectiveness of the initiative, this inconsistency was seen to be “the killer” (Aron I).

The context of the school as a whole was seen to be different from the contexts within divisions. There is “a little disconnect” between “what people feel about the school as a whole,” and “what happens in teams” within divisions (Pam I). The organization as a whole is seen to be “a little bit cold” or it is seen to be “less human” than the teams within which teacher leaders work (Pam I). “There’s still some suspicion about decisions and policies that are made” because teacher leaders “don’t understand why they’ve been made, and they haven’t been consulted or involved or had information fed back to them” (Pam I). While

“the intent at the upper level administration is as solid as ever,” when it “trickles down” and there is “no follow through, it’s disappointing for teacher leaders” (Maria I).

In acknowledgement of this, one recommendation was “for the hierarchy” to allow the voices from the principals to be heard, trusting them to make decisions within their divisions without the fear that the decisions made “will be detrimental to the organizational goals” (Daniel I). Less centralized control and greater decentralized control amongst divisions was seen as desirable (Sandy I).

Recommendations to increase the effectiveness of the initiative were made regarding context. Both limiting the amount of micro-managing that happens, and resisting the temptation to be too directive of how things are done were recommended (Peter I). This was seen to be “probably easier said than done, depending on people’s personalities, especially people who are in higher levels of the administration” (Peter I). An additional recommendation related to speaking freely without worrying that what’s said is “going to come back to haunt us, or that it was the wrong thing to say or the wrong person was in the room” when a statement was made (Eric I).

Other suggestions to improve the context in order to more effectively develop teacher leadership revolved around creating roles and positions of responsibility. Suggestions were made to “identify a teacher leader coordinator” (Aron I), to have “Teachers On Special Assignments” (Daniel I), to continue the role of “curriculum consultant” (Pam I), and to create a role for a full-time substitute teacher or teachers to provide release time for teacher leaders (Maria I).

Some administrators felt that the initiative had not influenced the context in any noteworthy or distinct way. With so much going on at ISA, it is difficult to be certain “how the leadership initiative is really behind these changes” (Admin 06 Q). One administrator asked a rhetorical question: “Have I seen teachers suddenly become leaders in school?” and provided the answer, “Not really” (Admin 06 Q). “Barriers and too much micro-management” were seen as reasons why the “initiative has not taken life” (Admin 07 Q).

A concern was expressed regarding a general negativity as part of the context of the school. The negative influence was seen “as just simply tradition here” and something that “we just have to get past” (Abbot I). A divisional administrator acknowledged that the divisional leadership team meetings “still operate with an adversarial tone, the tone of a union group meeting with management to list complaints … [where] a sense of team or leadership is

difficult to discern," and that "fewer teachers are attending" the meetings (Admin 06 Q). "Instead of focusing on the positive," teachers were seen to be "pulling out the negative" (Admin 06 Q). This focus "kind of erodes at the leadership" that teachers were providing (Admin FG). While one administrator could "specifically see some changes with teachers involved in a different way," it was also pointed out that there was "a certain amount of negativity here" that doesn't have "anything to do with the leadership or critical friends or anything we're doing" (Maggie I). For that administrator, the negativity is "just here" even though the administrator "did not understand why" (Maggie I).

Two additional challenges within the context of the school were seen to influence the administration's intentions to move away from a traditional, hierarchical approach to leadership. Disparate and apart from other comments, the attitude of the Board of Directors toward leadership, and the cultural context of the school in Asia were identified as restricting factors preventing the administrators from distributing leadership. While the Board of Directors understands how top down corporations work, they don't "understand the current thinking about the most successful ... corporate organizations flattening out that leadership" and "they don't understand how people work together in organizations" (Joyce I). Further, the country in which ISA operates is "one of the most vertical, oldest organization structures in terms of leadership on the planet," and since approximately 60 percent or 70 percent of the student body at ISA are of Asian ethnicity, "this is their cultural bias" (Joyce I). That "schools have a tendency to take on the local culture and reflect that back" and that "there are some neat characteristics within the Asian culture that sometimes clash with our Western perspective" were understandings expressed (Admin FG). Expectations held by the Asian culture are not reflective of "an attitude of appreciativeness," or focused on "recognition of efforts," but on "the drive of" and the "need to do better" and "the outcome of that can be very negative" (Admin FG).

Impact on the context – The teacher perspective

In the context of the school, the initiative has been seen by teachers to have had a range of impacts. Both "communication from admin." and "more discussion between many levels of leadership" were noted as changes (T 06 Q). While there is "the potential for ... an authentic professional learning community at ISA ... right now people are going through the motions in order to survive ... it doesn't feel real" (T 06 Q). Whereas "teachers feel encouraged by the feeling that the school values teacher leaders," if the teacher leaders "had more time to share the training" with their teams "and implement all the great

training in student programs, it would positively impact the students even more" (T 06 Q). Though perhaps "more streamlined" structures have been put into place, they have also become "more complex" and are "certainly overwhelming for a new person coming in to figure out where he/she might 'jump in' without being in the way or getting … crushed!" (T 06 Q). Overall, "the great potential is being lost" (T 06 Q).

Teachers did not express conviction that the initiative would be sustained. There was an understanding that "a change in leadership" would mean that "all of that goes out the window" (Ellen I). This pattern causes a teacher leader to be viewed as a "kind of a fool," or "an idiot who jumps on board anybody's bandwagon," and this destroys "any kind of influence that person would have" (Ellen I). It also causes resistance amongst teachers to actively support initiatives, as they can see what happened to teacher leaders who "invested all of that time and energy into that and that's no longer where we're going" (Ellen I).

Comments indicate that the impact of the initiative has been assessed differently in different divisions. For example, a teacher leader who taught in High School in both North and South noted that the divisions have "a very, very different environment" (Candy I). In North High School teachers have "been working together" (Candy I). Since the "High School was new," the teachers were "all new together" and shared the experience of being "in a building phase" (Candy I). Similarly, a teacher commented that "there's a lot more collaboration that happens in the middle school" on the South Campus than in other divisions (T 06 Q). Further, "there is frequently communication breakdown between divisions" for example, "meetings scheduled at the same time, schedules not matching, [and] assumptions made about what is known" (T 06 Q).

The initiative was seen to have a negative impact on some aspects of the context of the school. The initiative created a focus on "becoming a leading school in the world" rather than a focus "of educating individual students" (T 06 Q). It was noted that "there are different goals than there once was [and] that the school has changed from focusing on 'what is best for the education of the child' to 'what is best for the institution of the school'" (T 06 Q). There was a general feeling that teachers were "moving further and further away from their students' needs" (T 06 Q). "Whilst we all want the focus to be on student learning ... in some instances [it] is no longer the focus, because of meetings and deadlines to write documents" (T 06 Q). Amongst teachers, the feeling of "pressure to

please too many leaders, has taken away [their] time and energy from thinking about how children are learning" (TQ 06).

The initiative impacted the atmosphere and the morale in the school. Worry was expressed "about the cultural climate in the school" (T 06 Q). Teachers felt that they were "truly 'driven' [and as a result] the atmosphere within the school is negative and depressing - morale is low" (T 06 Q). The "pressure from the additional responsibilities" for teachers results in not only "greater stress" but also "lower morale" (T 06 Q). Others note that "there has only been a turn to the negative as a result of this" (T 06 Q). For example, outcomes are seen as "great confusion reigns," "frustration building," "resentment building towards the selected few 'friends' or supporters," and "bitterness setting in" (T 06 Q). With many "whose primary goals are to advance their careers rather than a focus on the immediate task at hand of educating children, ... morale and efficiency have suffered" (T 06 Q). With EAGLES being the acronym for the expected school-wide learning results, one teacher notes that "people are choking on Eagle feathers" (T 06 Q). There was a degree of confidence that "the students can feel it as well," and that "certainly the parent community is aware of these undercurrents" (T 06 Q).

Suggestions to improve the context of ISA to more effectively develop teacher leadership were made. "Rotating leadership roles" every two years "if it's done in the spirit of increasing leadership capacity" was seen as "not a bad idea," as opposed to being done in the spirit of getting "rid of dinosaurs" (Connie I). Both "clearer goals" identified for teacher leadership, and "a greater focus on the right things" were seen to be potentially advantageous (T 06 Q). Similarly, it was acknowledged that "sometimes change needs to be given time to grow slowly," so that "everyone can see its value and embrace the change" (T 06 Q). It was recommended that ISA "give time … give people time to fall in love with things too," as currently "it's like force feeding: people arrive in here and we're saying, open up, and then just shoving it down their throat, and, then saying, 'Isn't it good, isn't it good?'" (TL FG).

Some teachers suggested that the initiative had not influenced the context in any noteworthy or distinct way. Despite "more chance to participate," there was uncertainty that "anything has changed, per se" (T 06 Q). Not being able to identify changes left some teachers wondering if they were "missing something" (T 06 Q). Other teachers were quite confident that "nothing has changed" (T 06 Q) and they expressed this in a variety of ways; for example, "I can't think of any special aspect of this school [that is changing] in

comparison to any other," or "In reality nothing is altered in the way business is done around the school" (T 06 Q). Others said that they did not perceive any changes as they "didn't realize this was an initiative," (T 06 Q) or "didn't know what [was] intended" (T 07 Q). Overall, ISA was seen to be "like any other international school" (T 06 Q).

Possible reasons were offered for not being able to identify changes in the context of ISA as a result of the initiative. For example, "the turnover of administrators and teachers are too high" to be able to seriously assess any changes (T 06 Q). The organization may be becoming "too rigid to allow it to change based on an initiative" (T 06 Q). "The school could notice a change," if ISA focused only on the initiative to build leadership capacity (T 06 Q).

Teachers expressed concern about a general negativity as part of the context of the school. "Negative energy" was characterized as being "so pervasive" (TL FG). Negativity was seen to affect both teachers new to ISA and teachers who have been at ISA for several years (Connie I). Consideration of "where they've arrived into and why they feel negative" (TL FG) must be given to teachers new to ISA. Even when teachers new to ISA join "fantastic teams and great team leaders," they may somehow "thrive on that negativity" and adversely affect the team (TL FG). Conversely, a teacher new to ISA may join a team "and be surrounded by negativity, because people have been working together for too long, or whatever" (TL FG). Though it was hard to explain the negativity, the comment was made that "boy, you can feel it!" (TL FG). Negativity is the thread that creates the feeling that "everything's tied to everything else and nothing is worth attempting" (TL FG).

In some cases, changes to the context at ISA were seen to be "counter to the intent of the initiative" (T 06 Q). Rather than increasing leadership capacity, it may have become "almost impossible to get people into leadership roles now at ISA" (T 06 Q). It was observed that "No one wants to take on additional responsibilities as they are not opportunities to lead," and that "this was not the case in the past when teacher leaders served in meaningful ways and were respected by administrators and peers" (T 06 Q). It was suggested that ISA may "need an initiative to get back to where we were when we were valued and supported" (T 06 Q). Whilst the initiative created "work, work and more work" over a number of years, the result was "very little getting accomplished" (T 06 Q).

Teachers new to South Middle School were presumed to "have a different impression" of the division than teachers who had been in the division for some time. In contrast to what had existed, teachers new to the division were seen to be joining a "more structured, less conversation orientated, and less positive atmosphere" (Nelly I). Hope was expressed that

the division would get back to the ideal identity that had existed (Nelly I). Further, ISA was seen to be "becoming more rigid due to the style of the current leadership" (T 06 Q). An indication of concern for the context was reflected in "more people planning on staying at ISA for a shorter period of time" (T 06 Q).

Impact on the context – Summary

The spread of perceptions in regard to the impact of the initiative on the context of the school is significant. Amongst administrators, perceptions ranged considerably from the desire and vision to create a community of learners being widely understood by teachers to the intentions of the administration not having reached reality in the manner anticipated. Such diversity seems to signal confusion amongst administrators about the impact of the initiative. Amongst teachers, perceptions range from a feeling of encouragement that teacher leaders are valued to an understanding that teacher engagement is not genuine but based on the need to "survive". Indeed, perceptions of the impact are spread across a continuum from positive to negative. The perceptions of administrators generally tended to be more toward the positive. The perceptions of teachers generally indicated that there had been a negative impact on the context, including a drop in focus on teaching and learning, and the lowering of morale in the school.

Common to both administrators' and teachers' perceptions was the sense that the potential impact of the initiative is not being reached in the context of ISA. The number of competing initiatives, the bureaucratic structures, and the high rates of administrator and teacher turnover were seen to prevent the initiative from having the impact it could have had. Teachers noted that very little had actually been accomplished despite the large amount of work that was undertaken. Teachers expressed understanding that the leadership exercised by individuals and small groups and the work done by the individuals and the small groups was not connected to the overall framework of the school.

Neither administrators nor teachers expressed certainty in regard to the sustainability of the initiative within the context of ISA. The context of ISA was not perceived as having been impacted sufficiently to sustain the initiative. Administrators and teachers viewed turnover of key personnel as a significant threat to sustainability. While administrators thought that leadership capacity had been built, this was not seen as sufficient to guarantee sustainability should key administrators or teachers leave ISA. Teachers expressed similar uncertainty about sustainability and a resistance by many to start any new initiatives due to lack of sustainability in the past. Administrators regarded whether the initiative continued

or not to be part of the prerogative of any possible incoming administration rather than as a feature of having built leadership capacity. Teachers viewed the potential for sustainability of this initiative to be in line with other initiatives of the school that had been started yet not sustained.

Administrators and teachers saw the impact of the initiative to be different in different divisions. For administrators, principals in different divisions were understood to be critical in influencing the context and the culture of their divisions. They also identified this lack of consistency in context to have hindered the effectiveness of the initiative overall. Teachers understood that environments varied from division to division, and that the effectiveness and the impact of the initiative varied according to the context of the different divisions.

The context of the school as a whole was viewed differently from the contexts within divisions. The whole-school context was viewed less positively than divisional contexts. Administrators recognized that teachers felt less connected to and less positive toward the organization as a whole than they did toward the divisions to which they belonged. Teachers perceived the Central Administrative Team as generating strong centralized control, and this was considered as a disadvantage to the effectiveness of the initiative overall, and in one division was seen to cause a decline in the levels of leadership capacity. Suggestions from administrators reflected lack of trust within levels of the administrative hierarchy. Changes to the context were suggested that could enhance the effectiveness of the initiative related to trust, for example, limiting micro-management and expanding freedom to voice opinions. The ease of implementation of these suggestions was linked to the personality of the administrators involved. Decentralizing control to increase divisional autonomy was seen as advantageous. This recommendation contradicted a concern raised by administrators that the inconsistency across divisions was detrimental to the effectiveness of the initiative.

The majority of suggestions from administrators and teachers to improve the context related to role-based strategies for developing teacher leaders. Administrators suggested creating formal roles and positions for teacher leaders, and differentiating responsibilities to create a career ladder of responsibility and leadership for teacher leaders. Suggestions from teachers also focused on role-based strategies, for example, rotating roles bi-annually, and seeking greater definition and focus on discrete goals or tasks for teacher leaders. The suggestions seemed to be reasonable within the given structures of the school and did not challenge the leadership paradigm in operation within the school.

However, in making suggestions to improve the context, teachers also suggested aspects of community-based approaches to developing teacher leaders. Teachers recognized the need for time to allow individuals to engage with others in relation to change at ISA in ways that would connect their passion to the environment and the teachers around them. Engaging teachers in the initiative was seen to be far more complex that simply informing them of the role in which they were to engage.

The perception from some administrators and many teachers was that the initiative had had no significant influence on the context of the school. Administrators and teachers considered the number of competing initiatives and the bureaucratic structures in place at ISA as reasons for the lack of influence of the initiative. Teachers also suggested high rates of administrator and teacher turnover as likely reasons.

Negative impacts as a result of the initiative were recognized by teachers but not by administrators. Concerns centered around the increasing lack of focus on teaching and learning and on falling morale in the school. Teacher leaders were seen to be engaged in administrative tasks rather than engaged in enhancing student learning. The lowering of morale was linked to a culture of growing negativity. Symptoms of this were noted as increased levels of stress, frustration, confusion, and resentment.

Further, pervasive and persistent negativity was identified as a part of the context of the school. Administrators and teachers identified negativity as pervasive, affecting interactions between administrators and teachers and amongst teachers. Neither administrators nor teachers expressed understanding of why the negative energy persisted. Teachers were concerned that the sense of negativity self-perpetuates regardless of the rate of turnover of teachers, and influences willingness to participate in attempts to initiate anything. Stress, frustration, confusion, resentment, discouragement and despondency were perceived to be part of the cultural fabric of the school. Concern was expressed that this cultural fabric may be working against any initiative introduced into the context of the school.

Teachers raised concern that levels of teacher leadership at ISA had decreased as a result of the initiative. They thought that lack of feeling appreciated and lack of meaningful involvement created a lack of willingness to take on leadership responsibilities. This was seen as contradictory to the intent of initiative. This was also seen to stand in contrast to previous years, both in the school overall and in one division in particular. Teachers saw a decline in the willingness to take on leadership responsibilities and noted that very little had actually been accomplished despite the large amount of work that was undertaken.

Teachers planning to stay at ISA for shorter periods of time was suggested as a consequence of this. The rigidity of the leadership demonstrated by administration was also seen to contribute to the situation.

Administrators identified barriers within the context of ISA that kept them from moving away from a traditional and hierarchical approach to leadership. The Board of Directors was perceived to lack understanding of new trends in leadership and how relationships in organizations promote success. In addition, the traditional, hierarchical nature of the Asian culture, and the attitudes of the Asians not reflecting appreciation or satisfaction were identified as barriers. Inadvertently, these perceptions communicate an understanding by the administration that the school has not moved from the traditional and hierarchical approach to leadership. Presenting perceptions to rationalize why movement has not taken place indicates understanding that it has not occurred. Further, perceptions of the collective understanding of leadership held by the Board of Directors may be difficult to determine. Most members of the Board of Directors hold senior leadership positions in successful multinational companies, and have done so in a variety of cultural settings over many years. They collectively embody a host of current leadership expertise from a range of industries. However, the role of the Board of Directors in the school is advisory, hiring and providing support to the Director who is responsible for the day-to-day operation of the School. Their influence over leadership structures is necessarily limited. Similarly, the notion of leadership in an international school being influenced by the local culture in which the school is located needs to be substantiated.

4.7 Impact on relationships

This section considers the impact of the initiative on relationships within the organization as a whole. The administrative perspective and the teacher perspective are investigated in turn and a summary of the two perspectives is given.

Impact on relationships – The administrative perspective

The impact on relationships within the organization as a whole was assumed by the majority of administrators to be positive. Structures such as task forces that were “put in place have certainly promoted teachers talking to each other,” and while the Director expressed uncertainty as to whether that had “been positive or not,” he thought it had “been positive” (Larry I). “In certain initiatives the teacher leadership” was seen to be “paying off,” but there was uncertainty expressed as to “whether or not that was cultivated

or hired in," as teachers had been specifically hired "with that mindset" (Abbot I). It was considered to have been "fortunate [that] we've brought in so many good people and right at the get go," of the initiative (Larry I).

Several other structures were also seen to be helpful in building relationships. Even though "the start of the year was diabolical" and "people were extremely stressed and overwhelmed… once that settled down and people got into routines," the Facilitator Seminars helped build relationships (Pam I). Teachers "having to go to people on their teams" and the teams having "leadership structures to get work done" were seen as beneficial (Admin 06 Q). The videoconferencing facilities have made it more possible for dialogue to occur between campuses, and this is the area where the "positive results are most tangible" in terms of building relationships (Larry I and Maria I). Communicating clear expectations around building relationships reduced the need for "reining back" in some situations or with some individuals and the phenomenon of "lashing out" by some groups or individuals (Joyce I). "If there's mistrust between the two campuses," then "meeting together face-to-face" was seen as one way that "can help break that down" (Peter I).

Similarly, communicating clear processes around decision making created "a more positive relationship between admin and staff" (Admin 07 Q). It was thought that efforts to clarify the process of decision making "should yield results of higher understanding and therefore less contempt for decisions" (Admin 07 Q).

Administrators generally perceived that relationships seemed more collaborative (Con Q). "Huge positive things" were seen to be "going on with teacher collaboration and conversations" (Con Q). An "across the river conversation" with a particular grade level was given as a model example which "couldn't have been any better" (Maggie I). Further, teachers were reported to have commented that "they enjoy interacting with their peers through the CFG experiences," which are "viewed as an important part of the school" (Admin 07 Q). In short, "there's been a huge amount of collaboration" (Joe I).

Differences were noted in terms of "the relationship between principal and the teacher leaders in the buildings" (Joyce I). Although "there are some groups that work well in that way," and there are some groups "that don't" (Joyce I). This was further explained in terms of some principals being "by nature …people persons," who "have as gifts their ability to interact with people, their ability to listen actively and another gift from whence ever it comes, is an iron bar, a core of confidence in themselves" (Joyce I). This confidence was seen to allow the principals "to spread out the ownership," and without it "the ownership

isn't spread and it very quickly becomes a top down situation" (Joyce I). The Director was confident that "within each division there's improvement ... simply because that's the natural outcome of building leadership capacity" (Larry I) in regard to strengthening relations between principals and teacher leaders.

Ways in which the initiative was seen to be counterproductive were raised. Overall, the staff was considered to be "discouraged, not encouraged" (Admin 07 Q). A "slowly declining enthusiasm" was also noted (Admin 06 Q). It was recognized that "it's all about the relationships," and that "if the relationships aren't positive, if there's any sort of hierarchy that promotes an "us versus them", there will be difficulties in building relationships (Eric I). Advice was given that administrators "have to look at what sends those messages" (Eric I), as there is "still an 'us and them' feeling amongst teacher leaders and upper admin." (Pam I). This was seen to have been generated "perhaps between teacher leaders and perhaps the [central administrators in the] Programs Office in some instances," and this statement revealed a feeling of guilt in the maker of the statement who was a part of the Educational Program Office (Pam I).

Difficulties encountered in building relationships were broached. The feeling of 'us versus them' discussed in the paragraph above was considered to have a possible influence on the relationships between teachers and teacher leaders. The 'us versus them' attitude between teacher leaders and central administrators was seen to "flow downward" to affect attitudes between teachers and teacher leaders (Peter I). For example, a team leader may be "harassed by their teams at times" (Eric I). Teacher leaders "might be in a position as being seen as part of the admin team," hence, teachers will "not view them as one of them" (Eric I). Additionally, teachers were considered as wanting to "help one another where possible," but time pressure was seen to cause "stress on relationships" (Admin 06 Q).

Several administrators reflected that there had been no significant changes to relationships as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity. Relationships were "good before," and they continue "to be good" (Ed I). Further, teachers who "are in the leadership roles and have followed through with training" were the teachers who "were well respected anyway" (Maria I). Hence, "they had good relationships" and a sense of their "personal power" already established before the initiative started and before they took any training (Maria I). In addition, regardless of such an initiative, "schools are still hierarchical, principals are still principals, superintendents still need to show strong leadership," so there can't be any significant changes in relationships (Admin 06 Q).

Uncertainty around possible changes was also expressed. Given that the journey was "painful for many," it may take time for ISA to realize benefits of stronger relationships (Admin 06 Q). "Within a given layer" of the organization, "relationships may have been positively impacted," but it was "hard to say" (Admin 06 Q).

Impact on relationships – The teacher perspective

A minority of teachers suggested the impact on relationships within the organization as a whole was positive. The structures in place were regarded as beneficial. Teachers were seen to "look up to their team leader for guidance" (T 06 Q). "Having guidelines for meetings" was valued in order for meetings "to be more effective and less frustrating" (T 06 Q). In the same way, where committees were "led well," the committee built "good relationships" and members felt honored (T 06 Q). The facilitator and his/her perspective on leadership within the school influenced opportunities to "build relationships and respect experience" (T 06 Q). Though "not related to 'initiatives,'" a "change of staff and administrator in one division" led to "the change/removal of 'camps'" in the division, which in turn led to "improved relationships (T 06 Q)."

Teacher leaders who engaged in various structures such as the mentorship program or school wide-committees saw positive benefits for themselves and others. The role of "mentor for a group of new teachers," was found "to be extremely rewarding and extremely informative," as the mentor was able "to meet people across all divisions, talk with them regularly" and "discuss some of the issues" that people were "feeling in different schools; elementary, middle, and high school" (Joan I). From being involved in school-wide committees, "as members not even leading, but being involved in a committee [was] valued as an important ... form of teacher leadership," which has "definitely provided an opportunity ... to build relationships with people from other divisions and from the other campus" (Justin I). Participants "have built stronger relationships," which was considered "a plus" for the teacher leader and as something "real positive" for others (Justin I).

Critical Friends Groups (CFG) contributed positively to building relationships. The teachers "involved in Critical Friends training cohorts and groups [were] starting to form a valuable network of professional support and collaboration" (T 06 Q). "Relationships have formed amongst those who took part in the same training, CFG" (T 06 Q), and it has had a great impact on getting discussions going throughout the school on issues relevant to every teacher" (T 06 Q). Whilst "strong relationships have formed where CFGs" were operating,

they were “not in the school overall” (T 06 Q). Accordingly, the CFG model has a place at ISA, but should not be “the 'only' model that the school should look at” (T 06 Q).

Additional ways in which relationships were positively impacted were identified. Teachers were not only “talking and sharing” but also “listening” (T 07 Q). A sense of being more connected with others, through “cooperation across grades, buildings and campuses” (T 06 Q) was expressed. In a similar way, “small groups of teachers” were “encouraging each other to develop” (T 07 Q). In general terms, relationships were considered to be “warm,” as well as being “tighter and more professionally focused” (T 06 Q).

Ways in which the initiative was seen to be counterproductive were raised. Since “overall, relationships seem to be worsening in the school,” the rhetorical question was asked, “Is that what the initiative intended?” (T 06 Q). They were seen to “become more negative” (T 06 Q), and the pervasive “pessimism” was regarded as sad, as “we have great teachers and leaders in our division” (T 06 Q). The use of Professional Development days was cited as an example of counter productivity in that “team planning time” when team members should have had the chance to work together as partners and in small groups, was “taken over by self-study stuff” (Connie I) related to the accreditation process. Time that could have “been really beneficial” for building relationships was “spent filling in boxes and stuff like that for WASC,” turning WASC into less than a “meaningful process” (Connie I). An important distinction was made between relationships established as a result of new structures and those which were part of previously existing structures. Relationships were suspected to “have deepened within the many taskforces going on, but everyday collegiality” was “suffering and division identities are disappearing” (T 06 Q).

Disappointments encountered in regard to building relationships were revealed. The goal “to unite the faculty [has] only caused added stress and a feeling of helplessness” (T 06 Q). A decrease was noted in regard to “the sense of collegiality and engagement,” and it was noted that there was “less laughter and less enjoyment” (T 06 Q). Teachers were said to be “far more cloistered in their rooms” (T 06 Q), demonstrating a “withdrawal from the concept of community” (T 06 Q). A separation was identified between those “who want to eventually become admin and relish the ‘leadership’ tasks and those who try and dodge them to get back to the real work of teaching” (T 06 Q). A similar “growing divide” was recognized “between new and not-so-new ISA teachers” (T 06 Q).

Concern for building relationships between teachers and members of the administration was expressed. Teachers were thought to “feel resentment towards upper admin” (T 06 Q).

“Individuals who are genuine and want to make a difference” were thought to be “pulling away,” as they didn’t want “to be part of the show” (T 06 Q). Credibility was thought to have been lost, as “admin was not modeling or leading by example” (T 06 Q). Trust was thought to have “been eroded” (T 06 Q). As teachers felt “little confidence that central admin” knew what they were doing, there was “little trust in the people they appointed to do it” (T 06 Q). “Less trust” was also linked to the feeling that “suspicion has grown” as teachers feel that they “can't speak openly” because they don't know whether views expressed “will be reported” (T 06 Q). Teacher leaders had heard from a number of teachers who “were not prepared to speak their mind at a staff meeting or at a particular meeting” for fear “of what might happen” (TL FG). Faculty meetings were mentioned where teachers got “into trouble”, and got “put down a little bit” (TL FG). They reported being told by others to “be careful what you say just in case” (TL FG). This was explained as when teachers see “administrators coming in wanting to sort of make their mark,” they try to figure out how they can “make their mark with the administrator,” and this necessitates not doing anything that “is going to put them at risk” (TL FG). With fewer trusting the admin, there was “a growing pessimism” (T 06 Q).

Additional concerns were also expressed about the relationship between teachers and administrators. An umbrella concern was that “more factions, more favoritism” was evident (T 06 Q). Teachers were “under the impression that relationships between top leadership and building leadership vary, depending on who hired whom” (T 06 Q). This extends to an understanding that “those who have relationships with the 'powerful' or who are connected” were getting “stronger and stronger,” while “the rest of us aren't important” (T 06 Q). This was also expressed in terms of relationships being “set around the hierarchy,” with teachers “struggling for power, an 'in' group and 'the rest'” (T 07 Q). A rhetorical question was asked in regard to relationships between teachers and administrators, “Could they have been worse?” (T 06 Q).

Relationship building was seen to have been affected by levels of stress, limited time available, and the pace of growth. “Relationships and human interactions have been placed on the back burner as people struggle to keep their heads above water” (T 06 Q). Being too stressed or too busy resulted in teachers being “less interested in others” (T 06 Q), failing “to form relationships” (T 07 Q), failing “to attend to relationships” (T 07 Q), and having ‘very little time to talk” (T 06 Q). Overall, teachers were “trying to keep up rather than develop relationships” (T 06 Q). Similarly, teachers felt that they had “no time for

relationships” (T 06 Q), or “less time to interact with others” (T 06 Q), which resulted in not being able “to form relationships” (T 06 Q), or “get to know department colleagues” (T 07 Q). In one division, an outcome from “the speed of the growth” was thought to be that colleagues “almost never talk to” teachers outside their division any more (Mike I).

A positive outcome from increased stress and pace was identified. Teachers were identified as “growing together in some respects as they try to figure out how to shoulder ever increasing loads” (T 06 Q).

Several teachers reflected that there had been no significant changes to relationships as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity. This was indicated through comments such as: “I haven’t noticed any change, really” (Joan I), there are “no big changes that I can see” (T 06 Q), and “if something was supposed to have changed, it doesn't seem like it has” (T 07 Q). There hasn’t been “any change in the number of conversations” (Harold I), but “what teachers talk about has changed from students and classes to how to survive” (T 06 Q).

Several teachers expressed possible reasons for the lack of change in relationship building. “Due to all the other school-wide initiatives going on,” teachers haven't had the time “to implement the training with our teams” (T 06 Q). “Too much interference from having too many initiatives” created a difficulty (T 06 Q). That “teacher leaders from all divisions have not worked together since Fall of 2006,” was seen to contribute to the lack of relationship building (T 06 Q). Further, “trust and openness are needed before change can happen” (T 07 Q). Additionally, relationships “were great before and are still great” (T 06 Q).

Impact on relationships – Summary

A majority of administrators and a minority of teachers perceived relationships within ISA as a whole to have improved. Administrators attributed part of this to the type of teacher that was recruited into ISA since the initiative began. Similarly, teachers attributed part of this to the change in teachers and administrators. Both administrators and teachers recognized that certain structures put into place promoted relationship building. Administrators cited examples which referenced role based strategies reflecting refinements within the hierarchical frameworks and further role clarification needed to get work done. Teachers, however, cited examples directly related to building relationships with more members of the school community, focused on the value of the relationship building itself rather than the concrete output of the work groups.

Administrators expressed belief in a link between decision making and relationship building. The perception of having communicated a clear process for making decisions was assumed to have led to more positive relationships between administrators and teachers. Continued efforts in this regard were assumed to have the potential to lead to further improvements. Teachers, however, did not express a similar perception. Rather, teachers expressed an understanding that decisions were made by administrators, and that input or opinions from teachers were given little consideration. With this understanding there was seen to be little scope for the strengthening of relationships between administrators and teachers.

A majority of administrators and a minority of teachers referred to more collaborative relationships. Administrators indicated a great amount of positive movement in this regard, indicating that CFG involvement was important. Teachers also acknowledged the significance of CFG in starting the development of relationship building. Teachers valued the CFG training as a means of promoting relationships by bringing together people from throughout the school that may not otherwise have had contact with each other. Despite widespread training, teachers noted that CFG were not operating widely through ISA, and that this should not be the only model for relationship building on which ISA should rely.

Teachers identified other positive impacts on relationships at ISA as a result of the initiative. In small groups, teachers were engaging constructively to encourage and support each other professionally. Further, some teachers were connecting to support each other in finding ways to meet the increasing demands on their time and energy.

A few administrators and several teachers, however, observed that the initiative also created impacts that were counterproductive to relationship building. Administrators identified discouragement and declining enthusiasm, along with a confrontational attitude from teachers to administrators, characterized as 'us versus them'. Similarly, teachers noted increasing negativity and pervasive pessimism influencing relationships. It was noted that time that was once spent with teachers working in their subject area teams had been spent in task related activities directed by Senior Administration. While new structures like task forces and committees provided new opportunities to interact with a range of teachers beyond those with whom interaction would usually occur, the structures were seen to be taking away time and energy from regularly occurring relationships. Because of this, the collegiality usually associated with regularly occurring relationships was perceived to be suffering.

Both administrators and teachers considered the particular relationships between administrators and teachers to be of concern. Administrators recognized the importance of the relationship between the principal and the teachers, noting great variety in the nature of these relationships amongst the different divisions. Divisional relationships were seen to vary according to the principal's ability to relate well to people, and his/her level of self-confidence which influences a principal's ability to share leadership. Teachers raised concerns over the relationship between teachers and administrators in 'Central Office'. Lack of trust and a sense of fear when expressing one's opinion were evident. Teachers characterized a mismatch between the words and actions of central administrators as a key reason for declining relationships between teachers and central administrators.

Teachers identified other concerns related to the relationships between teachers and administrators. These concerns, linked to lack of trust, included indications of factions developing within the administration, and administrators exercising favoritism. A perceived need to form relationships with administrators who were seen to be powerful within the hierarchy seemed the underlying cause of many of the dysfunctional aspects of the relationships between teachers and administrators.

Difficulties in relationships were expressed by both administrators and teachers. Administrators saw the confrontational attitude between teachers and administrators also manifest between teachers and teacher leaders. They understood that broadening the administrative structures to create formal roles for teacher leaders may have created this dynamic. Both administrators and teachers acknowledged that lack of time and increased levels of stress amongst teachers negatively affected relationships. With too many tasks to be accomplished, teachers did not have enough time or energy to focus on maintaining or building relationships. Teachers identified a range of indicators evidencing a decline in relationships throughout the school, including less laughter and less enjoyment. Comments also indicated the beginnings of antagonism between different groups within the faculty, for example, between those new to ISA and those 'not-so-new' to ISA, and between those wanting to climb the administrative ladder and those wanting to maintain a focus on teaching and learning.

A few administrators and several teachers indicated that there had been no significant changes to relationships throughout the school. Administrators saw that the teachers who had established positive, collaborative working relationships before the initiative continued to have such relationships. They saw that the teachers who were successful in positively

influencing others before leadership training continued to positively influence others. They also saw that the hierarchical nature of the school had not changed, so believed that it was not possible for relationships to change significantly. While teachers commented that relationships had not changed significantly, the nature of them was noted to have shifted to providing support aimed at 'surviving'. While some teachers thought that relationships were positive before the initiative and continued in a similar manner, others thought that trust and openness needed to occur before relationships could be built.

A few members of the administration were uncertain whether relationships had changed or not. The perception that the initiative may have created a 'painful journey' for some led to an understanding that it would take time to heal before stronger relationships could build. Given the hierarchical nature of the organization, administrators suggested that it was not possible to assess relationships in a layer to which one did not belong.

4.8 Prevailing organizational culture

The prevailing organizational culture of the school is considered from both the administrative and the teacher perspective. A summary concludes the section.

Prevailing organizational culture – The administrative perspective

The prevailing organizational culture of the school was commented upon by administrators. Some members of the administrative team suggested that "a culture shift" took place three years ago, when the Director changed and when the majority of the administrative team changed (Admin FG). Prior to this, teachers hired were "suitcase teachers," teachers "who had an independent spirit" and would "come in and do their thing" (Admin FG). However, "more recently the recruitment strategy has been to hire people who can collaborate" (Admin FG). In other words, the culture shift or culture change has occurred "because the type of teachers the school has needed has changed as it's grown" (Admin FG). Given that 200 teachers came in over the last two and a half years, it was reasonable "to think that would change the perception of the culture." Since it did not seem to do so, a question was raised; "Is the minority having the biggest percentage of impact upon what's going on with the district or the division?" (Admin FG), in regard to the prevailing culture.

The Director used the term "informal leadership" and saw it as being related to the school's culture. Larry acknowledged that "informal leadership is always in place in any school," and referenced "Terry Deal," who has researched and written widely on culture in schools. Larry used the term "the priest and the priestess of the culture," which forms part of a concept

developed by Deal and Peterson, (1999) related to the network of informal players in every school who pass along history or stories. According to Deal and Peterson (1999) priests and priestesses are guardians of cultural values and beliefs who informally let teachers new to a school know about "how people work in the school and the history of traditions. The Director viewed "those informal structures" as having changed to become "far more aligned with the clarity of the vision and what we're trying to accomplish" and as contributing "a lot on the informal side" (Larry I) in bringing teachers new to the school in line with the vision and intentions of the school.

The need to attend to the culture of the school at the time the previous Director left the school was acknowledged. The Director reflected upon the period when he had just started at the school and recalled "even discussing with the admin team that was in place then [that] there was a sense that we needed to promote a more positive culture" (Larry I). He recalled "there were issues around faculty: some faculty feeling not enfranchised, other faculty feeling over-enfranchised and it varied from division to division" (Larry I). For the Director, the structures put into place to provide the opportunity for teachers to develop leadership potential resulted in "a healthy organization" with a culture "being focused on student learning" (Larry I).

The need to attend to the culture of the school was reinforced. "WASC addressed in its interim report" the need for ISA "to work on our constructive culture and the culture of the organization" (Pam I). Since "very few buildings have chosen to do that," ISA is beginning to establish a culture almost by default" (Pam I).

A focus on establishing a constructive culture was seen to make a difference in divisions where this occurred. Reflecting on one building or division that worked on establishing a constructive culture, the culture was such that "everyone did assume best interests for the organization" (Eric I). At that time, "anything that anybody had to say to anyone, whether it be a 'warm thing' or a 'cool thing' … was intended to help you or to make us better" (Eric I). It was noted that "there was no fear, or less fear," because relationships were positive (Eric I). "In some buildings, the teams work very well ... there is a constructive culture" (Pam I). In these divisions, "there's been a great deal of thought given to establishing norms and empowering leaders ... and those teams have been provided with reading and research and there's a lot of thought that has gone into that" (Pam I). However, "in other areas of the school that hasn't happened" (Pam I). Resuming work on culture building was seen to be

very important since employees at ISA shouldn't be working in an environment, where they feel they "need to navigate around icebergs" (Eric I).

Concern for the way in which the culture of the school influences teacher leaders was expressed. Some were described as "very reluctant teacher leaders" who take a leadership "role for so long and after a while they don't want to do it anymore" (Abbot I). The "top-down ... 'I tell you what to do and you do it' approach" is reflected in our culture (Abbot I). However, if ISA builds more communities of practice, and builds teacher leaders, this will directly impact our culture (Abbot I). Teacher leaders in one division requested training in how to handle and gain support in dealing with meetings where teachers complain, and where talk focuses "on one little aspect of the whole" that is seen to be "wrong" (Maggie I). This type of talk was seen to start with one teacher, yet eventually the "whole team is complaining about something" and this impacts the "whole team meeting and the productivity of the team meeting," as well as "the atmosphere and the climate" of the team (Maggie I). A lot of this behavior was thought to be "just a habit" (Maggie I).

Some confusion existed in terms of the focus and importance of culture at ISA. Though uncertain as to "whether or not people are happy," the Director was confident that structures in place and opportunities for involvement led to a "healthier organization" (Larry I). In contrast, a need for focus on a "warmer culture," with conversations, and friendships between teachers and administrators was identified elsewhere (Eric I). Further, focus on culture was thought to be "a very female type thing" that is of secondary importance to having "a job to do" in establishing a school (Joe I). That time did not allow for a focus on culture building was not problematic (Joe I). On the contrary, "what it takes or is required to build a culture of collaboration and joint leadership" was viewed as "crucial" in order for CFGs or teacher leadership to really have its full impact (Faye I).

Administrators related situations or concerns which may be indicative of aspects of the culture of ISA. Several of these examples are listed below:

- That CFGs were thought to be working their way "into the culture of the school was surprising" (Aron I). ISA had "tried so many other things," yet this one seemed "to have really taken hold much better than so many others" (Aron I).
- In one meeting, teachers "would be open and would listen, and would be constructive and reflective [but] would then pop up in another meeting or another area of the school and not demonstrate those same qualities" (Pam I).

- Despite the fact that there "was a load of research put out there," feedback was given through the WASC self study process that teachers considered that ISA "does not base its work on research" (Joyce I). This contradiction was "disappointing and confusing" (Joyce I).
- Even with communication plans in place to convey proceedings from meetings, cynicism is built from "a huge disconnect" between "what happens in a meeting" and what "decisions are actually made," and what "information gets out" about the meeting and what "rumors develop" (Aron I).
- Some "true cynics that are embedded" into leadership roles will "have to be removed" or they'll "have to leave" so that a positive culture can be "truly pervasive" and "consistent, building to building and even within the building" (Aron I). Otherwise, it is feared that "we're going to be stuck in our same patterns," in which "the lowest common denominator will always win out ... because it's easier" (Aron I).
- While an observer might be very impressed with ISA, "in the trenches looking at it" we are much more aware of the "kind of the undercurrent of how things are" (Peter I). While "our facilities are great" and structures are "in place," that's "not the full picture" (Peter I).
- "A healthy degree of skepticism" was cited as the probable reason behind the drop in the number of teachers attending an open, divisional leadership team meeting (Ed I).
- Finally, a leader was likened to "a lightning rod for negativity," (Admin FG) as if there's something wrong, people want to tell the leader about it, even if there's nothing that the leader can do about it.

There seems to be limited agreement amongst administrators at ISA regarding the nature or the importance of the organizational culture of the school. Administrators do not hold a shared view as to whether or not the school has become a healthier place. They do not hold a shared view of the role that culture plays in the school. While the consultant places culture in a crucial role in regard to the initiative to develop teacher leadership having its maximum impact, the Director views the culture as having improved since structures are in place, regardless of whether teachers are happy or not, and other administrators see the need for the school to focus on culture building.

Prevailing organizational culture – The teacher perspective

The prevailing organizational culture of the school was commented upon by teachers. “The constructive approach of the past five years has been compromised and a sense of malaise and negativity has settled in,” such that “it is the worst ... witnessed at this school” (T 06 Q). Similarly, the “need to rebuild a climate and culture of collegiality” was mentioned, along with the reflection that “this was important some years ago but not now” (T 06 Q). A suggestion was made that “Central Administration needs to survey school climate” to “assess morale and evaluate what's having a positive impact and what's not” (T 06 Q).

An increase in the workloads for everyone resulted in many teachers being “too busy to promote a constructive culture” (T 06 Q). The culture or faculty climate was “going down ... at a fast pace” (T 06 Q). In order to improve the school culture a suggestion was made to “slow things down” and “hopefully hire new people who believe in the same things and the direction that the school’s going in” (TL FG). Negativity would be prevented from breeding within the group of teachers new to ISA in this way (TL FG). “After a couple of months working at our school,” they “just fall apart and they get stressed and overwhelmed” (TL FG).

Reference was made to the work done within the school to attend to the culture of the school at the time of the previous Director. The work of the consultant, Sherry Schiller, was remembered and how motivating that was to improve skills, knowing that we were “working towards building a more constructive culture” (T 06 Q). This comment was followed by the reflection that: “I guess that initiative passed by?” (T 06 Q). “Even though we were dealing with it a few years ago,” a suggestion was made that constructive culture “may be something we still need to go back to and work on” (TL FG). Due to the “high turnover of staff” a follow-up suggestion was made that culture building should be “an on-going focus every year”, and that if teachers have been at ISA for five years and are “tired of it,” and are thinking that they’ve “heard this before” and don’t want to be part of it, “then they’re obviously not listening to the message” (TL FG). Changes “noticed in the last two years” were that administrators have less and less time to focus “on collaborating and working together in a constructive culture” and to support, and “work closely with teachers, to focus on student learning and their classrooms” (T 06 Q).

Focus on culture building during this period of the school’s development was seen to make a difference in divisions where it occurred. A potential improvement for one division was suggested in that it “go back to the constructive culture that we had a lot of ... then” (TL

FG). Regret was expressed that “because of other things it’s kind of been pushed away” (TL FG). The advantage was noted that “everyone knows this is how we’re going to behave and operate” (TL FG).

Teacher leaders uniformly believed that re-emphasis on building a positive culture school-wide could help them in their roles as teacher leaders. Everyone sharing a common commitment of “who we are,” “how we communicate with each other,” and “how we deal with each other” was seen to be important (TL FG). This common understanding was something to which teachers could be referred and reminded of their accountability (TL FG). While agreement on how to operate could be written in “team norms,” a school-wide initiative would be something which teacher leaders would always have “to fall back onto” (TL FG). It would help them have “difficult conversations” that refocused teachers on initiatives, and it would make it less likely for teachers to use “put downs in meetings” (TL FG). If the school wanted to go “another direction with CFG ... and all of those sorts of things [then] a culture change” (Justin I) was seen as necessary. A request was made for “time for collaboration and to develop a constructive culture” (T 06 Q).

A positive, constructive culture was seen to provide a filter for all that happens in the school. Everything that happens to human beings was believed to go “through an emotional human filter” (TL FG). Culture was believed to attend “to that filter” and it is very important that it remained “in a good healthy place” (TL FG). Since relationships with people form “the basis of everything” that teacher leaders do, “everything goes through a filter” (TL FG). “Without a healthy filter, [constructive] school culture could be problematic (TL FG).

Creating an educational environment for students was agreed to be the prevailing push behind everything that teacher leaders do and behind all of their decisions (TL FG). Ultimately, if students are in an environment where “teachers are poisonous,” where there is “lots of infighting among teachers” and/or a “lack of happiness,” they absorb that and it affects their education (TL FG). It was agreed that “they feel it, they know the tensions” (TL FG). It was understood that there needed to be constant focus on ideas connected to building a constructive culture, “bringing them up in faculty meetings ... all of the time” (TL FG).

Teachers expressed cynicism toward initiatives underway, being suspicious of whether change initiated would be sustained. One of the teacher leaders looked back to the time when she was new to the school and recalled that “every time something new would

happen, people would say, 'I don't know why we're bothering, because this will be a non-issue in a few weeks' time or a week's time,' and that idea seems to have been supported right through (Joan I). While the teacher leader "fought tooth and nail" not to let that attitude affect her, there have been times when she has thought, "Yes, you are going down that exact same path" (Joan I). A general attitude amongst teachers seemed to be that if one waited for long enough, change would "go away" (T 06 Q).

Teachers related situations or concerns which may be indicative of aspects of the culture of ISA. Examples of these are listed below:

- Teacher leaders express a dilemma that when they return to their divisions after a task force or committee meeting "with all this enthusiasm" they encounter "the prevailing feeling" that "well that's not going to go anywhere, and … history has proven that it doesn't go anywhere" (TL FG).
- Teacher leaders viewed the purpose of their roles in task forces and committees as being "to give the illusion" that they were part of the decision making process and they acknowledged that as "a really cynical view" (TL FG).
- Teacher leaders identified "a shut down sort of mechanism on new ideas" (TL FG).

Prevailing organizational culture – Summary

Consideration was given to the influence of high rates of administrator and teacher turnover on the organizational culture of the school. Administrators generally wished to believe that the large turnover of administrators and teachers positively influenced the organizational culture of the school. Recruiting teachers who could collaborate was a strategy assumed to have positively influenced organizational culture. However, some administrators also acknowledged that despite the high rates of turnover of administrators and teachers, the prevailing culture of the organization did not change. The impact of the influx of new administrators and teachers did not influence the prevailing organizational culture. Administrators raised but did not address the question of whether a minority of teachers with a negative attitude were influencing the organizational culture throughout the whole school. In contrast to the Director's understanding, teachers new to ISA do not seem to be pivotal in changing the prevailing organizational culture of the school. In contrast to the Director's understanding the 'priests and priestesses' of the culture do not seem to hold perceptions that are aligned with administrators' intentions.

In contrast to the administrators' perspective, teachers generally viewed the high rates of turnover as detrimental to the approach to building a constructive organizational culture that had previously existed in the school. Teachers saw the need to return to a focus on building a constructive culture. They expressed the view that building a constructive culture and establishing positive morale had been important to administrators in the past, but that it was no longer a priority. They identified the fast pace of the school as having a negative influence on organizational culture. While administrators thought they had been successful in doing so, teacher leaders also identified the need for administrators to hire teachers who shared in the beliefs and identified with the vision of ISA as a means of avoiding negativity generating from disappointment within this group of teachers.

The work done by the previous administration around building a constructive organizational culture was mentioned. The Director acknowledged that at the time he began working at the school, he understood the need to continue to promote a constructive organizational culture. He maintained that the work done by current administrators in focusing on role-based strategies to develop teacher leadership created a healthier organization, focused on student learning. However, other administrators suggested that lack of focus on culture building was leading to the development of 'default' cultures within divisions. Teachers referred to the work done by the previous administration around culture building in a very positive manner, suggesting that this needed to be taken up again and kept in continual focus. They expressed belief that the current administrators were spending less time on culture building. They also expressed an understanding that student learning needed to be a greater priority of the administrators.

Both administrators and teachers acknowledged that the focus on developing a constructive organizational culture had positive effects where it had occurred. Administrators who had been part of the school at the time of the focus on culture building saw positive effects in a number of areas related to relationships, interactions, and collaboration. Where there was not a focus on culture building, these positive effects were not evident. Teachers who had been part of the school at the time of the focus on culture building expressed regret that it was no longer a priority. They identified the shared understanding of how interactions would occur as the key positive effect of the focus.

Organizational culture was seen to influence teacher leaders. Administrators acknowledged that within the prevailing organizational culture, teacher leaders do not willingly step forward for leadership roles and do not stay in the roles for long periods. Negativity within

the culture was seen to be the cause for this and teacher leaders have requested training as to how to handle such negativity. Again, administrators perceived that developing teacher leaders and establishing communities of practice were ways to change the prevailing organizational culture. However, no recognition of this failing to occur to date was demonstrated. Teacher leaders acknowledged that returning to a focus on building a constructive organizational culture would help them in their roles as teacher leaders. They identified shared purposes and common understandings of how interactions would occur as being extremely beneficial for them in their interactions with others as teacher leaders.

While administrators expressed a range of understandings related to the nature and importance of organizational culture, teacher leaders expressed similar understandings of its nature and importance. Though the Director was not certain whether teachers were happy working at ISA, he was confident that the organization was 'healthier'. Another administrator identified the need for a warmer culture, which placed value on dialogue and friendships. Yet, another administrator saw culture to be a 'female thing' largely irrelevant to the work of the school. In contrast, one of the consultants who had interacted with all of the administrators expressed the view that building a culture of collaboration and joint leadership was crucial for teacher leadership to reach its potential.

Teacher leaders expressed agreement about the nature and importance of organizational culture. They agreed on the central importance of culture acting as a filter for everything that happens in the school. They also agreed that organizational culture influences the educational environment for students and the feelings that students have within the school. They noted that students understood if teachers were happy at the school or not and that this influenced their education. The need to constantly attend to maintaining a constructive culture was also acknowledged.

Both administrators and teachers expressed perceptions and related incidents that have occurred within the context of ISA that indicate that the prevailing organizational culture was not constructive. Administrators acknowledged the following:

- That many initiatives have been tried but few have been successful;

- That there is not a shared understanding of how interactions should occur;

- That reality and perceptions often contradict;

- That cynicism leads to rumor generation;

- That negative members of the school have significant, destructive impact on the school preventing initiatives from moving forward;
- That there is a mismatch between the image of the school projected externally and the internal realities;
- That skepticism prevails;
- That teacher leaders are targets for negativity.

Teacher leaders acknowledged similar indicators as follows:

- That prevailing attitudes of not participating eventually affect teacher leaders;
- That ISA has a history of unsuccessful initiatives;
- That cynicism prevails;
- That new ideas are ignored.

4.9 Motivating factors

Consideration was given to factors that motivate administrators and teachers to become and remain part of the initiative to build leadership capacity. Administrators and teachers considered factors relating to their own motivation as well as to the motivation of others. A summary of the perspectives concludes the section.

Motivating factors – The administrative perspective

Administrators considered motivational factors from three perspectives. They reflected on what motivated them to participate in the initiative to build leadership capacity, as well what they considered motivated other administrators and what motivated teachers to be part of the initiative.

Motivating self

Administrators considered themselves to be motivated by genuine desires to foster the initiative, believing “in the philosophy of building leadership capacity” (Admin 06 Q), as the “only vehicle that makes a lasting and positive impact” (Admin 07 Q). They “strongly believe in collaboration” (Admin 06 Q), as they understand what “works in education and with people” and the impact that this has on everyone (Admin 07 Q). There is a keen desire “to learn and be involved in empowering leadership amongst all faculty” members (Admin 06 Q).

The development of the school, wanting "the school to be the best it can be" (Admin 06 Q) is a key motivating factor. There is a "firm belief that teachers must be leaders to help the school achieve its vision and to create a community of people learning together" (Admin 06 Q). The school will experience "more success" with more members of the school community on board with the learning initiatives (Admin 06 Q).

Administrators also see themselves as motivated by wanting "to grow professionally and personally" (Admin 07 Q). They value the "learning opportunities" (Admin 06 Q) presented by the initiative. The initiative was seen to be important to them and they wanted it to succeed (Admin 07 Q).

Motivating other administrators

Administrators expressed uncertainty as to factors which may motivate other administrators to take part in the initiative. Some generally felt that other administrators would be motivated by factors similar to those which motivated them, including an "inherent desire to empower all stakeholders" (Admin 06 Q), a "sense of responsibility" (Admin 06 Q), and genuinely "wanting to share leadership" (Admin 06 Q). However, a "variety of motivators" (Admin 06 Q) were also suggested, including "expectation" (Admin 06 Q), "ego" (Admin 06 Q), and "a way to get more work done" (Admin 06 Q). That there was "no 'buzz' among the admin team on this" made motivations difficult to comment upon (Admin 06 Q). Administrators who joined ISA in August 2007 expressed uncertainty about the motivations of others as it was "never discussed as a group" (Admin 07 Q), and there "was no introduction to this initiative, so no sharing of this kind" (Admin 07 Q).

Motivating teachers

Administrators viewed teachers as being motivated to take part in the initiative for a range of reasons, including both "external and internal motivations" (Admin 06 Q). Career building and resume building were seen as primary motivators (Admin 06 Q). Participation in the initiative gave teachers "the opportunity to lead, [to] gain experience" (Admin 06 Q), and "to explore the idea of administrative possibilities in their future" (Admin 06 Q). Teachers who would like to advance in their career, could "get a lot of experience" at ISA "doing different things" (Peter I). "Depending upon what they want to do with their career," teachers have "real-life leadership examples that they can append to their resume and it sets them up down the road" (Abbot I). There was also a sense that participation in the initiative was "required as a part of their job" (Admin 06 Q), and that the "high

expectations" placed on teachers created a "feeling that they must do their part" (Admin 06 Q).

Administrators acknowledged that teachers were motivated by "wanting to change ISA for the better" (Admin 06 Q), and "to make a difference in the lives of children" (Admin 07 Q). They felt that "a desire to participate in creating a vision for the future," was evident (Admin 06 Q). Given that the professional model that teachers are "working within is … not about the money," the key concern for teachers is how to "contribute to this organization in a positive way" (Don I).

In the context of ISA, administrators thought teachers were professionally motivated to take part in the initiative for several reasons. For example, they wanted "to gain perspective of how/why school wide decisions are made" (Admin 06 Q), "to have their voices heard" (Admin 06 Q), and "to be a part of something bigger than their classroom roles" (Admin 06 Q).

Personal sources of motivation were also acknowledged. Administrators understood that teachers wanted "to grow professionally," (Admin 07 Q) and valued the "opportunity to have hands on experience" (Ed I). In wanting to "become more effective teachers," (Admin 06 Q) teachers "hone their practice," and "become better teachers because they're leaders" (Aron I). Teachers wanted "some concrete skill development," (Larry I) and to learn "new skills" (Admin 06 Q). Further, they wanted to "feel that they're supported," (Abbot I) "valued and respected beyond their classroom" (Admin 06 Q). "Support from their colleagues," "results in increased self-esteem," and increased positive feelings about working at ISA (Larry I). In short, "nothing motivates like success," was thought to be true for teachers as well as students (Admin FG).

Teachers were believed to gain a sense of "personal fulfillment" (Admin 06 Q), "accomplishment" (Peter I), and "empowerment" (Pam I). This was thought to be gained from "making a difference for their colleagues with whom they work most closely" (Admin 06 Q), "being a part of a learning environment as professionals" (Admin 06 Q), and from "student success and student learning" (Admin 06 Q). It was thought that teachers were "going above what's expected because their personal standards" were "calling them to do that" (Abbot I). In short, teachers in the initiative "are just on cloud nine … they love it!" (Maria I).

Administrators thought that it was likely that teachers would be suspicious of the motives of other teachers. Since “everyone is quick to think the worst of another's motives” (Admin FG), it is likely that teachers will do the same when considering the motives of their colleagues for participating in the initiative. It was considered as “just human nature that teachers, human beings,” would “question other people’s motives about [anything] whether it's to take on additional leadership or really anything” (Larry I).

Motivating factors – The teacher perspective

Teachers also reflected motivational factors from three perspectives. They reflected on what could or did motivate them to participate in the initiative to build leadership capacity. They also considered what motivated administrators and what motivated other teachers to be part of the initiative.

Motivating self

The majority of teachers felt that they could be motivated to be part of the initiative if they had more time to participate or less demands on their time and energy than they currently had. Teachers requested “a big, big, big, time allowance” (T 06 Q), or something “taken away from the work load” (T 06 Q). Teachers regretted that they “just have no time to get involved more” (T 06 Q), and that the demands on their time were too great “to even consider anything more” (T 07 Q). While most of the faculty wanted to be part of the initiative, “daily demands at ISA” were considered “extraordinary,” such that they did not “always allow for commitment to anything beyond the minimum job responsibilities” (T 06 Q).

Lack of time was linked to several considerations. Teachers would be motivated if there “was enough time provided … to do a good job in the classroom” (T 06 Q), or if it would not “be unfair” to the students (T 06 Q). Others felt the need to have time to take care of themselves and their family relationships (T 06 Q).

Teachers considered themselves to be motivated to be part of the initiative by a range of genuine, personal motivators. Simply stated, “they enjoy it, because they like it” (Melinda I). In other words, they are motivated by job satisfaction (Candy I). Other motivators amongst teachers, included being “curious to see where things can go” (Melinda I), wanting to “collaborate positively” (Ellen I), liking being “involved in many things” (Terry I), “empowering those who work at ISA (T 06 Q) and gaining confidence as a leader (Terry I).

It seemed that teachers were motivated to be part of the initiative because of relationships they had with other teachers whom they valued and with whom they liked to work and engage in dialogue. In general, they wanted to be in positions where they could "collaborate positively" with others (TL FG). If teachers happened to "run out of ideas" on their own, it was considered "just so great to be a part of a group" so they could share (TL FG). The result was that they started to "create these little communities" and they realized that "part of the motivation for being involved is having dialogue … and sitting with people" (TL FG). Specifically, some teachers identified other teachers who motivated them. One noted that she "really enjoyed doing pre-K through 12 Academic Support team" and the reason was that she loved "planning with Alice" (Betty I). Another claimed she loved "being part of conversations with people who I consider on that edge" (Ellen I). She noted that "Jane and I will just catch ourselves in the hall sometimes and just go, dah, dah, dah, you know," and explained that Joan has "got that passion … she loves what she does and she wants to get better," and added that she found it "just so exciting" in "that situation" (Ellen I).

Teachers were motivated to be part of the initiative by learning. Loving learning and being excited by it, loving being involved in the learning of peers, and loving being involved in the learning of the children were key motivators (TL FG). Learning takes place every day, from students and colleagues, and there is always a sense that something could have been done better (Kate I). A "whole bunch of learning" was seen to have resulted from experiences the initiative provided (Justin I).

Teachers also see themselves as motivated to take part in the initiative by wanting "to grow professionally" (T 06 Q). They viewed themselves as "more knowledgeable" about task force focus areas (Terry I). They considered that they had gained specific skills of facilitating (Betty I), as well as "just become a better leader in general" (Marc I). They were motivated by an interest in improving as a teacher (T 06 Q), and becoming the best teacher they could be (T 06 Q). Overall, professionally it was seen as "really good" to take on a leadership role (Mike I).

Motivation was also found in hope for a career move in the future. The initiative was seen as "a huge chunk" that provided preparation when moving into administration (Terry I). It provided "a sort of a foot in the administrative world" (Connie I), and an "opportunity to explore leadership" for "an aspiring school leader" (T 06 Q). Involvement was seen as something that "looks good" on a CV or resume (T 06 Q).

Expectation provided motivation to take part in the initiative. Teachers felt that everyone needed to "step up" (T 06 Q), and that if not involved, they would be asked why they weren't (T 06 Q). In some cases, teachers involved themselves when asked to participate or at the "personal request" of an administrator (T 06 Q).

Teachers said that they would be motivated if they thought their participation and contributions would be valued (T 06 Q). Teachers would like to feel that an "administrator was actually interested" in their opinions (T 07 Q). When feeling that contributions are not valued any more, why would they "make the effort?" (T 06 Q). Feelings of frustration result from the belief that "there is no recognition" (Joan I).

Similarly, teachers would participate if they were "convinced that … time spent would be fruitful and meaningful (T 06 Q), and that they had a "genuine ability to make changes needed" (T 07 Q). Teachers "look for ways to have real impact" (T 06 Q), and this is not provided for "as decisions are made outside of the meeting times" (T 06 Q). Teachers believe their time is not well spent as they believe "that the admin team already … set the expected outcome before the initiative started" (T 06 Q), making the committee a work place for a "rubber stamp" (T 07 Q). The Director is thought to listen, and then disregard "what he just heard in order to follow his own agenda" which raises suspicion of "Let One Hundred Flowers Bloom…" (T 06 Q).

Motivation to participate would increase with greater predictability from central administration. If teachers could "trust that central admin knew what they were doing and were genuine about their undertakings" (T 06 Q), motivation would be enhanced. For example, "CFG was a fabulous initiative that sparked a lot of interest," yet "the subsequent lack of support for the program by the school, in terms of time, has been disheartening" (T 06 Q). The solution is to "wait and see which initiatives are worth being a part of in the future," rather than to participate. "The school is great at starting new programs, but not so good at following through with support" (T 06 Q).

Motivating administrators

Teachers viewed administrators as being motivated to take part in the initiative for a range of reasons. Primarily, involvement in the initiative was considered as an expectation to which administrators were accountable. They were seen to participate for "fear of being fired because they are 'not on board' with Larry" (T 06 Q). Administrators were seen to have "no choice" (T 06 Q), as "the top issued the directive" (T 06 Q), that is, "the Director

decided they should!" (T 06 Q). It was seen that administrators "are always part of leadership and any leadership initiatives" (T 06 Q), and "involvement is expected since it is a school-wide goal" (T 06 Q). Administrators were thought to "feel much like teachers do about the unwritten requirement" to participate (T 06 Q). It is "necessary to appear to be 'a part of the team' and by not being a part of the initiative" it would appear to "be not working toward the 'vision'" (T 06 Q). While acknowledging that administrators "might be expected to be part" of the initiative as "it is supposed to be school-wide," it was noted that "some seem more interested than others" (T 06 Q). Still having "a 'top down' aspect to our school's leadership model," was attributed to the understanding that "administrators believe in the initiative only because there is a lot of published work on the topic ... and they want to keep up with current research ... BUT... they don't necessarily FEEL its value" (T 06 Q).

Teachers recognized that administrators were motivated to take part in the initiative to "look good" to a variety of stakeholders (T 06 Q). Concern for "how it looks" to "parents" (T 06 Q), "to the international school community," to "evaluation teams" like "WASC" (T 06 Q), and "to the world" (T 06 Q) was seen to drive administrators. "How others perceive the school from the outside" (T 06 Q) was considered important, and "to be able to say that all teachers have the opportunity to be leaders and that most take on that role" (T 06 Q) was considered noteworthy.

Another source of motivation to participate in the initiative came from interest "to move forward in their careers" (T 06 Q). "Resume building" (T 06 Q) and gaining experience in this field (T 06 Q) were thought to be ways of expanding job possibilities for the future (T 06 Q).

Personal sources of motivation were also acknowledged. Teachers understood that "some may be genuine, but most seem comfortable with the hierarchy and the power distribution as it is" (T 06 Q). Some administrators "believe in the direction the school is going with leadership capacity" (T 06 Q) and they "desire to build leadership capacity among the faculty" (T 06 Q). Some have "a genuine interest in change from within, and a flatter level of admin" (T 06 Q), and "truly embrace shared leadership" (T 06 Q). Some were seen to be motivated "from honest belief that making others leaders is the primary task of administration" (T 06 Q), or from "a genuine desire to make things more positive" (T 06 Q). Administrators who have taken this on "in a genuine way have dealt with the hesitancies involved in true teacher empowerment, and understand the value of shared leadership in a community where learning and growth is a goal for everyone" (T 06 Q).

“Professional growth” (T 06 Q) was seen as a motivator for administrators to be involved. The initiative may “help them be a better leader!” (T 06 Q). As “administrators are learners too,” they were seen to be “able to develop their skills” (T 06 Q), along with “new understandings, and strategies” (T 06 Q). The initiative may help administrators who “desire to be collaborative leaders” (T 07 Q).

Administrators were also seen to be motivated to support the initiative as a “way of improving the school” (T 06 Q). Administrators are involved in the initiative as ‘it helps them to better build the school” (T 06 Q), and as a means of seeing “their visions accepted” (T 06 Q). They participate because they believe “that they can effect change through their participation” (T 06 Q), “and make an impact on the education” (T 06 Q).

Motivating other teachers

Teachers were uncertain as to factors which may motivate other teachers to take part in the initiative. The majority considered other teachers to be motivated by extrinsic forces, including links to career building, resume building, earning credits for master level study, and fulfilling expectations of administrators.

Career building and resume building were considered strong motivators. Teachers “take leadership positions as CV boosters” (Jane I), and participate in the initiative as it offers “teachers opportunities to extend careers, for example, experience to add to” a resume (TL FG). “Sometimes that’s the only reason somebody’s doing a teacher leader job,” and that is “to pad their resume” (TL FG). Yet, this is often “not a very meaningful experience for them or for anybody else” (TL FG). Building resumes involves teachers in “choosing to do the things that will make them look good” (T 07 Q). Unfortunately, this seems a “reality in a lot of cases” and teachers are involved “more out of what’s this going to get” them, as opposed to what can they “do for the school” (Connie I). Concern was evident that teachers were “trading classroom teaching and learning quality for resume building” and that “Central Administration appears to condone this trade off” (T 06 Q). An interest in "climbing the ladder" (T 06 Q) was also seen as a motivator. “There is a lot of energy from [teachers] working towards administration positions in their future” (T 06 Q), or teachers with “the hunger to be high up in school administrations” (T 06 Q).

Accumulating credits for Master degree work was also seen as a motivator for teacher participation in the initiative. It seemed that “We say ‘We're here for the students’ but” it is more like “we're here to ‘get more teachers Master degrees’” (T 06 Q). Teachers “freely

admit" that their involvement amounts to "going through the motions to get their three points for their Masters … rather than for any other noble reason" (T 06 Q).

Teachers considered others to be motivated to be involved in the initiative to fulfill an expectation of involvement. Teachers are involved as they "feel forced," having "been asked" and not wanting "to say no" (T 06 Q). "Pressure/guilt from administration" follows "the inference that one is not professional, if one is not on or leading committees (more than one)" (T 06 Q). A variety of comments captured these sentiments, including that teachers felt "coerced being on committees" that are a waste of time (T 06 Q), that "upper admin is keeping score" (T 06 Q), that there is "pressure to 'do it all'" (T 06 Q), and that teachers were "looking for 'brownie points'" (T 06 Q).

Statements that teachers could "choose" the amount they wished to be involved were considered as "surface only" (T 06 Q). Teachers felt that they had not "been given much of a choice in taking up these initiatives in the past year or two" (T 06 Q). The argument that, "You are either with the court or against it" (T 06 Q) was expressed. The sentiment was expressed "specifically at faculty meetings" that, if teachers were "unwilling to support the direction that the school is moving in," there was "no place" for them at ISA (TL FG). Teachers felt motivated by the thought of "keeping their jobs" (T 06 Q). Linked to this was the motivation to participate in order to secure a positive "recommendation from an administrator" for future employment (T 06 Q).

Teachers also attributed each other with intrinsic motivation for participation in the initiative. It was suggested that teachers who were "given an opportunity to show leadership in an area of their strength," would "not mind that extra responsibility," as it would "not be a burden for them" (Candy I). Teachers were seen to be "learners," who would "give of their time," if they thought it would "benefit themselves, their colleagues and their students" (T 06 Q). They were also seen to have a "desire to feel supported and collaborate" (T 06 Q). In general, teachers "care" (T 06 Q), have "genuine intent" (T 06 Q), and "want to be part of the positive too" (T 06 Q).

Teachers were thought to be motivated by pursuit of "personal, professional growth" (T 07 Q). Being willing to "take risks" was a way to "keep growing" in their own professional lives (Ellen I). Both "personal challenge" and "professional growth" were sought after (T 07 Q). Other motivators were noted as being "professional stimulation" (T 06 Q), a "desire for self-improvement" (T 07 Q), "developing and improving professional skills and knowledge" (T 06 Q), and "learning about leadership" (T 06 Q).

“The feeling of sharing the huge load with others” (T 06 Q) was identified as motivating. In one division, it was noted that the “ethos to share responsibilities” was “the done thing!” and this generated “a sense of satisfaction from collaborating” (T 07 Q).

A desire to contribute to the profession and to the work of the school was identified as a motivating force (T 06 Q). It was pointed out that teachers “like to feel like professionals” (T 07 Q), who are “contributing to something” (T 07 Q). Many teachers were considered to be “sincerely interested in school improvement” (T 06 Q), wanting “more impact on school reform” (T 07 Q), and “genuinely interested in making school a better place” (T 06 Q). They were seen to want “to help the school grow in a positive direction” (T 06 Q), “to contribute to the energy of ISA, and to be part of the fusion of ideas and the range of pedagogical perspectives that emerges from our international faculty” (T 06 Q). Teachers were seen not only to “want to make a difference,” but also to “want these initiatives to work” (Ellen I). It was noted that “most teachers want to 'do the right thing',” and that “most teachers can identify how the initiatives can benefit everyone” (T 06 Q). Teachers were seen to “take on leadership roles because they also believe in ISA initiatives” (T 06 Q).

Identified teacher leaders involved in the initiative were perceived as having certain character traits. They are the kind of people who would fill every hour of the day with some work-related activity (Kate I). It was considered fortunate to have “only 24 hours in a day” as “if there were more,” they’d fill them, and they “wouldn’t … use them for leisure” (Kate I). They are “the people who don’t say no basically,” and if asked “will make it work” (Ellen I). They were also seen to be the “people that have an investment in the school, “who don’t see work “as a 9 to 5 job” and who “don’t punch a time card” (Ellen I). It was suggested that “people that have those passions and have those desires … are the ones that take on these roles or they’re asked to do the roles,” so it is possible to “see the same kind of type of personality emerging” (Ellen I). Since they share these characteristics, they see worth in the “pretty impressive” groups they form, as they know that there will be “really good dialogue,” that they “can get something out” of them and that they will “enjoy” the groups (TL FG). They see each other as the kind of people they “would go and seek out and get information from at any other levels,” especially when they “run out of ideas” of their own (Ellen I). Since it is so “great to be a part of a group” like this, the members start to “create these little communities” and “part of the motivation for being involved is having dialogue … and sitting with people” (Ellen I). Teachers, “skilled people,” on the same committee get together outside of meetings with suggestions of what to try and what to read and it is in

these exchanges that “so many new ideas” develop, and it is the “skilled people” who motivate each other (Ellen I).

Motivating factors – Summary

Motivations for being part of the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders were explored. Administrators and teachers shared their perceptions of what motivated them to take part. Administrators also shared their perception of what motivated other administrators and what motivated teachers to take part in the initiative. Teachers also shared their perception of what motivated administrators and what motivated other teachers to take part in the initiative.

Self

Administrators and teachers shared their perceptions of what motivated them to take part in the initiative. Administrators viewed themselves to be motivated by a genuine desire to be part of the initiative, reflecting strong commitment to building leadership capacity and the related concepts of collaboration and empowerment. Other key motivators were the desire for school improvement and personal and professional growth.

The majority of teachers felt that they would be motivated to take part in the initiative if they had sufficient time available to them to do so. They expressed a need for more time to participate or less demands on their time and energy, such that participation would still allow for focus on themselves, their families and their students. Participating teachers perceived themselves to be motivated by a sense of job satisfaction and personal interests, along with a desire to continue learning, to grow professionally, to enhance career opportunities, and to satisfy the expectation for participation. Some teachers were motivated by the relationships that they had with others whom they valued, and the dialogues that could take place in such relationships. Some teachers suggested additional factors that would motivate them to participate: knowing that their participation and contribution would be valued, feeling that efforts would lead to meaningful and genuine change, and trusting central administrators to be genuine and to follow through with what was started.

Administrators

Administrators shared their perception of what motivated other administrators to take part in the initiative, and teachers shared their perception of what motivated administrators to take part in the initiative.

In general, administrators expressed uncertainty as to what motivated other administrators to want to engage in building leadership capacity. Some thought that other administrators would be motivated by the same kind of genuine desire to foster the initiative that motivated them to take part. However, some suggested meeting expectations, satisfying egos, and a means of getting more work done to be motivators for other administrators. Motivations were difficult to determine as there was no energy or interest expressed about the initiative by administrators who were at the school in August 2006. Administrators new to ISA in August 2007 found motivations difficult to determine as the initiative was not discussed with them and they were not introduced to the initiative.

In general, the majority of teachers assumed administrators to be motivated to take part in the initiative as it was part of the expectation attached to their roles as handed to them by the Director. Additional motivating forces were identified as a desire to impress stakeholder groups, and a desire to build their resumes for future job opportunities. A minority of teachers ascribed personal sources of motivation to administrators, seeing their involvement as genuine in wanting to build leadership capacity, flatten the hierarchy, and share leadership. Some teachers acknowledged that administrators were seeking professional growth and improvement, and others acknowledged a desire to improve the school and the education provided at the school as motivating factors.

Teachers

Administrators shared their perception of what motivated teachers to take part in the initiative, and teachers shared their perception of what motivated other teachers to take part in the initiative.

Administrators viewed teachers to be primarily motivated to take part in the initiative for resume building and career advancement. An additional extrinsic motivator was seen to be a response to the expectation to participate. Administrators also attributed intrinsic motivation to the desire to change ISA for the better, and to contribute to students and to the school in positive ways. Additional intrinsic motivators were identified as professional growth and skill development, as well as personal fulfillment and satisfaction. Administrators anticipated that teachers would be suspicious of the motives of other teachers who participated in the initiative.

Teachers expressed uncertainty as to what motivated other teachers to be part of the initiative. The majority of teachers viewed other teachers to be primarily motivated by

extrinsic factors, such as resume building, career advancement, earning credits for Master's level study, and meeting the expectations of administrators. Teachers saw that other teachers were focusing on these motivators at the expense of quality teaching and learning, and that administrators generally supported this dynamic. A minority of teachers viewed other teachers to be motivated by intrinsic factors, such as a desire to take on additional responsibilities, to help others, and to be part of the positive. Personal and professional growth, the satisfaction of sharing responsibilities, and contributing to the profession were also seen as motivating factors.

Teacher leaders identified common motivating factors amongst themselves. They saw themselves as similar types of people, motivated by a desire to make things work and a commitment to their profession. They believed that they motivated each other through engagement with one another. They also thought that they sought each other out to engage in dialogue and exchange ideas, outside of the formal structures set up within the organization. It was through these interactions that the motivations to continue were gained.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter presented and commented on the findings related to the outcomes associated with the initiative to build leadership capacity in an international school. A description of the context into which the initiative was introduced at ISA was provided. The description highlighted changes in the Senior Administrative Team, the rapid growth of the school, the unique challenge of providing comparable pre-kindergarten to grade 12 curriculum on two campuses, preparations for engaging in the reaccreditation process, and specifics about recent school improvement initiatives. Findings were discussed from two key perspectives, an administrative perspective and from a teacher perspective. From these perspectives attention was given to outcomes associated with the initiative, its impact on the context of, relationships at, and culture prevailing at ISA, and the motivating factors that led to engagement in the initiative.

The data presented in this chapter provides the basis for further analysis and interpretation of the findings as described in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSING THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the analysis and interpretation of the data presented in Chapter 4. In order to analyse and interpret the data, the researcher has endeavoured to step back from it to examine the process experienced and perceptions captured in relation to the outcomes associated with efforts at ISA to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders. In trying to capture the complexity of the organization and the initiative undertaken, the data indicated that a view of the organization as a whole was the most effective starting point for discussion of the findings. From this starting point, aspects of the school influenced by the initiative can be more fully appreciated.

Since developing a conceptual understanding of the total organization was a necessary starting point in the process of analysis and interpretation, this chapter begins with a description of the findings related to the outcomes of the initiative from an overall organizational perspective. This section responds to the research focus question: what happens in an international school when the school intentionally seeks to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, and how does this influence discourse about leadership in the school? Having described the impacts on the organization as a whole, the next section responds to the research supporting question: how do discourses related to leadership change from a range of perspectives? The findings related to discourses about leadership are described. The next section responds to the research support question: what impact does the initiative have on the context of and relationships within the organization as a whole? Findings associated with the impact of the initiative on the context of, and relationships within, the organization as a whole are portrayed. The last section of the chapter addresses the final support question: what motivates administrators and teacher leaders to become and remain part of the initiative, and thus sustain it? Findings in relation to the factors motivating administrators and teacher leaders to become and remain part of the initiative are discussed.

5.2 Outcomes of the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders

5.2.1 An image of ISA as an organization

Bowers (1993) contends that all human thinking is both cultural and metaphorical in essence. Similarly, Morgan (1997, p. 4) explains that the use of metaphor implies "… a way of thinking and a way of seeing" that permeates how people generally understand the world around them. Correspondingly, Lakoff & Johnson (1980) posit that the human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined and that this conceptual system plays a central role in defining our everyday realities; our daily thoughts, actions and experiences are a matter of metaphor.

To fully understand what happened at ISA when the school intentionally sought to build leadership capacity, an appreciation of ISA as an organization is a necessary starting point. To help build this appreciation, the researcher has adopted a metaphor to create an image of the organization and provide a way of thinking about it. Essentially, the use of metaphor helps in understanding a concept or experience by relating it to something else (Campbell Williams & Dobson, 1995). When applied to organizations and management then, metaphor can be used to help in understanding and exploring theories of organization and management (Morgan, 1997), and in viewing and understanding situations in fresh, new ways. Exploring the implications of a key metaphor has helped the researcher understand the nature of ISA as an organization (Morgan, 1997), along with its design and approach to leadership and management.

In identifying an appropriate metaphor, the researcher has reverted to traditional management theory which has long relied on the metaphor of the organization as a machine. The image of organizations as machines reflects a rational, functional way of thinking which leads to a view that management is "… a process of planning, organization, command, coordination, and control" (Morgan, 1997, p. 18). The metaphor is generally associated with bureaucracy which, coincidentally, is a widely held perception of the nature of ISA as an organization. This perception holds that organizations are rational, logical, impersonal, formal, predictable, and systematic, and reflects a belief that people within the organization are motivated by the lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, attending to pay and benefits, job security, and advancement in rank (Owens & Valesky, 2007). It reflects elements of extensive departmentalisation, high formalisation, limited flow of information, and limited participation in decision making (Robbins et al., 2004). Each of these elements is evident in the perceptions of ISA expressed by administrators and teachers in the data collected by the researcher.

Morgan (1997) points out that thinking about organizations as machines is so entrenched into people's concepts of organizations that it is difficult for some people to view organizations in any other way. At ISA, words and actions of both administrators and teachers indicate that this way of thinking about the school as a machine seems to be ingrained into their minds. While the words of some administrators may reflect an image of a non-machine like organization, that is, for example, one which is flexible and responsive to its environment, their actions as seen by others to reflect a view of management focused on, for example, coordination and control. Teachers seem generally resigned to accepting the 'top down' nature of the organization, and understanding the principles at work to make it function. Further, the work done by the ISA machine is in accordance with a set of principles that govern its actions (Macaulay, 1998). The use of different language by different administrators to label the parts of the machine does not alter the set of principles that regulate outcomes.

That the image of ISA as a machine seems so ensconced into the way of thinking of administrators and teachers at the school is neither positive nor negative. This way of thinking has shaped the basic conceptualization of organizations since the late 1700s (Morgan, 2003). Implicit expectations that organizations will function like machines and be hierarchical, efficient, predictable are held by many. It is important to note that there are no value judgements attached by the researcher to any aspect of the outcomes discussed in relation to the machine metaphor. Individuals within the organization have come to their own conscious and unconscious understandings and ways of thinking about organizations from a range of influences throughout their personal and professional lives. Each is undoubtedly entitled to his or her own perception of reality at ISA, and each is understood to be acting with the best intentions of the organization in mind.

Design and structure

Schein (2004, p. 264) states that initial and periodic reviews of organizational design and structure provide the opportunity for leaders to consciously or unconsciously reinforce their assumptions about "… the task, the means to accomplish it, the nature of people, and the right kinds of relationships to foster among people." Applying the image of the school as a machine places the Director as the chief designer of the structure that makes up the ISA machine. In this role, his goal is to design the organization's structure so that the well defined roles served by various parts of the organization link together to form an efficient functioning whole (Morgan, 2003). Throughout this process, the underlying assumptions

seem to focus on rational planning and control (Morgan, 2003) so that tasks are completed as efficiently as possible.

From his arrival in the 2005 – 2006 school year, Larry focused on the design and structure of the ISA machine. A primary example of the way in which he developed structure that defined how job tasks are officially divided, arranged, and coordinated (Robbins et al., 2004) relates to the manner in which he responded to changes within the Administrative Team. Larry masterminded the reconfiguration of the Administrative Team in each of the three years from his arrival in 2005-2006 school year to the 2007-2008 school year, the year in which the data were collected. He rationally and deliberately adjusted the structure of the Administrative Team; responding to growth by adding or reinstating positions in the hierarchy and appointing additional personnel, managing turnover by replacing departing personnel, and altering the manner in which job tasks were divided.

Given that an organization's size significantly affects its structure (Robbins et al, 2004), the size of ISA and the rapid growth of the organization are likely to have been key considerations for Larry when reengineering the design and structure of the ISA machine. For example, as a large organization, ISA is likely to have a more mechanistic structure with more departmentalization and more rules and regulations than a smaller organization (Robbins et al., 2004). Further, reengineering efforts needed to take into account annual growth in student population and the expansion of facilities and services to support the growing number of students.

That the ISA machine spans two geographical locations is a particular challenge to the design and structure. Establishing three divisions on each of two campuses which share central administrators and support service departments, for example, Human Resources and Finance, added complexity to the reengineering demands. The job tasks for central administrators and support service departments included focus on providing services to both campuses, and job tasks for divisional principals included focus on cross-campus alignment of curriculum and related procedures. With the South Campus reaching capacity of student enrolment, the levers, gears, belts, and cranks that were necessary for it to function had then to be replicated on the North Campus. In addition, complex linkages were needed to ensure that the campuses were interconnected.

Changes to key personnel sharing responsibility for engineering design also offered a particular challenge to the design and structure of the ISA machine. The Director, Larry, and the Assistant Director, Cindy, worked closely together in Central Administration for their

first two years at ISA, the 2005-2006 and the 2006-2007 school years. Larry and Cindy spent a great amount of time together during the 2005-2006 school year working on design and structure before launching school improvement plans for the 2006-2007 school year. At the end of the 2006-2007 school year, Cindy left the school and was replaced by Aron who moved from being the Elementary School Principal on the North Campus to Assistant Director. Additional personnel joined Central Administration and brought with them different experiences of engineering design. At the beginning of the 2007-2008 school year, the new design team presented a slightly different profile of how work could be completed. While evidence of Cindy's planning remained, the new design team tinkered with design and structure of the ISA machine according to their expertise and interests.

Ultimately, the structure of the ISA machine is a means by which the organization can accomplish its goals and objectives (Robbins et al., 2004). Since the goals and objectives at ISA are derived from the vision statement and the long-range educational plan, it follows that strategies to accomplish the vision statement and the long-range educational plan and the structure of the ISA machine should be closely linked. Robbins et al. (2004) emphasize that structure should follow strategy and that a significant change in an organization's strategy should lead to a modification in structure to accommodate and support the change. It is important to note that the vision statement that influenced the development of the long-range educational plan, and consequently the goals and objectives of the school was created at the end of Larry and Cindy's first year at the school, and the process of creating the statement was not one of wide ranging collaboration.

When embarking on the strategies identified to accomplish the vision and the long-range educational plan, the need for the Director to modify existing structures to accommodate and support the revised strategies was implicit. Similarly, embarking on the strategy to build leadership capacity by developing teacher leadership to focus on each component of the vision statement and strategies of the long-range educational plan reinforced the need to modify existing structures to support this strategy. As the designer of the ISA machine, Larry was aware of these implications and put structures into place to support teachers to develop leadership potential and opportunities were provided to allow any interested teacher to be involved in "various ways from task forces to committees, to team leaderships, to cohort groups, to critical friends" (Larry I).

In pursuit of structure following strategy, the possibility existed for a complete metamorphosis of the ISA machine. The strategy to build leadership capacity may have

prompted a designer with a different understanding, experience, and/or perception of machinery in action to completely transform the structure of the ISA machine and revolutionize its functioning. The strategy to build leadership capacity calls for structures of distributed leadership, communities of practice, and shared decision-making; that is, structures significantly different from those perceived to be in operation at ISA. Larry's intention may have been transformational, yet what seemed to have eventuated related to reengineering within the parameters already established for the ISA machine.

Within the ISA machine, teachers understood that they were not exercising leadership, but viewed themselves to be carrying out management tasks as determined by others further up the hierarchy. Strategies adopted were generally not seen to have changed the view of leadership predominant at ISA. Leadership at ISA was generally seen to have remained as top-down, reflecting traditional, hierarchical structures with decisions made by a few at the very top of the hierarchy. It may be argued that structures prevalent in organizations as machines may not fully allow the goals and objectives of the strategies to be attained, regardless of the extent to which structures are modified or adjusted.

Another designer may have focused upon completely different conceptual premises. Yet, the reengineering of the design and structure at ISA to support the strategies to build leadership capacity by developing teacher leaders were within the parameters already established for the ISA machine. Larry featured two overlapping designs in establishing structures to support building leadership capacity; teacher career strategies and broadening administrative structures and roles (Murphy, 2005). These overlapping designs fall within the role-based pathway to developing teacher leadership (Murphy, 2005). Redesigning structures to support career-based strategies provided teachers at ISA with opportunities to assume roles with increasing levels of responsibility. This approach reflects a hierarchical understanding of a career as moving up levels of the bureaucracy (Murphy, 2005) and in turn reflects a view of leadership that is individually based, and hierarchically structured (Murphy, 2005). Reconfiguring job tasks to broaden leadership structures and roles provided teachers with opportunities to take on new or expanded roles beyond their regular classroom assignments (Murphy, 2005). The roles were determined by administrative prerogative and those in the roles were accountable to someone further up the hierarchy (Murphy, 2005). Adding opportunities for teachers to participate in roles and positions pre-determined by administrators, reinforces the hierarchical organizational

nature of the ISA machine and may be seen to reflect a type of division-of-labour model (Firestone, 1996) in which discrete job tasks are assigned to roles and positions.

Essentially, the reengineering undertaken at ISA to support the strategies to build leadership capacity focused on adjusting structures with the existing hierarchy of the organization. Within the pre-existing design and structure of the ISA machine, mechanisms were modified, yet the overall conceptual functioning of and principles of action for the ISA bureaucratic machine remained the same. The general approach to school improvement taken at ISA seems to adhere to this prototype. A large number of centrally-determined school improvement initiatives were undertaken in August 2006, each with a blueprint for the reengineering or maintenance to be performed. Frameworks for redesign and restructuring were referred to that indicated a focus on improvement resulting from a shift of responsibility from traditional hierarchical relationships (Glickman, 2002). However, by issuing 'tool kits' for specific purposes and 'job specifications' for each task, the actions of Central Administration indicated the continuation of traditional hierarchical relationships. Though rhetoric suggested differently, in reality, school improvement equated to reengineering of the ISA machine, rather than to a metamorphosis of the organization or a paradigm shift for members of the organization.

It is of significance that teachers did not have input into the development of any aspect of the planning process for the reengineering. The concepts were developed centrally, principally under the control of the Director, and then handed down to lower rungs of the hierarchy for implementation.

It is important to note that the language and intent around ISA school improvement planning indicated, and had the potential for, far more than reengineering. The language and intent underlying the development of a professional learning community suggests, for example, a potential for shared leadership and communities of practice indicative of a view of leadership as an organizational property or professional phenomenon (Murphy, 2005). The language and intent underlying the shift in focus to student learning, as a further example, suggests a potential for shift of focus for teacher leaders from management and administration to instruction and learning (Murphy, 2005).

For the potentials to be achieved, the ISA machine may require reconceptualising and redesigning.

Key characteristics of the bureaucratic ISA machine

In discussing the outcomes of the initiative to build leadership capacity at ISA certain characteristics generally associated with the organizational design and structure of a bureaucracy are evident. Departmentalization, chain of command, work specialization, centralization, and formalization (Robbins et al., 2004) are evident in the functioning of the ISA machine. These elements are briefly outlined below to extend the metaphor of the ISA machine.

Departmentalization

The divisions and departments that make up ISA function as a network that is organized in a hierarchical manner. (See Fig 1.1)

The six school divisions and the support departments of Curriculum Development, Human Resource, Communications and Finance are hierarchically networked. The divisions and departments are derived primarily according to the function performed in each division or department which in turn reflects the school's objectives and activities (Robbins et al., 2004). In addition, the divisions are departmentalized according to geography; each division is represented on each side of the city (Robbins et al., 2004). Each division and department is a separate cost centre which strives for efficiency and for which cost centre managers are responsible.

Chain of Command

The chain of command is the unbroken line of authority that extends from the top of the school with the Director through divisional principals and department managers to faculty and staff. The chain of command clarifies who reports to whom (Robbins et al., 2004) in the school. The divisions and departments ultimately operate under the supervision and control of the Director. This structure was designed to allow the chain of command to operate as precisely as possible, such that a command issued by the Director would travel through the hierarchy in a "… precisely determined way to create a precisely determined effect" (Morgan, 1997, p. 21).

At ISA, the chain of command is also used as a channel for communication and decision making (Morgan, 1997). Teacher leaders shared the responsibility of passing information sometimes 'up' and most frequently 'down' the chain of command. Teacher leaders were given appropriate titles in line with their responsibilities and served as channels of

communication between teachers and administrators. Bureaucratic power rested with the Director who controlled information accessibility and decision-making. The Director oversaw the information released and the majority of the decision making took place at the top of the hierarchy in Central Administration.

Those at the top of the hierarchy were responsible for short and long term strategic planning. Once the plans were handed down, others in the hierarchy were responsible for implementing them.

Work Specialization

Reflective of a bureaucratic machine, each division and department focuses on a specialist area and carries out job tasks related to that specialization. More specifically, the bureaucratic nature of the ISA machine is also reflected in the structure of the committees and task forces established to focus on the specific tasks related to school improvement and building leadership capacity. The Central Administrative Team set the priorities for school improvement, designed the structures for the committees and task forces, and subdivided the work of school improvement and building leadership capacity into precisely defined tasks to be completed within areas of specialized or specific focus.

In controlling the tasks to be completed, Central Administrators were also controlling the direction in which the school was heading. Individuals were not at liberty to deviate from the plan to accomplish the committee or task force outcomes as stated. This compartmentalization of tasks was designed as a means of increasing efficiency in getting the tasks completed. Members of the Central Administration assigned positions on the committees and task forces to members of the Senior Administration and expectations surrounding the responsibilities for teachers participating were clearly outlined.

Centralization

With Central Administration making the majority of the decisions, decision making was focused at this single point in the machine, making ISA a highly centralized organization. Centralization is also reflected in the committees and task forces related to school improvement and building leadership capacity. These committees and task forces were advisory in nature and the assigned administrator would generally be responsible for taking recommendations up the chain of command. Teachers expressed concern over the lack of

transparency they perceived surrounding decision making. A commonly held perception was that the committees or task forces existed to provide outcomes that already existed in the minds of administrators. Teacher leaders saw themselves as having little real influence, as if being part of "a puppet performance" (Justin I), with those higher up the hierarchy 'pulling the strings'.

Formalization

Positions at ISA are accompanied by explicit job descriptions, organizational rules and procedures are clearly outlined in handbooks, and forms accompany a host of work related processes (Robbins et al., 2004). Again, the committees and task forces related to school improvement and building leadership capacity reflect the significant degree to which jobs in the organization are standardized. While the committees and task forces increased participation, the nature of the participation was highly formalized. As intended by the Director, the involvement was "purposeful rather than random" (Larry I). It did not invite innovation or creativity as those participating had little discretion over what was to be done, when it was to be completed, and how they should do the tasks (Robbins et al., 2004).

Involvement focused predominantly on prescribed administrative and management related tasks. Often, teachers perceived these as somewhat 'trivial' in nature. Teacher leaders involved themselves in committees and task forces in response to the expectations or the requirements of the organization as they perceived them to be. They did not see their involvement as linked to responsibility or the potential to change aspects of ISA, but rather as providing input into the decision making hierarchy, and ultimately implementing the decisions made which were made by administrators further up the hierarchy and handed down to them.

Additional characteristics of the bureaucratic ISA machine

In considering the outcomes associated with the initiative to build leadership capacity, additional characteristics of the bureaucratic ISA machine are also evident. In general and in keeping with the machine metaphor, increased participation in committees and task forces was seen to be linked to greater productivity and greater efficiency for the school as a whole. Further, as more teachers participated in more tasks, it seemed that the pace of the school overall also increased.

While the intention of the designers of the initiative was to benefit members of the ISA community by providing them with leadership opportunities, a tension appeared to develop between attention to tasks as opposed to attention to relationships in the school (Sanderson, 2005). From the teachers' perspective the focus from those in control of the machine was on the tasks to be completed, placing the human aspects of relationships in the organization (Morgan, 1997) as secondary in importance. As members of committees or task forces, some teachers saw themselves responding to tasks that were handed down from higher levels of the hierarchy, as if they were expected to behave as if they were parts of machines (Morgan, 1997) whose primary function was job task completion.

A focus on the tasks to be completed by the ISA machine may have prevented the controllers from responding to some of the concerns expressed by teachers. Teachers expressed concerns over stress, overload and burnout prompted by the number of tasks related to a large number of school improvement initiatives. Yet little was done to change the level of demands on the teachers by limiting or reducing the number of initiatives. Mechanisms to provide time for teachers to deal with increased responsibilities or to offer compensation for the increased responsibilities were suggested but not investigated. Administrators placed great importance on the recruitment of teachers new to the school as a means of bringing teachers into the school that would 'fit' the organization, and would contribute to the completion of the tasks identified.

Additionally, the intention of professional development was to provide for organizational needs, rather than to provide for developing general capacities related to individuals' interests. Teachers in leadership roles were given training to help them function effectively in the roles to which they were assigned. Teachers whose interest lay in line with the priorities decided upon by ISA benefited as individuals. However, teachers whose interest was not in line with the priorities identified by ISA were not provided with professional development opportunities. Involvement in some professional development was seen as somewhat mechanical rather than genuine, as it was linked to gaining university credit points that could support career advancement and advancement on the pay scale.

Compliance to expectations from others in positions of greater power was evident in the data. Administrators and teachers perceived others to be involved in the initiative to build leadership capacity as it was "required as part of their job" (Admin 06 Q) like an "unwritten requirement to participate" (T 06 Q). Some teachers expressed a feeling of being "coerced being on committees" and of the "upper admin ... keeping score" (T 06 Q). Teachers viewed

administrators to be motivated by "fear of being fired because they are 'not on board' with Larry" (T 06 Q).

Some indications of difficulties associated with a machine-like organization were evident at ISA (Morgan, 1997). Divisional compartmentalization was seen to be a stumbling block to success for the initiative. Individuals within one division were likely to have little understanding of the realities in other divisions or in the organization as a whole (Morgan, 1997). The desire for clearly defined job descriptions reflected a desire for some organizational members to know exactly what was expected of them, and exactly what was not expected of them. Frustrations resulted when completion of tasks did not take place quickly enough. Negative feelings were expressed towards teachers who were seen to be competing for positions further up the hierarchy. Resentment and lack of trust were expressed toward those at the top of the hierarchy. Favouritism was seen to exist when those higher up the hierarchy bestowed a position of responsibility on a chosen teacher. Lack of understanding of the initiative was expressed by those lower down the hierarchy who did not receive the communication clearly through the chain of command.

Summary – An image of ISA as an organization

The image of organization as a machine reflects the commonly held view of the bureaucratic structure of ISA as an organization. The Director, who is ultimately responsible for the design and structures evident at ISA, is engaged in rational and careful planning to redesign structures to take ISA to its goal of building leadership capacity. In keeping with his conceptualization of ISA as a machine, the Director undertook a "… process of planning, organization, command, coordination, and control" (Morgan, 1997, p. 18). ISA maintained certain characteristics generally associated with the organizational design and structure of a bureaucracy, including departmentalization, chain of command, work specialization, centralization, and formalization (Robbins et al., 2004). Additional characteristics were also identified and included a focus on productivity and efficiency of task rather than on relationships, professional development driven by organizational need rather than individual need or interest, and compliance to expectations of those in greater power.

5.2.2 Building leadership capacity

Understanding ISA as an organization is the starting point for understanding what happened at ISA when the school sought to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders. One of the stated objectives of the work of the

bureaucratic ISA machine was to produce leadership capacity. Before the Director and key members of Central Administration started the work to redesign the machinery at ISA to enable this and other school improvement work to be completed, Larry shared the thinking behind his plans for redesign with all the members of the administrative team and teachers. In relation to building leadership capacity, concepts developed by Glickman (2002) and Lambert (2003) influenced the development of the plans. The presentation of the conceptual plan and the discussions around the shared readings of *Leadership Capacity for Lasting School Improvement* (Lambert, 2003) generated considerable enthusiasm for the potential of the redesign.

Since *Leadership Capacity for Lasting School Improvement* (Lambert, 2003) was a focus in the conceptual design to achieve the goal of building leadership capacity at ISA, discussion of the findings related to what happened when the school sought to build leadership capacity within the ISA bureaucratic machine will focus around this work. Lambert (2003) maintains that the organizational concept of leadership capacity is created through the meaningful involvement of many people in the school community in leadership who have the opportunity to develop a comprehensive understanding of, and proficiency in, the dispositions, knowledge and skills of leadership. Presumably, the concepts underlying Lambert's (2003) work influenced the plans to redesign the bureaucratic ISA machine through the development of leadership capacity.

As an international school, ISA does not directly reflect all of the features of either the Leadership Capacity Matrix shown in Table 2.1 or the District Leadership Capacity Matrix shown in Table 2.2. With six divisions on two campuses, ISA can be seen to function in similar ways to a district yet on a much smaller scale. To more accurately reflect the nature of ISA as an international school, the researcher has combined aspects of both the Leadership Capacity Matrix and the District Leadership Capacity matrix to create the ISA Leardership Capacity Matrix shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: ISA leadership capacity matrix

	Low Degree of Participation		High Degree of Participation
Low Degree of Skill – Quadrant 1	1. Central Administrators are autocratic, principals are kept under close control 2. Actions are derived from a one way flow of information, rather than shared vision 3. Top-down accountability systems promoting compliance and standardization, co-dependent, paternal/maternal relationships; rigidly defined roles 4. Direction is centralized in the form of mandates, resources, and rules resulting in dependency relationships; norms of compliance and blame, technical and superficial program coherence 5. Little innovation in teaching and learning 6. Professional development is erratic and one-size-fits-all 7. Focus on student achievement is low; student achievement is poor overall	**Low Degree of Skill – Quadrant 2**	1. Central Administrators take a laissez-faire approach, principals develop unrelated programs 2. Because shared vision is lacking, information is fragmented and program coherence is poor within and among divisions 3. Minimal systemic use of information and evidence for accountability and improvement; few coherent systems in place; lack of follow through; undefined roles and responsibilities 4. Direction is decentralized and division-based with little emphasis on coordination, focus or coherence; norms of individualism, no collective responsibility 5. "Spotty" innovation; some classrooms are excellent while others are poor 6. Professional development is a potpourri of unrelated training courses 7. Focus on student achievement varies widely; student achievement is static overall
High Degree of Skill – Quadrant 3	1. Central Administrators delegate some authority and resources to divisions, where principal establishes a skilled, purposeful leadership team 2. School-wide and divisional visions are coordinated providing some program coherence; limited use of school-wide data 3. School-wide and divisional leadership teams develop lateral accountability systems, but without broad engagement; pockets of strong resistance amongst teachers 4. Coordination between central and divisional leadership teams are close, with greater autonomy for divisions with skilful leadership teams; some efficient leaders and others serve in traditional roles 5. Strong innovation, reflection skills, and teaching excellence; weak program coherence 6. Professional development is focused on whole school vision and goals; lacks follow-up in the form of practice, observation, and coaching 7. Focus on student achievement is consistent; student achievement and development are improving slightly for all students	**High Degree of Skill – Quadrant 4**	1. Central Administrators model, develop, and support broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership; leadership is distributed 2. Shared vision results in school-wide program coherence 3. An inquiry-based accountability system informs decision making and practice at classroom, division, and school wide levels 4. Organizational relationships involve high Central Administrative Team engagement and low bureaucratization; broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility reflected in roles and actions 5. Reflective practice that leads consistently to innovation 6. During professional development selection and development, Senior Administrators recruit and educate learners and leaders in partnership with divisions 7. Focus on student achievement is consistently high; student achievement and development are high or steadily improving in all divisions for all students

Adapted from Lambert (2003).

The ISA Leadership Capacity Matrix aims to reflect the situation for administrators at ISA. At ISA as in other international schools, divisional principals and the school director operate in much greater proximity than school principals and the district director in an American context. Further, in addition to their divisional responsibilities, principals at ISA and in international schools in general share school-wide responsibilities by serving on a school-wide Administrative Team. The Director, as well as other Central Administrators who are also part of the Administrative Team, have a more direct influence on divisions at ISA than directors and central administrators would have on schools in an American school district. Incorporating aspects of the District Leadership Capacity Matrix into the Leadership Capacity Matrix to create the ISA Leadership Capacity Matrix reflects these distinctions.

Creating the ISA Leadership Capacity Matrix also highlights the need for ISA to simultaneously develop leadership capacity for the school as a whole, while developing the leadership capacity within divisions. Theoretically, the Director and other Central Administrators more directly influence the building of leadership capacity for ISA as a whole, while the divisional principals more directly influence the building of leadership capacity within divisions. Building leadership capacity in the school overall may support improvement in divisions, whereas building leadership capacity in divisions may be difficult to achieve without school-wide support.

The ISA Leadership Capacity Matrix shows four possible organizational leadership capacity scenarios. Each scenario is represented in a quadrant and explores seven critical aspects of school improvement. The seven critical aspects of school improvement (Lambert, 2003) are as follows:

1. Role of administrators;
2. Shared vision resulting in program coherence;
3. Inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice;
4. Broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility reflected in roles and actions;
5. Reflective practice that leads consistently to innovation;
6. Professional selection and professional development focus on constructing meaning and knowledge together; and

7.High or steadily improving student achievement.

Quadrant 4 schools, demonstrating both a high degree of participation in leadership along with a high degree of skilful involvement in leadership, have the characteristics that are prerequisite to high leadership capacity schools (Lambert, 2003). High leadership capacity schools function as learning communities as they contain most of the same features (Lambert, 2003), including shared vision, inquiry, reflective practice and collective responsibility. The conceptual plan to improve the bureaucratic ISA machine seemed to be to develop the characteristics of a Quadrant 4 school with high leadership capacity and thereby achieve the goal of developing a unique professional learning community.

ISA as predominantly a Quadrant 2 school

While it is not expected that any school would 'fit' exactly into any one quadrant, schools tend to function more in the way described in one quadrant rather than another. While the intention held by Central Administrators was to build leadership capacity moving toward functioning as a Quadrant 4 school, data collected from teachers indicate that generally, from their perspective, ISA seems to function predominantly as a Quadrant 2 school, with several aspects of Quadrant 1 and one aspect of Quadrant 3. The discussion following considers breadth of participation in leadership and skilful involvement in leadership within the bureaucratic ISA machine in relation to the seven critical aspects of school improvement explored in each quadrant.

1.Role of administrators

In considering the role of administrators in the bureaucratic ISA machine, the school seems to function predominantly in Quadrant 1: 'Central Administrators are autocratic; principals are kept under close control'.

Given the functioning of the bureaucratic ISA machine, it is widely accepted that decisions are made and communicated from the higher levels of the hierarchy. In relation to the school improvement initiatives, Central Administrators decided the tasks to which divisional principals were assigned, and the roles they were to play were clearly outlined.

The influence of Central Administrators on divisions is significant. Divisional principals were seen to have six different styles, personalities, and dispositions toward distributing leadership. The divisions were seen as different contexts in different stages of readiness to build leadership capacity through developing teacher leaders. The Director and other Central Administrators considered that attention to developing consistency across divisions

was necessary, exerting control over the divisions. Teachers perceived that divisional principals were less autonomous than they had been previously, and that Central Administration was exerting greater control over divisions, restricting the development of leadership capacity in some cases, and reversing it in others. Teachers perceived a difference in the functioning of the school as a whole as compared to some of the divisions in which they worked.

Central Administrators' intentions in developing consistency of functioning for the bureaucratic ISA machine across divisions are significant in regard to the role of administration as a critical aspect of school improvement. It is possible that Central Administrators expected consistency to develop through divisional principals running their divisions in the same autocratic way as the Director ran the school as a whole. Because of this, developing consistency seems to have related to Central Administrators developing greater control over divisional principals and the activity within divisions, actually lessening divisional principals' ability to develop leadership capacity within their divisions. Some individual divisional principals were seen to be working toward building leadership capacity within their divisions. However, since the school as a whole was not seen to be moving forward in that regard, divisional progress was seen to have been negatively affected.

Lack of shared understanding amongst administrators of the purpose of building leadership capacity indicated that administrators were not working together as a reflective team around this initiative. The data produced no evidence of shared understandings of significant aspects of the initiative, for example, what developing leadership capacity would mean to the administrators themselves and their practice; what the importance of the initiative was; what approaches could be used to developing leadership capacity; the role of administrators in the development of leadership capacity; and how the initiative would affect the school in general. Further, data did not provide evidence that administrators had come to a common understanding of a set of actions to adopt to jointly model creating high leadership capacity throughout the school. In addition, data did not suggest that Central Administrators were modelling and facilitating the development of high leadership capacity in the divisions.

In setting the goal of building leadership capacity for the ISA machine, Central Administrators spoke of their intention to move away from traditional, hierarchical forms of management and leadership. The impetus behind this was that "a top down model is primarily ... ineffective and fraught with all kinds of political, dynamic issues" (Aron I). The

goal was “to have a deeper, broader involvement with all members of our school organization (Joyce I),” and to have “teachers as decision-makers” (Larry I). The Administrative Team “made a conscious decision, through deliberation and discussion ... to build leadership capacity” and to “redefine how we define leadership because we know that that is what’s best, [as] that’s how organizations succeed” (Larry I). The leadership sought was based on “professional dialogue; focus[ed] on student learning, instructional development of instructional strategies, etc.” (Larry). However, administrators may not have been fully aware of the implications this would have for their own actions, or of the effect that the role of Central Administrators would have on the development of leadership capacity. Inferring from their actions, it seems that the Central Administrators may have had some sort of mental image of the organization as a machine taken for granted in their way of thinking, as their words and intentions were not seen to reflect their actions.

Despite very good intentions, Central Administrators were not perceived by administrators or teachers to have moved away from the autocratic, traditional role of administrators and the corresponding traditional approach to leadership inherent in the bureaucratic ISA machine. Perhaps they did not realize that the intent to move away from traditional roles and traditional understandings of leadership to build leadership capacity would not be realized unless they transformed the concept of themselves as school leaders and transformed the functioning of the ISA machine from hierarchical to heterarchical. This complex undertaking of transformation is a necessary starting point if the intention of the initiative to build leadership capacity is to be realized.

2.Shared vision resulting in program coherence

In considering the extent to which those within the bureaucratic ISA machine share a vision, the school appears to function predominantly in Quadrant 2: ‘Because shared vision is lacking, information is fragmented and program coherence is poor within and among divisions’.

During the 2005-2006 school year, a visiting consultant, Dr Paul Rusty, assisted the Director in creating a vision statement for ISA. The consultant worked with an invited group of parents, students, staff, administrators and board members consisting of approximately 40 people in all. The final product, the impetus behind improving the workings of the bureaucratic ISA machine, was presented for approval to the Board of Directors in April 2006, that is toward the end of the 2005-2006 school year. For Central Administrators, the

aim of the redesign was to create clarity of purpose, consistency, and focus for alignment of formal and informal structures in the school. The vision statement was widely publicised after it was adopted so that all responsible for the workings of different aspects of the ISA machine knew the specifications and expectations. Widespread publication heightened awareness of the new vision but may not have created widespread commitment to working to realize it. Teachers felt that they were not involved in collaborative vision setting or developing the 'big picture'.

In the five school years prior to the 2005-2006 school year, the vision had been revised three times at irregular intervals following similar processes. The first vision statement was adopted in December of the 1999-2000 and the most recent revision prior to the April 2006 adoption was April 2005, one year earlier, under a different administration. Revisions were not made due to the previous visions having been attained. Rather, revisions to the vision statement were made due to external influences, for example, changes within the Board of Directors, changes to the consultants who were employed to work with the Board of Directors, or a change of Director. With externally influenced, relatively random and relatively frequent changes to the vision of the school, commitment to the outcome of a visioning process is likely to have been affected.

According to the ISA Integrated Planning Model (ISA, 2005), the vision influenced the development of the Long Range School Improvement Plan. Similarly, according to the School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07 (ISA, 2006), the initiative of building leadership capacity was designed to help accomplish the five-year vision. Central Administrators and the Senior Administrators most closely engaged in the engineering of the school-wide vision and the Long Range School Improvement Plan are the administrators most likely to have shared a vision for the school improvement initiative of building leadership capacity. Ultimately, the vision for the initiative seemed to be to engage teacher leaders in accomplishing the five-year school-wide vision, the work of the ISA machine until 2012. Central Administration devised structures for teacher leaders to work on each component of the ISA vision statement, bringing it to reality. This kind of involvement by teacher leaders was seen by Central Administrators and some other administrators to signal commitment to a shared school-wide vision. Yet, for other administrators and for most teachers, involvement did not seem to carry such significance. Rather, they saw themselves as being involved in administrative and management related tasks that may not have been connected to what they valued as educators and what they hoped for for the school. A few

administrators and many teachers commented that they were unfamiliar with the initiative and were uncertain as to what it was intended to achieve, indicating that they did not share in the vision of the initiative.

The school-wide vision statement captures the intent of the whole organization. While divisions inevitably share in realizing the school-wide vision, the whole-school vision has seemingly replaced divisional visions. At best, divisional visions were seen to have reduced priority, with focus given to the whole-school vision. Teachers commented that previous divisional visions developed within divisions were not given priority attention and that previously principals had more autonomy and influence over levels of participation and direction within divisions. Such comments indicate that teachers in the various divisions may feel distant or disconnected from whole-school vision, and do not value it as a rationale for involvement or change.

Lambert (2003) suggests that the lack of a shared vision, leads to lack of commitment, which in turn promotes a lack of program coherence. For example, the lack of shared vision for the school improvement initiative to build leadership capacity may be seen to have led to various degrees of commitment to it. This in turn may be seen to have created a lack of consistency in regard to how building leadership capacity has been approached and how it manifests in different divisions. The lack of shared vision around CFGs may have influenced degrees of commitment to improving teacher practice and student achievement through a process of collaborative, critical, and continuous learning throughout the ISA machine, and to a lack of consistency in approach to using the training provided in the CFG context.

The number of initiatives and the amount of work targeted for the five year period may also be seen to influence program coherence. With so much going on at the school, teachers felt that communication was not consistent, and did not feel that quality outcomes could be guaranteed for programs undertaken. Overall, teachers felt that programs could not be consistently sustained, and that “after a few months [they were] back doing the same thing as [they] have done every year” (T 06 Q).

3.Inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice

In considering the extent to which those within the bureaucratic ISA machine use information to inform decisions and practice in an inquiry-based manner, the school seems to function predominantly in Quadrant 1: ‘Top-down accountability systems promoting

compliance and standardization, Co-dependent, paternal/maternal relationships; rigidly defined roles'.

Ultimately, top-down accountability appears to keep the bureaucratic ISA machine functioning. The patriarchal or matriarchal roles assumed by those at the top of the hierarchy create parent-child relationships among those lower down the hierarchy, and such relationships are characterized, for example, by permission asking and granting; one-way evaluation, communication, and feedback; and punitive actions or responses for transgressions or mistakes (Lambert et al., 1996). Those at the top of the hierarchy assume the right to direct the behaviours of those further down the hierarchy and use strategies such as detailed job descriptions, published expectations, and detailed regulations to establish and maintain control.

In line with this, information travels down the chain of command at ISA; there is not a generative approach to discovering information (Lambert, 2003). As information travels down the levels, teachers felt that it resulted in more work for them to complete and higher levels of stress were associated with these increased expectations. Since information was not given openly to everyone at the same time, teachers also felt that the information travelling down the hierarchy resulted in communication that lacked clarity, or that "messages from the top get muddled as they go down the hierarchy" (T 06 Q). Because of this, those at the lower levels were left leaving confused and/or uninformed.

The approach to decision-making at ISA is focused on those at the top of the hierarchy. Decisions may be made with input from committees and/or task forces but they are not made collaboratively with teachers. Decisions made by Central Administrators are handed down the lines of command and those at each level of the hierarchy are expected to comply with decisions passed to them from the level above, implementing the decisions consistently across divisions of the ISA machine. Amongst administrators and teachers, there is a great degree of acceptance "that a lot of decisions have to be top down" (Marc I) and that 'top-down' decision-making is simply how schools, including ISA, operate.

A sense of inquiry is not fostered by the mechanistic approach. Rather, than engaging teachers in genuine inquiry administrators were perceived to "go through the motions of asking for teachers' opinions without taking them into account" (TL FG). Administrators and teachers are encouraged to obey orders and keep in their place (Morgan, 1997). Rather than raising questions and running the risk of being labelled as a troublemaker (Morgan, 1997), conventional wisdom is not questioned.

Teachers felt that attention to and focus on student learning is lacking in the functioning of the ISA machine. Teachers expressed that "they don't have time to focus on the reason why they are at ISA, that is, for student learning" (TL FG). There seemed to be a general sense that information and data about student learning and/ or evidence of student learning were not employed to fully inform decisions and practice. Largely, the ISA machine was seen to run in a set manner without inquiry and without input from teachers about student learning.

Teachers identified great potential to engage with student learning and improving practice. However, they seemed to feel that time was lacking to even allow for this, given so many initiatives and the intense pace of the ISA machine. Fewer initiatives to focus upon were seen as desirable to allow for time for thoughtful dialogue, reflection and inquiry which may in turn deepen participation and commitment and lead to improved practice. They also seemed to feel that they are only aware of the machine structures and functioning mechanisms closest to them. This sense of being restricted to a clearly defined role may have created the feeling amongst teachers that they cannot contribute to inquiry in the school as a whole.

Critical elements of professional development connected with CFG specifically target the use of information to inform decisions and practice in an inquiry-based manner. Professional development for both administrators and teachers sought, for example, to provide skills in reflective dialogue, collaboration, de-privatization of practice, and collective focus on student learning. Since these skills are not evident in use in the functioning of the ISA machine, many teachers perceived the professional development as simply to promote a form of standardization of approach to meetings and interactions or to encourage teachers to adopt similar ways of thinking and consistent ways of going about their work in using protocols. Administrators involved in the training did not appear to embrace the skills as starting points for strategies and actions that would possibly move them away from traditional roles of administrators.

In addition, it seems that there may not be the sense of trust between administrators and teachers necessary to promote the sense of genuine inquiry. Lack of mutual trust would perhaps not allow administrators and teachers to pose questions, even if time allowed for it to happen. Trust is not likely to develop and flourish with an 'us and them' attitude prevalent between teachers and administrators. This attitude seems to be encouraged by the structure of the relationships in the bureaucratic ISA machine.

4. *Broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility reflected in roles and actions*

In considering the extent to which, broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility are reflected in roles developed and actions taken at ISA, the school seems to function predominantly in Quadrant 1: 'Direction is centralized in the form of mandates, resources, and rules resulting in dependency relationships; norms of compliance and blame, technical and superficial program coherence'.

Within the bureaucratic ISA machine, decisions regarding the direction of the school are made by Central Administration in consultation with members of the Senior Administrative Team. School improvement initiatives are generated centrally. Administrators generally perceived purposeful participation to have increased with the redesign of the ISA machine and perceived teachers to be engaged in moving the school forward in the direction determined by Central Administrators. Given the growth of the school and the complexity of the organization, Central Administrators were aware that they could not accomplish the goals and objectives of school improvement without involvement from teachers. Central Administration perceived increased involvement of teachers as leading to a greater sense of investment and ownership in the school.

From the teachers' perspective, however, participation was not generally considered to be empowering in moving the school in the direction of the vision. For teachers, participation was often seen as an expectation or obligation. Further, teachers perceived that those involved were not representative of a broad base but of a narrow base of teachers, and that the same group of teachers was involved in many different roles. Lack of clarity linked to how participation was determined led to a sense that favouritism existed.

Since participation was focused around a range of approaches including task forces and committees linked to the school improvement activities, administrators generally perceived that teachers' involvement was fulfilling for the teachers. Teachers, however, did not generally view their participation as meaningful or purposeful. In many instances, the work of committees and task forces was believed to have been taken over by those higher up the hierarchy. Further, teachers generally considered that the number of initiatives was overwhelming and did not allow for work on task forces and committees to be completed well and doing less than satisfactory work was disappointing for the teachers.

The charges for the committees and task forces were set by Central Administration and recommendations made by the committees and task forces were regarded as input to decision making by Central Administration. Consequently, ultimate responsibility was located centrally. After decisions were made, solutions and/or outcomes would be handed back down the hierarchy as procedures and expectations with which teachers should comply. As a result, teachers perceived that they had limited responsibility for inquiring, responding to problems, or implementing shared decisions or agreements.

Lack of collective responsibility may have promoted frustration for some participants who wished to engage fully. For example, on occasions, participation was considered as contrived, with the assumption that outcomes were known in advance by administrators. A sense of excitement was expressed as the initiative was launched as it presented an opportunity for change. However, this was replaced by bewilderment and irritation as things went back to the way they'd always been and the ISA machine functioned as usual. Frustration may have been intensified for teachers who had previously been disappointed or discouraged when an initiative in which they participated was not implemented or was not sustained.

While participation brought groups of teachers together, this was not necessarily seen as genuine collaboration. Teachers essentially considered themselves to be working alone. Despite the professional development for CFGs, teachers were not engaged in identifying or acknowledging problems evidenced in students' work, nor were they engaged in framing solutions which they would jointly implement (Lambert, 2003). The use of standard protocols or procedures to run meetings may have enhanced a sense of trust within a group, which in turn may have promoted a sense of collaboration. However, since collaborative decision-making was not the focus of the committee and task force meetings a sense of genuine collaboration would have been difficult to achieve.

Within the bureaucratic ISA machine, accountability is not reciprocal. Divisions and Central Administration, for example, did not seek constructive feedback from each other through two-way communication and mutual influence. The responsibility and control rested with the Central Administrators, who provided procedures to be followed, expectations to be met, and solutions to be implemented. A commitment to mutual accountability and support is a key area of agreement for members of CFGs who seek to share their individual experiences and expertise, offering each other new perspectives and developing shared knowledge and understanding. However, professional development around CFGs has not

demonstrated any increase in mutual accountability throughout the bureaucratic ISA machine.

The data suggest that teachers understand the way in which the bureaucratic ISA machine operates and they generally fall in line with expectations for actions required by the machine. Their roles are somewhat limited to reflect a more traditional definition of teachers' responsibilities related to the classroom. With an expectation of compliance, the general understanding seems to be that teachers should do what is required and not necessarily step forward for additional responsibilities. Indeed, administrators and teachers acknowledge that teachers who take on leadership roles attract negative attention and are seen as wanting to climb further up the hierarchy. This may be a way for teachers to remain feeling secure within the structures of the machine without drawing attention to what they are doing. If teachers are seen to meet required expectations, there is little chance that their actions will draw the attention of those further up the hierarchy. This is of particular significance for teachers, since there is a general lack of trust for administrators further up the hierarchy. In general, the data suggest that teachers have become complacent and expect that their roles and their ways of working together will not change. They do not anticipate that the initiative to build leadership capacity will be sustained or that the ISA machine will function differently.

The development and release of the School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07 (ISA, 2006) was centrally coordinated. The School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07 were not the result of collaboration between administration and teachers and were not based on the premise of collective responsibility. Central coordination gave the appearance of coherence at a superficial level. However, the lack of genuine coherence developed through collaboration and collective responsibility was noted by participants in the research who questioned whether the initiative could be sustained through implementation. Administrators and teachers expressed genuine hope that things were going to change. However, over time, after implementation participants observed that fewer references were made to the initiative, familiar ways of working persisted, and the ISA machine continued to function as it always had done.

5.Reflective practice that leads consistently to innovation

In considering the extent to which reflective practice leads consistently to innovation at ISA, the school seems to function predominantly in Quadrant 2: '"Spotty" innovation; some classrooms are excellent while others are poor'.

Lambert (2003) considers reflective practice to be a source of critical information about the methods, techniques, strategies, and procedures for how administrators and teachers can find new and better approaches to doing what they do. Reflection is central to the concepts underlying CFGs where members agree to be reflective, make their practice public, and seek substantive feedback from colleagues. In addition to CFG training, additional strategies support reflective practice. For example, collaborative planning time is available to many teachers, and book studies with peers are promoted as a form of professional development.

Even though administrators and teachers have learned the skills of reflecting in public and being transparent about practice through CFG training, these skills do not appear to be in widespread use. The time required for reflecting on practice and the lack of criteria for accountability regarding individual and shared work may prevent many from undertaking reflective practice. Further, it seems that the functioning of the bureaucratic ISA machine does not fully support teachers identifying areas of innovation through reflective practice. Rather, it seems commonly accepted that innovation and change falls within the realm of Central Administration where it will be determined and channelled through the hierarchy.

Despite this, pockets of innovation and excellence are evident at ISA. The data indicate that several teachers have pursued a particular passion, developed new ways of doing things, secured feedback and support from close colleagues, and shared their practice with like-minded colleagues. Teachers valued "having dialogue ... and sitting with people, and feeling that it was "just so great to be part of a group" where they could share, teachers started to "create these little communities" (TL FG). This exists outside the formal workings of the ISA machine where innovations are handed down from above and teachers are expected to 'get on board'. Teachers expressed a great deal of satisfaction in the kind of hallway conversations that supported reflective practice and innovation, finding it "just so exciting" in "that situation (Ellen I).

6. Professional selection and professional development focus on constructing meaning and knowledge together

In considering the extent to which professional selection and professional development focus on constructing meaning and knowledge together, ISA seems to be functioning in Quadrant 3: 'Professional development is focused on whole school vision and goals; lacks follow-up in the form of practice, observation, and coaching'.

When recruiting new personnel, administrators and teachers to ISA no formal attention is given to finding personnel who are compatible with the intention of building high leadership capacity. While recruiters look for a 'fit' with the organization as a whole, they do not necessarily seek personnel with dispositions and perspectives that would promote building leadership capacity. At the time of writing the researcher confirmed that discussions have not taken place amongst members of the Senior Administrative Team and the Human Resource Department as to what dispositions and perspectives might be meaningfully sought to accomplish this goal.

The selection of administrators, should there be turnover within the Senior Administrative Team, could have a significant effect on the continued effectiveness of this initiative divisionally and school wide. Again, however, no formal attention has been given to identifying and describing skills, dispositions, and/or perspectives necessary for administrators to advance the intention of building high leadership capacity.

From the outset, the redesign plan for the ISA machine involved professional development "to support and train teachers in order to build leadership capacity of the organization and to focus the majority of our leadership energies on student learning" (ISA, 2006). Through CFG training and completion of master level work with PSU, many teachers were involved in professional development focused on developing teacher leadership capacity. Additionally, soon after the initiative began, an external consultant, Daisy Jones, conducted a 'one-off' workshop for all designated teacher leaders to provide teachers with insights as to how to lead. Professional development has been focused on the goal of building leadership capacity. However, teachers understood that involvement in the kind of leadership training offered at ISA, did not genuinely engage them in building leadership capacity. Teachers also questioned the extent to which engagement in professional development was genuine or prompted by external motivation, for example, to earn credits for university level work. Participation in professional development alone does not guarantee that participants become more skilful practitioners.

Through providing professional development opportunities for developing skills to facilitate adults working together, ISA acknowledges that dialogue, collaboration, and inquiry are not necessarily known skills. However, until the skills are realized in daily practice, it cannot be assumed that participants have mastered them. Job-embedded opportunities for developing leadership skills were available, yet these were frequently not taken by administrators or teachers. Those who have completed CFG training are not accountable for implementing changes in daily practice. In general, there seems to be a lack of follow through and continuity in regard to professional development.

While professional development opportunities have been appreciated by teachers and administrators at ISA who have followed personal interests, the vast amounts of time and money invested in professional development do not seem to have resulted in significant changed practice within ISA. For example, while the ability to conduct skilful conversations around student work is the prime focus of CFGs, attention to student work does not seem widely evident throughout ISA. Further, though the intent of CFGs is to form voluntary groups of professionals committed to the tenets of CFGs, only a very few voluntary groups have been in existence at ISA and these only existed for a semester, approximately.

Inconsistency is also evident in regard to administrators undertaking CFG training. All administrators have not participated in CFG training, although regular opportunities for training have occurred since the initial training session in September 2006. Administrators new to ISA have not been orientated to the key concepts underlying CFGs. Consequently, the ability for administrators to model relevant skills varies greatly.

7.High or steadily improving student achievement

In considering the extent to which student achievement is high or steadily improving, ISA seems to be functioning in Quadrant 2: 'Focus on student achievement is inconsistent; student achievement is static overall'.

External measures of student achievement are in use at ISA. Central Administration coordinates the administration of standardized tests for students in grades one through eight in the first semester of each school year. The test used is well-known in the American school context. The data were not systematically disaggregated nor widely used to inform program review or improvement. The High School divisions administer standardized tests and externally moderated examinations at appropriate grade levels. These measures

indicate that student achievement at ISA is generally high, though not increasing significantly (ISA, 2008).

Student achievement is rather narrowly defined to generally include standardized test scores and grades on report cards. A broader, more comprehensive understanding of student achievement which might include personal and civic development has not been fully explored. Similarly, multiple measures of development and performance which may include portfolios, exhibits, self-knowledge, and social maturity have not been fully explored.

The intention of Central Administration and ISA documentation regarding the initiative to build leadership capacity clearly places focus upon student learning. A contradiction is evident in that the bureaucratic ISA machine does not seem to focus on student learning in the way that ISA 'rhetoric' and documentation intend, or in the way that teachers intend. The distraction from student learning identified by many teachers, as resulting from the initiative to build leadership capacity, is a source of frustration. Administrators were aware of the concern amongst teachers in regard to the number of initiatives undertaken and the amount of time invested in the initiatives that took time away from teachers to focus on student learning.

While school-wide improvement initiatives focus on aspects of teaching and learning, for example, Curriculum Development and Documentation and the Educational Technology Task Force (ISA, 2006), little direct attention seems to be given to instructional practices that contribute to the development of student learning. Lambert (2003) cautions that professional development in student learning is vital as it shapes teacher beliefs, assumptions and instructional practices. Glickman (2002) places student learning as the focus of all that happens in classrooms and schools, and emphasises that it is affected by the content of what is taught, the methods used for teaching, and the diagnostic ways in which student learning is assessed. Similarly, Crowther et al. (2009) suggest that collective responsibility for school wide approaches to pedagogy directly and significantly affect student achievement. Given the importance of teaching, learning, and assessment, in regard to student achievement, little attention seems focused on these areas.

5.2.3 Summary and conclusions – building leadership capacity

Lambert (2003) provided a focus for the conceptual design for ISA to achieve the goal of building leadership capacity. Considering breadth of participation in leadership and skilful involvement in leadership, seven critical aspects of school improvement were explored:

1. Role of administrators,
2. Shared vision resulting in program coherence,
3. Inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice,
4. Broad involvement, collaboration, and collective responsibility reflected in roles and actions,
5. Reflective practice that leads consistently to innovation,
6. Professional selection and professional development focus on constructing meaning and knowledge together, and
7. High or steadily improving student achievement (Lambert, 2003, pp. 5-10).

As predominantly a Quadrant 2 school, with several aspects of Quadrant 1 and one aspect of Quadrant 3, ISA demonstrates a reasonably high degree of participation in leadership and a fairly low degree of skilful involvement in leadership. While the intention of Central Administrators was for the redesign of the ISA machine to produce high leadership capacity, data indicate that administrators and teachers perceive little has changed at ISA to indicate that this eventuated. ISA has scope for improvement in relation to achieving its goal of high leadership capacity. There is room for growth and change in each of the seven critical aspects of school improvement discussed within the framework.

In a very functional and accurate manner, Central Administration at ISA planned transformational redesign of the bureaucratic ISA machine. They seemed to have had a theoretical understanding of what needed to be done in the change process and they handed down plans for having it happen to others lower in the hierarchy who were then responsible for carrying out the plans as directed. On paper, the plans involved changing structures, providing professional development to change skills, abilities and/or perspectives, and encouraging teachers to participate. But, the plans did not extend to changing the images and values that guide action (Morgan, 1997), or the new values and practices that may be required (Fullan, 2001b), for them or others. As evidenced by their actions, the images, values, and practices associated with the bureaucratic ISA machine

seem ingrained in the thinking of the members of Central Administration and many other members of the administration.

The words of those planning the redesign indicated that increasing participation in committees and task forces may have been linked to opening up the bureaucracy and flattening the hierarchy. “We most decidedly have greater empowerment of teachers” (Joyce I), and “everyone supports collaborative and shared decision-making” (Larry I). ISA was not perceived as “an admin exclusive school anymore like it used to be [as] it’s a lot more open to being a community of learners” (Admin FG). However, it appears that the images and values guiding their actions seemed to remain firmly within the functionalist framework reflective of the bureaucratic ISA machine, as the decision making that followed the participation in committees and task forces was top down. Even though part of the purpose of the initiative was stated to be “sharing the decision-making process” (Aron I), the reality was that “task forces [have] recommending powers but not decision-making powers” (Aron I).

Further, the Central Administrators and other members of the Administrative Team may not have comprehended the potential impact of what they were trying to do on the organization as a whole. In the same way, they may not have fully realized the implications for changes to their own skills, dispositions, and/or perspectives necessitated by the initiative to build leadership capacity. They may have not been fully aware of the impossibility of directly managing change along a pre-determined path or the difference between understanding change and leading it rather than trying to control it (Fullan, 2001a).

Those planning the redesign may also not have recognized the importance of giving attention to developing the kind of ethos required in an environment or the kind of culture required in an organization to support building leadership capacity. While they focused on structures within the bureaucratic ISA machine, they seemed not to focus on existing cultures or on reculturing, that is, how administrators and teachers may come to question and change their beliefs and habits in relation to the initiative to build leadership capacity. Fullan (2001a) points out that structure does make a difference, but that transforming the culture –“… changing the way we do things around here—is the main point” (p. 42).

Administrators and teachers seemed to have the opportunity to begin developing new understandings around the initiative of building leadership capacity through professional development related to CFGs. However, infrastructure and processes outside the

professional development training sessions did not appear to fully engage teachers in developing further the new understandings gained. Administrators and teachers seemed to lack the opportunity to engage in deeper questioning, active inquiry, reflective practice and sustained learning needed to make change meaningful (Fullan, 2001b) for those involved.

The redesign planners constructed the School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07 (ISA, 2006), but they may not have been fully aware of the effect that releasing so many initiatives would have on the organization. The range of initiatives undertaken by the previous administration and the range of initiatives introduced to the school environment in the 2006-2007 school year may have influenced the development of a sense of innovation overload (Fullan, 2001b). Fullan (2001b) explains that the absence of innovation is not the main problem of schools but rather the presence of too many projects that are disconnected, episodic, fragmented, and superficially adorned. Fragmentation and overload seemed to have developed from the number of initiatives causing teachers to feel they were "losing focus" (TL FG) and "having stretched staff members too thin" (TL FG).

Both administrators and teachers at ISA acknowledged concern in regard to the number of initiatives undertaken. Fullan (2001) warns against innovation overload for schools as they take on too many disconnected innovations and initiatives. He advises that the biggest problem facing schools is fragmentation and overload (Fullan, 2001b). According to Bryk, Sebring, Kerbow, Rollow & Easton (1998) schools that take on many innovations in a short period of time are referred to as 'Christmas tree schools' as they are adorned with many decorative innovations lacking depth and coherence.

In addition, the ambitious nature of the school improvement plans added to the complexity of the challenges within the context of ISA. The number of initiatives and the degree of superficial interrelatedness between several of the key initiatives seemed to intensify the difficulty of implementing the school improvement plans launched in August 2006. Within the given context, the challenges which the plans presented for many within the ISA community seemed unmanageable.

Little attention has been given to constructing a shared sense of reality around what appears in documentation. The intent 'on paper' often expresses a reality different from the reality experienced. For example, a focus on student learning is expressed in ISA documentation as a desired goal, yet it is not experienced by teachers as a part of their reality. Promoting new values around a focus on student learning would require transforming the prevailing organizational mind-sets and patterns of behaviour (Morgan,

1997) and creating a shared understanding of the importance of a focus on student learning that could muster collective efforts of teachers to focus on students rather than on the administrative aspects of what teachers do at ISA.

Planning and designing the initiatives, releasing written documentation and presenting the plans to the faculty in campus-wide faculty meetings did not seem to be enough to bring them to life in the school as intended. Pascale, Millemann, & Gioja (2000) explained that top-down strategies don't win too many 'ball games' today, indicating the need for those at the grassroots to be involved in setting strategic direction. Fullan (2001a) emphasised that it is what is in the minds and hearts of the people within the organization that will most influence change, not what is on paper or what those at the top of the hierarchy can articulate.

There seems to be a difference between the rational perception of the organization presented externally and the internal face of the organization (Morgan, 1997). Observers looking at facilities in place, and listening to the 'rhetoric' may have a very different perception of ISA than those within the organization who may experience a different 'reality'.

5.3 Uncovering the reality

The initiative to build leadership capacity at ISA had the potential to impact the school in significant ways. The initiative was undertaken with the best intentions and with sound theoretical support in school reform literature. However, the initiative did not reach its potential. To more fully uncover the reality around the initiative at ISA, several interrelated elements impacted by the initiative will be explored. Elements investigated are: discourse related to leadership, impact on the context of ISA, relationships within ISA, and motivations of administrators and teachers to become and remain part of the initiative.

5.3.1 Discourse related to leadership

How organizational leadership is conceptualized is necessarily rooted in how organizations are conceptualized (Ogawa and Bossert, 1995). While multiple, competing discourses exist in regard to leadership, there is general agreement that leadership is a group function and leaders intentionally seek to influence the behaviour of other people (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 1996; Lingard, Hayes, Mills & Christie, 2003; Owens & Valseky, 2007). Power, the

capacity to influence others, is inevitably involved in any discourse of leadership (Owens & Valseky, 2007).

Discourse related to leadership at ISA necessarily reflects the nature of the bureaucratic ISA machine. The coherent set of concepts about leadership that make up the predominant discourse related to leadership at ISA is traditional and hierarchical, viewing leadership as individual and authority based. The discourse reflects the influence base of leadership as the downward exercise of power and authority, emphasising legitimacy and hierarchical control (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Further, the discourse incorporates the tenets associated with bureaucracies in general, including chain of command, work specialization, and hierarchical separation of management from labour (Murphy, 2005). This institutionalized way of thinking about and making sense of the world is evident in the vocabulary and expressions used by the majority of administrators and teachers in relation to leadership at ISA, such as "top-down", "strong", "pecking order", "rigid", "authoritarian" and "extremely hierarchical."

The majority of the Senior Administrators and teachers perceived that this discourse related to leadership at ISA had not changed as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity. Leadership was seen to remain "hierarchical [focused] at the top" (T 06 Q). Teachers indicated that they were largely resigned to the reality that leadership at ISA was destined to remain unchanged, and they had set their expectations accordingly. There was "no indication from the central admin that there will ever be a change in the top-down approach" (T 06 Q).

Essentially, power creates the impetus for initiating and sustaining action to bring intention to reality for people working collaboratively (Owens & Valesky, 2007), and can be seen as the capacity to influence others (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Power at ISA was seen to be focused at the top of the hierarchy, with "much of the power in leadership … in the top roles: Asst. Director and Director" (T 06 Q). As Patton (2002) points out, the dynamic of power in an organization is influenced by the views dominant at any time and place which generally serve the interests and perspectives of those in power. It is not surprising then that teachers noted that "most [administrators] seem comfortable with the hierarchy and the power distribution as it is" (T 06 Q) and that "many leaders do not like to share power" (T 06 Q) or "have a hard time allowing others to lead" (T 06 Q). The desire "to see widespread understanding and acceptance of CFGs to dramatically change the distribution of power in the school" (T 06 Q) was expressed.

Two main sources of power seemed to be attributed to Central Administration, legitimate power resulting from their position, and coercive power resulting from the control of punishments or penalties that teachers wished to avoid. Central Administration was seen as "a distant, arrogant, feared entity" (T 06 Q). Teachers viewed themselves "try[ing] to please and do the 'right thing' by volunteering to take on roles and responsibilities" (T 06 Q), or as taking on the roles and responsibilities for "fear of reprisal" (TL FG) or "fear of being fired because they are 'not on board' with Larry" (T 06 Q). It may be said that Central Administrators exercised more of a power to command than a power to lead, drawing influence from the legal power associated with their positions in the hierarchy rather than from teachers voluntarily granting them power to lead by accepting their influence and direction by shared agreement (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

The power and influence of the administration was perceived to dominate the decision-making process (Owens & Valesky, 2007). While it was acknowledged that "teachers are on a lot of committees," they were not seen to be "really contributing [as] Admin always holds the decision making power" (T 07 Q). It was widely publicized that committees and task forces were "to be recommending powers but not decision-making powers" (Aron I). Administrators perceived this to mean that teachers were influential in decision-making, while teachers perceived this to put them in the role of providing input for the decision makers in the Senior Administrative Team to use if they so chose. Regardless, teachers were seen to be "hopeful… waiting for empowerment" (Admin 07 Q), and wanting administrators "to listen to teachers, to share and empower" (T 06 Q).

Central Administrators and a few other administrators perceived that their intention to "review leadership and define it differently" (Admin 06 Q) had been successful. Their comments indicated a view that the traditional discourse of leadership, incorporating authority based structures of leadership, had given way to contemporary discourse of leadership, "broad based, horizontal leadership" (Joyce I), making ISA a "leaner and meaner, more effective organization" (Aron I). The vocabulary and expressions chosen may have indicated a discourse of leadership that they intended to create at ISA. For example, they referred to leadership as being "built on collaboration and conversation," "inclusiveness," and "hearing all voices" (Admin FG), and spoke of engaging teachers in developing leadership. While the language around leadership changed, teachers perceived the discourse to have remained unchanged. Teachers expressed an understanding that the traditional discourse of leadership remained evident at ISA. They perceived that leadership

comes from the "Director and Assistant along with [the] Curriculum Coordinator, and then filters down" (T 07 Q) the hierarchy, and that they were being involved in the completion of administrative and management related tasks rather than in leadership. While administrators saw positive benefits for teachers as increased levels of ownership, empowerment, and satisfaction, teachers understood that they had choice amongst the tasks to be completed, and an opportunity to provide input.

The traditional discourse of leadership and the contemporary discourse of leadership reflect different approaches to developing teacher leadership. Role-based strategies to develop teacher leadership reflect the traditional discourse of leadership, while community-based approaches to developing teacher leadership reflect the contemporary discourse of leadership (Murphy, 2005). While both role-based strategies and community-based approaches to developing teacher leadership were evident at ISA, the major emphasis was given to role-based strategies.

Role-based strategies to develop teacher leadership were apparent in a variety of ways. For example, most members of the Administrative Team and some teachers spoke of teacher leaders only in terms of the teachers who filled clearly defined, formal roles within the structures already developed at ISA. Teachers perceived the focus of the efforts to develop teacher leadership as being focused on management and administrative tasks that addressed "the day-to-day sort of making sure that everything runs along smoothly" (TL FG) rather than on instruction and learning. Significantly, while the Administrative Team and teachers saw leadership had an improved focus on student learning, many teachers perceived leadership to have decreased the focus on student learning. Teachers saw the many demands on their time and attention as having taken away their potential to focus on student learning and, for example, to "get into each others' classrooms" (Joan I). In addition, Central Administrators determined the nature of the work to be undertaken by teacher leaders in their assigned roles, limiting the scope of the work and targeting its focus.

While on a much smaller scale, community-based approaches to develop teacher leadership were evident. Positive attention was given to the potential for CFGs as a means of teachers interacting with each other on teaching and learning matters. Many teachers spoke broadly of the need for teacher leaders to include all teachers, not only teachers with assigned roles. Further, incidents related by identified teacher leaders, beyond their formally defined roles, were reflective of the work of teacher leaders being done "through

conversation" (Joan I) and dialogue, suggesting great potential for changing the way in which teachers work, moving away from isolation to collaboration. Incidents described also indicated that teacher leaders operated within webs of trusting relationships within their divisions, and that their approaches emerged organically from opportunities that they identified around them, for example through "hallway conversations" (Ellen I). The incidents also indicated that their base of influence generated from their teaching expertise and referent or personal power, generated by a willingness to "model" and "some sort of a passion" for the topics shared (Ellen I). A sense of humility was also expressed in that teacher leaders warned against thinking they'd "arrived" but rather saw themselves as "just growing ... learning ... embracing and ... being frustrated" (Ellen I). Identified teacher leaders reported that they derived satisfaction from interactions in the incidents described. The incidents were related to the divisions to which they belonged rather than to the school as a whole.

When considering the approach or pathway that would most effectively promote the development of teacher leadership at ISA, most Senior Administrators considered that teacher leadership would develop through attention to both role-based strategies and community-based approaches to developing teacher leadership. Teachers demonstrated an understanding of the inherent contradiction in this, seeing a "mismatch ... between what we're trying to do" (Mike I) in focusing on community-based approaches, "and just the way the organization has evolved" (Mike I) as the bureaucratic ISA machine. Though teachers expressed a preference for community-based strategies for developing teacher leadership, they demonstrated awareness that pursuit of such strategies to develop teacher leadership would be in opposition to the traditional, individual based school-wide view of leadership, and that they would consequently "be at cross purposes" (Mike I). It was understood that the "more traditional, hierarchical, the leader is the greater difficulty the teacher leader will have" (Candy I). However, most administrators generally understood that within ISA hierarchical and individually based leadership operated alongside leadership as an organizational property and professional phenomenon.

Discourse of leadership for the school as a whole was seen to differ from discourse of leadership in some divisions. Discourse of leadership in divisions was seen to have been influenced by the "style of the principal" (Joyce I), their "comfort level ... in giv[ing] a little away in trust" (Aron I), and their "agenda" (Kate I). Only some divisional principals were seen as being "willing to empower" teachers (T 06 Q). Discourse of leadership was

perceived by teacher leaders in one division as having changed from being broadly based and shared to being “less collaborative and more hierarchical” (T 06 Q). The intensity of the traditional, hierarchical leadership exercised by the Central Administrative Team was seen to have negatively impacted the division. The divisional principal was seen to have “lost some autonomy” and “some of the ‘power’ they had to make decisions and influence the direction” (T 06 Q) of the division. The role of divisional principal was seen to have been “rendered to paper-pushing and task-force sitting” and “positive divisional organizational cultures, collegiality and norms are eroding away due to the over-centralization of power and decision making (Central Administration)” (T 06 Q).

5.3.2 Impact on the context

To build leadership capacity and operationalize teacher leadership requires attention to organizational context (Conley, 1997), as the development of teacher leadership is closely linked to the context of the school (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Smylie and Denny (1990) propose that developing teacher leadership should be approached as an issue of organizational change, as it involves not only providing individuals with opportunities for developing leadership skills but also providing a healthy context in which the teacher leadership will be sustained. If teacher leaders are not supported by broader organizational and institutional contexts in which they develop and function, they are not likely to be effective, (Smylie, Conley, & Marks, 2002) and the initiative is not likely to be sustained. Those redesigning the bureaucratic ISA machine were seeking to create structures in the ISA context such that teachers could develop and be sustained in leadership roles (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001).

That administrators acknowledged this challenge is evident in the references made to the efforts to develop a “community of learners” (Maria I), “giving teachers some leadership responsibilities” and moving away from the usual workings of the bureaucratic ISA machine. The “desire and the vision of the upper administration” and the “intentions ... to value teacher leadership” were clear in the “large degree of resources invested in the initiative,” and these desires and intentions were seen to have a positive impact on the context of the school.

However, there was no widespread acknowledgement by administrators or teachers that the challenge had been met and the context had changed significantly such that sustainability was likely. Largely, the initiative was seen to have had no significant influence

on the context of ISA and the bureaucratic structures in place at ISA were a key reason offered for this lack of influence. Some administrators and most teachers acknowledged the "extremely hierarchical," "very top down" approach to leadership in the school, and teachers, "at the bottom of the food chain of the hierarchy" felt the difficulty of trying to influence change (Candy I).

Traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic organizational contexts, as evident at ISA, are not conducive to the development of teacher leadership (Murphy, 2005). Teachers were aware that the potential impact of the initiative had not been achieved. Strong centralized control at ISA was recognized as prevalent, and this was considered to be a disadvantage to the development of teacher leadership. The "more traditional, hierarchical the leader is the greater difficulty the teacher leader will have" (Candy I). In essence, such contexts place teachers at the bottom of the 'pecking order,' deeming it inappropriate for them to assume leadership (Boles & Troen, 1994). Perceptions shared by some teachers indicated that levels of teacher leadership had decreased as a result of the strong centralized controls that were exercised at ISA.

Teachers were perceived as becoming "very reluctant" to take on roles of leadership and reluctant to persist in the roles. They take a leadership "role for so long and after a while they don't want to do it anymore" (Abbot I). Administrators acknowledge that ISA is not always a safe place for teacher leaders as they want to find ways to 'protect' them. Teacher leaders feel unsafe, acknowledging that they are "not viewed positively" and that they are "going to get a lot of backlash" (Ellen I).

Further, the type of context evident at ISA has led to teacher isolation, alienation, and disenchantment (Pellicer & Anderson, 1995). Teachers at ISA reflect this in that they are "truly 'driven' ... [with] the atmosphere within the school ... negative and depressing" (T 06 Q). Further, teachers perceive that the focus on administration and management tasks to be completed takes attention away from the core business of schools, teaching and learning (Elmore, 1990). The goal of the school was to "become a leading school in the world" rather than to focus on "educating individual students" (T 06 Q), placing emphasis on "not what is best for the education of the child," but "what is best for the institution of the school" (T 06 Q).

A few administrators and many teachers expressed concern for atmosphere and morale in the school. The context of ISA seemed to be dominated by negativity, including a lack of trust and a consequent lack of willingness to be open. Limiting micro-management,

expanding freedom to voice opinions, and changing the power structure within the hierarchy (T 06 Q) were ways suggested to allow trust and engagement to build.

The context of the school was cluttered with too many initiatives. The data indicated that administrators knew that ISA was trying to do too much (Joyce I), that there was not enough time to accomplish all that was desired (Peter I), and that teachers were "losing focus" (TL FG). The many initiatives added to the complexity of the context. Lack of time was a serious consideration. Since teacher contracts are arranged around the contact time they spend with students, a teachers' job is traditionally defined as what happens in the classroom (Danielson, 2006). Teachers at ISA, teachers who are involved in committees and task forces have additional demands on their time that compete with the demands of classroom time. Since committees and task forces frequently met during the working day, the sense of competing commitments was intensified and teachers felt "pulled in so many ways" (Kate I). Many teachers speculated that it would be difficult to get teachers to volunteer for leadership roles in the future.

Traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic organizational contexts may be the only kind of contexts known to some administrators and some teachers at ISA. This default way of thinking about the contexts of schools is evident in comments made by administrators and teachers. Even though some administrators perceived leadership capacity to have been built throughout the school as a result of the initiative, they saw the potential for the school to reach its vision as dependent upon a new director choosing to continue along the path set, should the current director leave the school. When asked for suggestions as to what could change in the context of the organization to more effectively develop teacher leadership, both the majority of administrators and the majority of teachers made suggestions which focused around role-based strategies rather than community based approaches to developing teacher leadership. The former being in line with the traditional way of thinking about organizational improvements, the latter being outside the immediate frame of reference or image of organization.

Murphy (2005) maintains that teacher leadership is both a catalyst for and an outcome of a shift away from narrow focus on hierarchical organizational systems and institutional views of schooling. However, he points out that not only is it difficult to move from the known to the unknown, but also it is easy to regress to the familiar even if change is evident. Heller (1994) indicates that the hierarchical structure offers comfort to some within it as responsibility lies with someone else at another level in the hierarchy.

The organizational context of the bureaucratic ISA machine is not conducive to the development of teacher leadership (Lambert, 2003; Murphy, 2005). There is inherent confusion generated by the mismatch in intentions held by members of the Administrative Team at ISA to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, and the outcomes possible given the constraints of the traditional discourse of leadership prevalent at ISA. Implicit in the intention to develop teacher leaders is the need to focus on establishing networks of relationships, yet the traditional discourse of leadership allows focus on structural adjustments only. This mismatch produced significant levels of apprehension and a lack of trust amongst teachers. While administrators spoke of opportunities for involvement for those interested, teachers responded to a sense of expectation placed on them to be involved. Lack of trust led teachers to attribute motives such as favouritism and manipulation to administrators in regard to involvement in, and outcomes of, the initiative.

The context for promoting teacher leadership is influenced by the actual organizational structure (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). At ISA, the context for encouraging teacher leadership seemed to have been inevitably influenced by the nature of the organizational structure. There seemed little shared understanding of how the rapid growth of the school, the complexity of the large organization, or the demands of preparation for reaccreditation had influenced the organizational structure at ISA, and how this would in turn influence the context for supporting teacher leadership.

Divisional principals were seen to dramatically influence the contexts within the divisions of the schools. Due to the six different leaders in the six divisions, “there are realistically six different contexts” at ISA (Admin FG). The divisional principals heavily influence the context of the division and the culture of the division (Admin FG). The organizational context offered within a division, may influence the performance and outcomes of teacher leadership in that division (Smylie, 1996). In regard to the effectiveness of the initiative, this inconsistency was seen to be “the killer” (Aron I).

5.3.3 Impact on relationships

As the initiative progressed, the working relationships within ISA were also considered to have been inevitably impacted. To build leadership capacity and to operationalize teacher leadership implies substantially different working relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators (Smylie & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992). Further, the

importance of building relationships (Silva, Gimbert, & Nolan (2000) cannot be overstated in the work of teacher leaders.

Hart (1990) maintains that social interactions have a stronger influence over teacher leadership than training, experience, personal characteristics, abilities, and the formal structure within the school. Teacher leaders placed a very high value on social interactions. They viewed the opportunities to engage with others on committees and task forces as very positive. They particularly valued opportunities to engage with those with whom they may not otherwise have had contact, for example, teachers in different divisions. An administrator noted that the teacher leaders who had effectively engaged in social interactions and had good relationships and a sense of their own personal power before training continued to be effective and well respected by peers (Maria I).

A distinction was drawn between the positive influences on relationship building that engaging with others on committees and task forces had had, and the negative influences on relationship building experienced in every day interactions with colleagues. While relationships were suspected to "have deepened within the many taskforces ... everyday collegiality [was] suffering and division identities ...disappearing" (T 06 Q). "Overall, relationships seem to be worsening in the school" (T 06 Q). Disappointments were expressed that the potential that the initiative held "to unite the faculty" led to "added stress and a feeling of helplessness" (T 06 Q). Teachers perceived relationship building to "have been placed on the back burner" (T 06 Q) as a result of increases in stress levels, the pace of growth, and the limited time available. The number of initiatives creating "too much interference" (T 06 Q) also affected relationships.

Lambert et al. (1996) explains that the few at the top of the hierarchy have the power and authority, and can direct the behaviours of the many further down the hierarchy. Administrators at ISA seemed to perceive that they had successfully directed the behaviours of teachers in ways which contributed to building positive relationships. Administrators perceived themselves to have communicated clear expectations around building relationships to teachers which were seen to have resulted in "rein[ing] back" some teachers and preventing others from "lashing out" (Joyce I). Administrators generally perceived that the structures that they put in place and the resources they provided helped teachers develop relationships. For example, providing access to video conferencing equipment for dialogues with teachers across campus was seen by administrators as a means of enhancing relationship building.

Within the social structure of the school, relationships fit into the layers of the hierarchy. Those at any given layer share a sense of belonging, and a sense of separation from those in other layers. Administrators and teachers at ISA described this phenomenon as an "us versus them" feeling. It is seen to exist at ISA between "teacher leaders and upper admin" (Eric I), and between teachers and teacher leaders. Some administrators thought clarity around decision making added to creating "a more positive relationship between admin and staff" (Admin 07 Q), which in turn led to "less contempt for the decisions" (Admin 07 Q). Other administrators noted that the hierarchy inevitably promoted a feeling of "us and them" which in turn makes it difficult for positive relationships to develop between teachers and administrators at ISA. Teacher leaders at ISA often found themselves set apart from their peers. "Within a given layer ... relationships may have been positively impacted" but the separation of the layers makes this difficult to determine (Admin 06 Q). Administrators reported that it was not possible to assess relationships in a layer to which one did not belong. In short, if "schools are still hierarchical ... there can't be any significant changes in relationships" (Admin 06 Q).

Relationships with the few in the layer at the top of the hierarchy are of powerful significance. The sense of "more factions, more favouritism" is linked to perceived relationships with the most powerful. Teachers perceived, for example, that the administrators who were hired into the Administrative Team by the current Director had a more positive relationship with the Director than the administrators who were hired by the previous Director and 'inherited' as part of the Administrative Team (T 06 Q). Similarly, teachers perceived that "those who have relationships with the 'powerful' or who are connected [were getting] stronger and stronger [while] the rest of us aren't important" (T 06 Q).

Relationships can be seen to be fragmented. Friction was perceived to exist between different groups within the organization. Traces of antagonism were evident between the 'in group' and 'the rest' (T 07 Q), those new to ISA and those 'not-so-new' to ISA, and between those wanting to climb the administrative ladder and those wanting to maintain a focus on teaching and learning.

Role-based and community-based pathways to teacher leadership produce different outcomes in regard to relationships (Murphy, 2005). Role-based designs evident at ISA produce relationships that separate teachers from their peers, (Forster, 1997), as new titles and job descriptions serve to set teachers apart from their peers (Lambert et al., 1996).

Role-based designs of teacher leadership often promote competition rather than collaboration (Murphy, 2005) and relationships with colleagues are often shallow (Stone et al., 1997). The web of relationships in community-based teacher leadership designs, are richer and far more complex, and relationships tend to be more inclusive and more collaborative (Frost & Durrant, 2003; & Wasley, 1991). CFGs were seen by both administrators and teachers to create opportunities for positive interactions amongst teachers leading to relationship building. "A valuable network of professional support and collaboration" (T 06 Q) was perceived to be starting as a result of CFG training. Relationships have formed amongst those who took part in the same training and where CFGs were operating, but this was not perceived throughout in the school overall.

A sense of resentment was expressed by teachers toward Central Administration. In one instance, teachers perceived administrators to have taken away relationship building time by replacing "team planning time" with management related tasks (Connie I). Credibility was perceived to be lacking as the administrators were not seen to be "modelling or leading by example" (T 06 Q). Trust was perceived to be eroding, and it was claimed that "suspicion has grown" (T 06 Q), and that there is "a growing pessimism" (T 06 Q). With such sentiments expressed, it may be necessary for trust and openness to build before relationships building could strengthen. As a first step, organizational members may need to feel safe enough to explore new relationships (Von Krogh, Ichijo, & Nonaka, 2000).

Relationships between divisional principals and teacher leaders in their division were noted to be of significant importance by Central Administrators. In some divisions the relationships were seen to work well and in others they did not work as well. Some divisional principals were seen to be "by nature people persons, [who] have as gifts their ability to interact with people, their ability to listen actively" and to have "a core of confidence in themselves" which allowed them to "spread out the ownership" (Joyce I). It was noted that "if that doesn't exist, the ownership isn't spread and it very quickly becomes a top down situation" (Joyce I).

Egalitarian norms among teachers do not encourage teachers to take on leadership roles (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). These egalitarian norms respect the privacy of other teachers and violating this may lead to rejection from peers. Generally speaking, teachers have adhered to norms of privacy, autonomy, and egalitarianism (Smylie, 1996) in the developing working relationships and these norms may neutralize attempts for teacher leaders to form new roles in support, collegial interaction, and collaboration. The same

norms may also prompt teacher leaders to approach their colleagues cautiously (Little, 1988).

Despite the norms of privatism and conservatism central to teaching in schools (Lortie, 1975), administrators perceived that there had been a “huge amount of collaboration” (Joe I), and that “huge positive things [were] going on with teacher collaboration and conversations” (Maggie I). Similarly, CGF training was perceived by teachers to have “had a great impact on getting discussions going through the school on issues relevant to every teacher” (T 06 Q).

Fullan (2001a) cautions that close relationships are not ends in themselves, but that they must help develop desired results. Most importantly, evidence suggests that students learn better when collaborative relationships exist within a professional learning community (Stein, 1998). The power of collaboration must be focused on the right things; otherwise it may end up producing unwanted outcomes (Fullan, 2001a). At ISA, teachers perceive that relationships are not focused on improving student learning, and thus may not be focused on the right things.

Within any organization, members working together develop a body of solutions to external and internal problems that have been consistently effective for the group (Schein, 2004). Owens & Valesky (2007) refer to this body of solutions as organizational culture and explain that it develops over time and is offered to new members who join the group as the correct way to perceive, think about, and feel in relation to those external or internal problems. In other words, organizational culture consists of the conclusions a group of people draw from their shared experience (Owens & Valesky, 2007). In turn, organizational culture is thought to influence the ways in which members of an organization approach the work they do, and interact with colleagues and customers (Cooke, 2004).

Owens and Valesky (2007) make clear that the quality and characteristics of a school’s organizational culture significantly influence the effectiveness of the school in terms of student learning and development. Research suggests that schools should emphasize supportiveness, open communication, collaboration, and intellectuality, and should reward achievement and success (Owens & Valesky, 2007). In contrast to schools that emphasize competition, constraint and restrictiveness, rules, standard operating procedures and reward conformity, such schools enhance effectiveness in relation to achievement, attendance, dropout rate, frustration, and alienation (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Culture building is seen to be crucial to enhancing or deterring reform and innovation (Robins & Alvy, 2004; Crowther et al, 2009). Deal and Peterson (1999) support this view and emphasise that successful school improvement initiatives must be embedded in supportive, spirit-filled cultures. Culture is also seen to have specific relevance to the success of efforts to develop teacher leadership in schools. Murphy (2005) maintains that culture within a school may actually create dynamics that obstruct efforts to develop teacher leadership in schools. The specific aspects of a particular school culture seem to be more influential than the general norms of the teaching profession (Smylie, 1996) in promoting or discouraging teacher leadership. Additionally, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) maintain the importance of culture to the success of students is clear. A positive culture fosters teacher leadership which in turn produces positive results in student outcomes (Anderson, 1992).

At ISA, the body of solutions identified for external and internal problems have developed within the framework of the bureaucratic machine. It follows that the way teachers approach the work they do and the way they interact with others at the school has been influenced by the framework of the bureaucratic machine. In this way, the structure of the organization may have had a profound influence on the members of the organization (Robbins et al., 2004).

The leadership style of those in power shapes the culture of the organization (Morgan, 1997). Yet, from their actions it would seem that administrators at ISA may not be fully aware of their role and significance in terms of actual impacts on the culture of the school. In general, administrators' actions at ISA are seen to be, and experienced as, maintaining a mini-society that functions as a bureaucracy. The organized activity at ISA seems to reflect the values, beliefs, norms, and other social practices characteristic of a bureaucracy. They may not be aware that sustaining strong, positive cultures requires leadership from everyone (Peterson, 1999), and that exercising the style of leadership that maintains a bureaucracy is likely to promote a passive / defensive culture (Szumal, 1998) within the school.

Signs of a passive / defensive culture are evident at ISA. Teachers seem to accept their role to be following the expectations set for them and implementing procedures and guidelines as outlined. Many responded according to their perception of expectation for involvement when engaging with the initiative to build leadership capacity. Initiatives started at the beginning of a school year fading after a few months may be the result of teachers who are unwilling to take responsibility for any initiative generated by Central Administration,

preferring the status quo. Outward compliance with initiatives seems evident, yet teachers seem to resist doing things differently, choosing rather to wait until the initiative fades away. Over time, teachers may also have become dependent upon clearly defined job descriptions to which they adhere, choosing to do no more or less than what is specified.

The ethos of negativity that seems to prevail may also be a reflection of the passive / defensive culture. Teachers at ISA share a reality that features favouritism, lack of transparency, and manipulation. The predominant interpretive lens seems to be one of cynicism. Teachers generally hold a negative view of administrators, not trusting them. This negative view is transferred to teacher leaders who are seen to be part of the administration. In general, administrators hold a more positive view of the culture in operation within the bureaucratic ISA machine than teachers do.

The bureaucratic ISA machine may also be seen to promote a culture focused on tasks rather than relationships. The focus on completing tasks is reflected in the frequent comments made by teachers that, with the amount of work to be done, there is not enough time for social interactions to maintain relationships. Concern about doing tasks well, and feeling overwhelmed by the number of tasks to be completed is often expressed. This indicates that teachers understand that the culture at ISA values task completion and that they feel stress when they are not able to meet expectations. The nature of the social interactions possible within the bureaucratic ISA machine inevitably influenced the nature of the culture perpetuated at ISA. Focus on tasks rather than relationships neglects the importance of everyday relations at ISA as a means of reality construction. In turn, this neglects the potential for creating a shared sense of reality and reinforces multiple realities.

Teachers given roles and assigned tasks as teacher leaders within the bureaucratic ISA machine without being given time to carry out the additional expectations are likely to face overload (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Implicit in building capacity is the need to reorganize resources. The use of time as a resource needs careful examination and approaches to providing teachers with more non-instructional time could prevent teachers from feeling overloaded and stressed.

Stress for teachers may also result from a culture within the bureaucratic ISA machine that is focused on meeting the demanding expectations of those higher up the hierarchy, deferring to superiors. Comments regarding a desire to complete the initiatives handed down from the top will also indicate an understanding that those at the top need to be kept satisfied. This becomes particularly stressful when the expectations from above are in

conflict with what teachers identify as their main priority, that is teaching and learning. Further, teachers are dependent on recognition from above for their efforts and frustration is evident when this does not eventuate.

The rapid growth over the past few years and turnover of key administrative personnel are offered as reasons for not having time or effort to focus upon culture building. However, the focus on culture building that was a part of the previous administration was seen to make a difference in the divisions where it was given priority. Though administrators did not focus on culture building, teacher leaders uniformly expressed a desire to return to the focus on culture building and they were able to articulate the ways in which such a focus could benefit them in their roles as teacher leaders. It was understood that if the school wanted to expand the impact of CFG, "a culture change" (Justin I) would be necessary.

The influence of culture is usually not uniform throughout an organization (Morgan, 1997). Within the social structure of the school, the six different divisions are also separated. Consequently, divisions may create and recreate their own realities. Different divisions may maintain different value systems, and different cultures. The separation of divisions makes it difficult for teachers within one division to create shared realities with teachers in other divisions. Rather than a uniformity of organizational realities throughout ISA, "a mosaic of organizational realities" (Morgan, 1997, p. 137) or multiple realities exist throughout the school.

Subcultures within divisions seem evident at ISA. These may have developed for a range of reasons, for example, friendship groups may have formed within divisions. Of particular importance are the groups which form informally to allow teachers to share expertise around a particular pedagogy.

A fragmented culture, where people say one thing and do another (Morgan, 1997), is also evident at ISA. Administrators may say that there is benefit in involving diverse participation in decision making, yet the structures established for decision making and the documentation that exists indicate that this will not happen. Administrators are seen to talk of building leadership capacity but to act in 'autocratic' ways. This disconnect may be communicated in subtle ways through conversations with administrators and through observing them in practice.

Administrators generally perceive that the culture of the organization changed as a result of a recruitment strategy that sought out teachers who could collaborate. However, even with

the large growth in the number of teachers brought into the school, the culture does not seem to be consistently positive throughout the school. The conclusions regarding work roles and interactions that the teachers drew from their experiences at ISA in the past may be causing them to resist new possible conclusions that may require them to reshape their work roles and interactions (Smylie & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992), and consciously choose to continue to perpetuate the existing culture.

5.3.4 Summary and conclusions – Uncovering the reality

In summary, the initiative to build leadership capacity did not reach its potential at ISA. Discourse related to leadership at ISA, the organizational context of ISA, and relationships within ISA are interrelated elements impacted by the initiative. The prevailing discourse related to leadership was traditional and hierarchical, viewing leadership as individual and authority based. The approach to developing teacher leadership focused on role-based strategies, reflective of the traditional and hierarchical discourse of leadership.

The organizational context did not sustain the development of teacher leadership. The approach to developing teacher leadership focused on creating additional structures within the context and this did not change the traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic organizational context. The context was not conducive to the development of teacher leadership and was characterized by teacher isolation, alienation and disenchantment, low morale, and too many initiatives that competed for teacher time and energy.

Substantially different working relationships among teachers and between teachers and administrators are implied in efforts to build leadership capacity and develop teacher leadership. While social interactions and relationships were seen as important at ISA, they were negatively impacted by the initiative. Social interactions and relationships were structured within the layers of the hierarchy and were fragmented. They were seen to promote favouritism and erode trust. The prevailing organizational culture created dynamics that obstructed efforts to build leadership capacity. The values, beliefs, norms and other social practices were seen to be characteristic of a bureaucracy and promoted a passive / defensive culture characterized by actions in response to expectations from above, an ethos of negativity, and a focus on tasks not relationships. The fragmented culture was one in which individuals would talk of building capacity yet act in autocratic ways.

5.4 Perceptions of motivation for involvement in the initiative to build leadership capacity

A wide range of factors were identified by administrators and teachers as impacting on their desire to become and remain part of the initiative to build leadership capacity within the bureaucratic ISA machine. Elements of a traditional form of motivation, as associated with the machine metaphor, are evident. For example, teachers perceive themselves, administrators, and other teachers to be involved in the initiative in response to an expectation to participate in the initiative, as an "unwritten requirement" (T 06 Q) or as if "upper admin is keeping score" (T 06 Q).

Factors motivating administrators and teachers to become and remain part of the initiative can also be seen in the light of the factors that cause motivation as identified Herzberg's study of motivation from 1959, which was replicated by Sergiovanni in 1966. See Table 5.2. The factors in the work environment that prompt either positive or negative attitudes towards work in general as identified by Sergiovanni (1966) were applied to help identify general attitudes to the work of building leadership capacity held by administrators and teachers at ISA. These attitudes toward work were seen to strongly influence success or failure (Robbins et al., 2004).

Table 5.2: Factors that motivate

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
1. Achievement	6. Policy and administrative practices
2. Recognition	7. Supervision - technical
3. Responsibility	8. Interpersonal relations (supervisors)
4. Work itself	9. Working conditions
5. Possibility of growth	10. Salary
	11. Interpersonal relations (peers)
	12. Personal life
	13. Interpersonal relations (subordinates)
	14. Status
	15. Job security

Adapted from Herzberg (1959) & Sergiovanni (1966), as cited in Lunenburg & Ornstein, (1996).

Both administrators and teachers viewed themselves as being intrinsically motivated to be part of the initiative. Administrators viewed themselves as predominantly influenced by intrinsic, satisfying factors relating to the possibility of growth. In line with Sergiovanni (1966), Stone et al. (1997) identify personal, intrinsic reasons as motivational factors for those applying for or involved in teacher leadership roles. Similarly, Argyris (2000)

suggested that internal commitment comes from internal energies activated because getting a job done is intrinsically rewarding.

Teachers, however, perceived themselves to be predominantly influenced by extrinsic, dissatisfying factors in relation to the working conditions at ISA. Within the context of bureaucratic ISA machine, administration specifies for teachers the requirements associated with tasks related to their roles, and their involvement in committees and task forces. External commitment, generated by policy and administrative practices that focus on task completion, rather than internal commitment, generated from within because the tasks are intrinsically rewarding, is promoted within the context (Argyris, 2000). Teachers are at liberty to exercise only limited discretion, and are expected to follow the rules prescribed, providing little incentive to do more than the required minimum (Reis & Pena, 2001). Argyris (2000) notes that when someone else defines objectives, goals, and the steps to be taken to reach them, whatever commitment exists will be external.

What motivates administrators and teachers to become and remain part of the initiative, and thus sustain the initiative

Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 show the perceptions of administrators and teachers respectively as to the factors with motivated them to take part in the initiative to build leadership capacity. These tables, and others in this section, are based on the framework provided by Herzberg (1959) and Sergiovanni (1966) as shown in Table 5.2. Discussion of the tables follows in subsequent sections.

Table 5.3: Factors that motivate – Administrator perception of self

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
1. Possibility of growth	
2. Work itself	

Table 5.4: Factors that motivate – Teacher perception of self

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
2. Possibility of growth	1. Working conditions
3. Interpersonal relations (peers)	4. Interpersonal relations (supervisors)
5. Work itself	6. Lack of Recognition
	7. Lack of Responsibility
	8. Supervision - technical
	9. Personal life

What administrators perceive motivates them

Administrative team members reported themselves to be motivated to take part in the initiative primarily for intrinsic reasons. They considered themselves to be motivated primarily by the opportunities for personal and professional growth that the initiative provided, acknowledging that they wanted "to grow professionally and personally" (Admin 07 Q) and that they value "learning opportunities" (Admin 06 Q). Further, they acknowledged the potential for promotion and career enhancement (Admin 06 Q) that may result from involvement in the initiative.

Administrators also saw themselves as being motivated by the work itself, expressing a strong belief in the initiative and a strong desire to carry it through for the betterment of the school. They demonstrated a keen desire to be "involved in empowering leadership amongst all faculty" (Admin 06 Q) and to work toward making "the school the best it can be" in this way.

What teachers perceive motivates them

Primarily, teachers reported themselves as not being willing to participate in the initiative due to factors connected with their working conditions within the bureaucratic ISA machine. The amount of work that was handed down to teachers prevented feelings of satisfaction about involvement in the initiative. The amount of work generated created great pressure on teachers' time and energy, such that they felt they could participate only if they had "a big, big, big time allowance (T 06 Q) or something "taken away from the work load" (T 06 Q). The amount of work related to their "minimum job responsibilities" in their classrooms was demanding enough, leaving no time or energy to participate in any further undertakings. Their working conditions caused some teachers concern as to whether or not they were fair to their students and whether or not they were doing "a good job in the classroom" (T 06 Q). They did not want time or energy taken away from attending to students' needs.

Opportunity for growth was the subsequent satisfier identified by teachers as providing motivation for involvement in the initiative. They identified themselves as wanting "to grow professionally" (T 06 Q), and as having become more knowledgeable and as having learned new skills. Having "grown as a person" (Melinda I) was also identified. The "opportunity to learn more" (Melinda I) and the amount of learning that has taken place for teachers were key factors motivating involvement. Additionally, opportunities for career moves or

advancement in the future, including enhancing their resume or curriculum vitae, were also motivating as providing opportunities for growth.

For the purposes of his study, Sergiovanni (1966) interpreted interpersonal relationships with peers to include both teachers of equal rank and parents of students, which he notes may have influenced the data relating to relationships with peers. However, he also notes that teachers "responded infrequently to interaction with fellow teachers as being sources of high or low job feelings" (Sergiovanni, 1966, p. 42). In contrast, teachers at ISA found relationships with peers as a significant positive influence in their working environment. Teachers clearly indicated their interest in taking part in the initiative because of the relationships they had with peers whom they valued and with whom they enjoyed engaging in dialogue and collaborating.

Relationship with supervisor characteristically produced feelings of expectations amongst teachers. This sense of expectation influenced teachers to "step up" (T 06 Q) to be involved in the initiative, and served as a dissatisfier. Some teachers reported that they were involved in the initiative as a result of being asked by an administrator to participate.

Teachers identified the work itself as a satisfier. They enjoyed involvement in the initiative simply because "they like it" and are "curious to see where things can go" (Melinda I). They enjoyed empowering those who work at ISA and working collaboratively as required by the initiative.

Recognition was identified by Herzberg (1959) and Sergiovanni (1966) as a satisfier. However, at ISA, teachers identified lack of recognition as influencing their attitudes toward involvement in the initiative. Teachers commented that they would have been willing to participate in the initiative if their contributions were valued but "there [was] no recognition" (Joan I).

Similarly, responsibility was identified by Herzberg (1959) and Sergiovanni (1966) as a satisfier. Yet, teachers expressed reluctance to participate in the initiative due to a lack of responsibility or authority exercised by those involved. While teachers would have liked to "have [had] input into the way things [were] done," (Melinda I), they perceive that those participating in the initiative did not have genuine responsibility and authority, but that administrators have "set the expected outcome before the initiative started" (T 06 Q). Teachers would be motivated to participate in the initiative if they had the responsibility and authority to ensure that their time and energy "would be fruitful and meaningful," (T

06 Q) if they had a “genuine ability to make changes needed,” (T 07 Q) or if they had “real impact” (T 06 Q).

Administrators demonstrated behaviours when carrying out their roles that prompted concern. Supervision provided was not seen to be competent, in that teachers could not “trust that central admin knew what they were doing and were genuine about their undertakings” (T 06 Q). While “the school is great at starting new programs,” it is “not so good at following through with support.” (T 06 Q) Further, teachers find it dissatisfying that administrators do not seem willing to delegate responsibility but rather sought to “follow [their] own agenda (T 06 Q). The amount of work connected with their roles caused some teachers to be concerned about “themselves and their family relationships,” (T 06 Q) factors in personal life.

Summary - What administrators perceive and what teachers perceive motivates them

In summary, administrative team members and teachers saw themselves as motivated by different factors. First and foremost, administrators perceived themselves to be motivated to participate in the initiative for reasons of professional and personal growth. In contrast, teachers perceived themselves to be primarily motivated to avoid participation in the initiative due to their working conditions. The vast amount of work they perceived to receive from the ‘top down’ caused them stress and diverted attention from teaching and learning, creating conditions that discouraged participation. Secondarily, administrators perceived themselves to be motivated by the work itself, and teachers perceived themselves to be motivated by professional and personal growth. Teachers also perceived themselves to be motivated to participate due to positive relationships with their peers and the work itself. However, they perceived themselves to be discouraged from participating due to expectations perceived from supervisors, a lack of recognition, a lack of genuine responsibility, a lack of trust in their supervisors, and factors in their personal lives.

What administrators and teachers perceive motivates administrators to be part of the initiative

Table 5.5 and Table 5.6 show the factors that administrators and teachers perceived to have motivated administrators to take part in the initiative to build leadership capacity. Again, discussion of the tables follows in subsequent sections.

Table 5.5: Factors that motivate administrators – Administrator perception

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
1. Possibility of growth	3. Interpersonal relations (supervisors)
2. Work itself	5. Policy and administrative practices
4. Responsibility	

Table 5.6: Factors that motivate administrators – Teacher perception

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
3. Possibility of growth	1. Interpersonal relations (supervisors)
4. Work itself	2. Status

What administrators perceive motivates other administrators

While administrators expressed uncertainty about this, they generally perceived that other administrators would be motivated by the same factors which motivated them, growth and the work itself. Expectations constructed by those higher up the hierarchy were also perceived to be of influence. Relationship with supervisor, i.e. the Director at the top of the hierarchy was thought to produce feelings of expectations amongst administrators. A "sense of responsibility" was also mentioned as a motivator. Comments related to school policy and administration were made in relation to administrations' inadequacy in inducting administrators new to ISA into the initiative (Admin 07 Q), developing an understanding and appreciation of it and creating a "'buzz' among the admin team on this." (Admin 06 Q).

What teachers perceive motivates administrators

Teachers perceive that administrators take part in the initiative primarily due to factors related to the category, relationship with supervisor. Teachers clearly perceive administrators involvement as related to an expectation placed upon them by the Director. Teachers said that administrators participate because they have "no choice," (T 06 Q) because "the Director decided they should!" (T 06 Q). The hierarchical nature of the relationships within the ISA machine and the power perceived to be held by the Director is evident in the statement that administrators participate in the initiative for "fear of being fired because they are 'not on board' with Larry." (T 06 Q).

Teachers perceive that administrators participate in the initiative to enhance status, or to "look good" to a variety of stakeholders. (T 06 Q) Being able to tell stakeholders that they participated in implementing "current research" (T 06 Q) and that teachers "have the

opportunity to be leaders" (T 06 Q) was perceive by teachers to be more important for administrators than actually "Feel[ing] its value." (T 06 Q).

Some teachers perceived administrators to be motivated to participate in the initiative for growth purposes. Teachers acknowledged that administrators need to "resume build" (T 06 Q), find "ways of expanding job possibilities for the future," and "move forward in their careers" (T 06 Q). Teachers also perceived administrators as wanting to learn and "develop their skills" (T 06 Q) and develop "new understandings, and strategies." (T 06 Q).

Some teachers also perceived administrators to be motivated to participate in the initiative due to the nature of the work itself. Some administrators were perceived to have a "genuine interest in change from within, and a flatter level of admin" (T 06 Q) and to "believe in the direction the school is going with leadership capacity." (T 06 Q) Participation in the work related to the initiative was also seen to be motivating to administrators for the contribution it made to "improving the school." (T 06 Q).

Summary - What administrators and teachers perceive motivates administrators

In summary, administrator and teachers viewed administrators to be motivated to participate in the initiative for different reasons. Administrators perceived other administrators to be motivated primarily for reasons related to growth and the work itself. Teachers, however, perceived administrators to be motivated by the expectation to participate generated by their direct supervisor and by desire to increase their status. Additionally, administrators saw other administrators to be motivated by expectations from their supervisor and a sense of responsibility toward the school. Moreover, teachers saw administrators to be motivated by the desire for growth and the work itself.

What administrators and teachers perceive motivates teachers to be part of the initiative

Tables 5.7 and 5.8 list the factors administrators and teachers perceived to have motivated teachers to take part in the initiative to build leadership capacity. A discussion of the tables follows below.

Table 5.7: Factors that motivate teachers – Administrator perception

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
1. Possibility of growth	3. Interpersonal relations (supervisors)
2. Work itself	5. Interpersonal relations (peers)
4. Recognition	
6. Responsibility	

Table 5.8: Factors that motivate teachers – Teacher perception

Intrinsic - Satisfiers (found in the work itself)	**Extrinsic - Dissatisfiers** (found in the environment of work)
3. Possibility of growth	1. Status
4. Work itself	2. Interpersonal relations (supervisors)
5. Interpersonal relations (peers)	

What administrators perceive motivates teachers

Chiefly, administrators identified factors related to growth as the primary motivators for teachers. They acknowledged that teachers were motivated to be part of the initiative "to gain experience" (Admin 06 Q) so that it could be reflected in their resumes, which may in turn increase their "career building" (Admin 06 Q) opportunities in the future. They also thought teachers would be motivated by wanting "to grow professionally" (Admin 07 Q), developing new skills and "hone[ing] their practice" (Aron I).

Administrators perceived factors related to the work itself to provide motivation for teachers to participate in the initiative. Teachers involved in the initiative were seen to be "on cloud nine" (Maria I) since "they love it" (Maria I). Administrators perceived teachers to want to "contribute ...in a positive way" (Don I) and to want "to make a difference in the lives of children,"(Admin 07 Q). "Going above what's expected" was seen as a reflection of their personal desire to work with the initiative, and "change ISA for the better." (Admin 06 Q).

Administrators acknowledged that they perceived teachers to see participation as "required as a part of their job" (Admin 06 Q), indicating the relationship with supervisor category as a motivator. Administrators perceived teachers as wanting to be seen to "do their part" (Admin 06 Q), meeting the expectations perceived to be part of the hierarchical ISA environment.

Recognition was perceived by administrators as being important in motivating teachers. Teachers were seen to want to be "valued and respected beyond their classroom" (Admin 06 Q) and to have "support from their colleagues" (Larry I)

Administrators recognized that within the relationship with peers category, teachers could have negative attitudes toward their colleagues. Administrators thought it "just human

nature" for teachers to "question other people's motives ... to take on additional leadership or anything really." (Larry I)

Administrators perceived teachers as wanting to exercise responsibility. Comment was made that teachers participated in order "to have their voices heard" (Admin 06 Q).

What teachers perceive motivates other teachers

Many teachers thought others were willing to be part of the initiative for reasons related to status, "choosing to do things that make them look good" (T 07 Q). Descriptors such as "climbing the ladder" (T 06 Q), "to pad their resume" (Connie I), and "trading classroom teaching and learning for resume building" (T 06 Q) carry with them the connotation that participation ultimately links to wanting a different rank or prominence rather than desiring wanting growth or development. Similarly, comments connected to accumulating credits for Master degree work related to status rather than growth. Teachers were understood to "freely admit" that their involvement amounts to "going through the motions to get their three points for their Masters ... rather than for any other noble reason." (T 06 Q).

Teachers perceived other teachers to participate as a result of "pressure/guilt from administration" (T 06 Q), referring to the relationship with supervisor category. Teachers perceived other teachers as "feel[ing] forced" (T 06 Q) to meet the expectations perceived to be part of the hierarchical ISA environment in which "upper admin is keeping score" (T 06 Q). This sense of obligation extended to teachers perceiving others participating with the motive of "keeping their jobs" (T 06 Q).

The work itself was seen to be a motivating factor drawing teachers to be involved in the initiative. The initiative was seen to give teachers "an opportunity [to] show leadership in an area of their strength" (Candy I) and to be "part of the positive" (T 06 Q) that the initiative generated. Teachers were also seen to be "sincerely interested in school improvement" (T 06 Q) and in support of the initiative to "make the school a better place" (T 06 Q).

Growth was considered to motivate participation. Teachers saw others who wanted to "extend their careers" (TL FG) or who were "working towards administration positions in the future" (T 06 Q) but thought of these teachers as "learners" (Candy I) who wanted to "keep growing" in their own professional lives. Some teachers were seen to be motivated by pursuit of "personal [and] professional growth" (T 07 Q).

Teachers saw relationship with peers as a reason to prompt involvement in the initiative. Teachers thought other teachers had a “desire to feel supported and collaborate” (T 06 Q) with their peers. Teachers were seen to seek out others with similar dispositions and character traits. Teachers who “don’t see work as a 9 to 5 job” (Ellen I) and who share “those passions and those desires” (Ellen I) to improve within their profession are the ones who connect and engage. They see each other as colleagues to “seek out” interactions and “really good dialogue,” outside the formal structures of the organization (Joan I) from which they can learn and which they enjoy (Joan I). “Sharing the huge load with others,” (T 06 Q) and the “ethos to share responsibilities” (T 07 Q) were noted along with “a sense of satisfaction from collaborating” (T 07 Q).Teachers clearly indicated their interest in taking part in the initiative because of the relationships they had with peers whom they valued and with whom they enjoyed engaging in dialogue and collaborating.

Summary - What administrators and teachers perceive motivates other teachers

To summarize, administrators and teachers perceived sources of motivation for teachers to participate differently. Administrators perceived teachers to be motivated by desire to grow and by the work itself. Teachers perceived other teachers to be motivated by desire to increase status and to meet the expectations of their supervisors. In addition, administrators perceived teachers as responding to expectations from supervisors, and to a desire for recognition and responsibility. They acknowledged that teachers may avoid participating due to negative attitudes generated by their peers. Teachers perceived other teachers to respond to the work itself, a desire for growth and a desire to generate positive relationships with their peers.

Reflection on satisfiers and dissatisfiers

Administrators’ perceptions

Administrators viewed themselves, other administrators and teachers as primarily motivated by intrinsic factors related to growth and then the work itself. Secondarily, they viewed other administrators and teachers, but not themselves, as affected by expectations as a part of relationship with supervisor. This perception of others may be influenced by the traditional model of motivation associated with the machine metaphor, whereby the need to attend to the expectations of those further up the hierarchy is paramount. Administrators also understood teachers to be suspicious about the motives that other teachers held driving them to be part of the initiative.

Further, administrators viewed teachers' involvement to be related to factors regarding recognition and responsibility. On the other hand, teachers thought that these motivating factors were lacking for themselves.

To continue motivating administrators to become and remain part of the initiative, focus should remain on the satisfiers already identified. Continuing to focus on providing opportunities for growth and on the nature of the initiative itself will continue to draw administrators to involvement in the initiative. Focusing on achievement, recognition, and responsibility may intensify administrators' interests in the initiative, though they were not evident in their comments.

Teachers' perceptions

While administrators held quite consistent perceptions of factors motivating themselves, other administrators, and teachers, this was not the case for perceptions held by teachers. Teachers viewed working conditions as the primary factors influencing them to not take part in the initiative to build leadership capacity. They viewed expectations connected with the relationship with supervisor as the primary factor influencing administrators to take part, and they viewed factors related to status as the main factors influencing teachers to take part in the in the initiative.

In general, teachers' perceptions seem influenced by the traditional model of motivation associated with the machine metaphor. The perceived 'overwhelming' amount of work handed down to them from the 'top' seems to have created a negative attitude toward involvement in the initiative. They clearly see administrators responding to the initiative as a result of the directive provided by the Director at the top of the hierarchy. Further, they see their colleagues as responding to the need to "climb[ing] the ladder" (T 06 Q) within the organization as a means of motivation for involvement in the initiative.

When considering the factors contributing to satisfaction or dissatisfaction in relation to the initiative, teachers viewed the influences on administrators and other teachers in similar ways. They viewed the relationship with supervisor and status as factors contributing to the involvement of administrators and other teachers in the initiative. Teachers viewed administrators to be primarily influenced by relationship with supervisor and then status, and other teachers as being primarily influenced primarily by status and then relationship with supervisor. The sense of pleasing the supervisors and climbing the ladder are reflective of the bureaucratic ISA machine.

Consequently, factors seen to be of influence were related to growth and the work_itself. Teachers viewed administrators to be influenced by growth and then the work itself and viewed other teachers to be influenced by the work itself and growth. Growth included the opportunity for teachers to, at some time, move "… onward and upward within the organization" (Sergiovanni, 1966, p. 41), and to improve in skills and develop professionalism as a result of being part of the initiative to build leadership capacity. The work itself capitalized on the satisfaction derived from being involved in building leadership capacity and to carry through the initiative (Sergiovanni, 1966).

Teachers recognized themselves and other teachers as being influenced to participate in the initiative due to factors related to relationship with peers. Interactions with colleagues, dialogue and collaboration were seen to create positive attitudes toward the initiative amongst teachers. Elmore (2000) supports this perception with the claim that the most powerful incentives reside in the face-to-face relationships among people in the organization, not in external systems. Studies have shown that collaboration can lead members of groups to develop unique patterns of interrelatedness specific to the group and that this kind of teamwork can become a powerful, enduring motivator (Owens & Valesky, 2007). While the bureaucratic ISA machine may not have provided participative leadership generally associated with the development of group cohesion and team effectiveness, teachers at ISA seemed to find ways of working closely together that allowed groups to develop greater cohesiveness, higher morale, and a sense of shared values that seem highly motivating (Owens & Valesky, 2007) to individual group members.

Teachers may be more willing to become and stay part of the initiative to build leadership capacity at ISA if changes to their work environment take place. For example, changing their working conditions to adjust the amount of work to be done and alleviating the feeling of expectation from supervisors to participate could lessen the dissatisfiers producing negative attitudes toward the initiative. However, to motivate teachers to take part in the initiative, focus would need to be given to continuing to provide opportunities for growth, offering recognition in a variety of ways, and allowing teachers responsibility and authority through their involvement. Growth in professional skills has been identified as an area of motivation for teachers. Further motivation may be found through focus on achievement as a satisfier though this was not mentioned by teachers.

Sergiovanni (1966) claims that administrative behaviour can both reduce dissatisfaction factors and increase motivation. To decrease dissatisfaction, administrators can provide

supportive supervision, attend to interpersonal relations, effective communication, and group effectiveness (Sergiovanni, 1966). While these are important, they do not contribute directly to satisfaction. Sergiovanni (1966) advises an administrator to focus on increasing opportunities for teachers to experience personal and professional success by:

- Encouraging teachers to exercise more autonomy in making decisions;
- Increasing individual responsibility in developing and implementing the teaching program; and
- Developing professional skills (p. 112).

In the context of the bureaucratic ISA machine, however, an administrator may not have the power and influence to increase these opportunities. Guidelines for establishing decision making processes, outlining individual responsibility in developing and implementing the teaching program and prioritizing professional development are centrally determined.

Summary - Reflection on satisfiers and dissatisfiers

Overall, when reflecting on the satisfiers and dissatisfiers perceived by administrators and teachers, the influence of the traditional model of motivation associated with the machine metaphor seems evident. Both administrators and teachers perceive in others the influence of expectations as a part of relationships with supervisors. This may be a reflection of the need to please those further up the hierarchy. Teachers' perceiving others to be influenced by status also reflects this traditional model where climbing the hierarchy is considered a sign of success. Teachers perceiving their working conditions as handed down from above as reason to avoid involvement with the initiative may be reflective of the degree of autonomy and responsibility given to teachers within the bureaucratic ISA machine.

5.5 Summary – Discussing the findings

The image of ISA as a machine reflects the commonly held view of the bureaucratic structure that underlies the organization. The organizational design and structure of a bureaucracy seems evident at ISA through a range of characteristics, including hierarchy, departmentalization, chain of command, work specialization, centralization, and formalization (Robbins et al., 2004). Other characteristics reflecting the design and structure of a bureaucracy include focus on productivity and efficiency of task above

relationships, professional development driven by organizational need not individual need or interest, and compliance to expectations of those with more power and influence.

In critical aspects of school improvement related to increasing breadth of participation and skilful involvement in leadership in an effort to produce high leadership capacity, data indicate that participants perceive little changed at ISA and that there was scope for improvement, growth and change. Plans for change in organizational design and structure that were handed down from the top of the bureaucratic structure did not change the actions, images, values, and/or practices associated with the bureaucratic ISA machine, which seemed entrenched in the thinking of many within the organization. While words used and documentation created reflected a desired change in the bureaucratic design and structure, for example, to share decision-making, actions did not seem to reflect such a desired change, and little energy seemed to be invested in constructing a shared sense of the new realities inherent in such a change. For further example, professional development for participants fostered the development of new understandings related to building leadership capacity, yet design and structure of the bureaucracy did not support the new understandings. A gap appeared to exist between perceptions created by 'rhetoric' and perceptions of those within the organization who encountered a different 'reality'.

Full understanding of how to create the desired change and the implications of the desired change may not have been available to administrators in terms of anticipated outcomes for the organizations and/or individuals. Little recognition of developing the right kind of ethos and culture to support building leadership capacity was evident. The number of initiatives undertaken by the previous administration and introduced by the incoming administration in the 2006-2007 school year seemed to work against the desired change by creating a sense of fragmentation and innovation overload (Fullan, 2001b). As a result of the great number of initiatives, the initiatives undertaken lacked depth and coherence and added to the complexity of the challenges within the context of ISA.

Consideration of three interrelated elements impacted by the initiative to build leadership capacity: discourse related to leadership at ISA, the organizational context of ISA, and relationships within ISA, indicated that the initiative did not reach its potential at ISA. The established discourse related to leadership was and remained traditional and hierarchical. Reflective of this and the view of leadership as being individual and authority based, role-based strategies were adopted to develop teacher leadership. As such, focus was placed on creating additional structures within the existing organizational context, maintaining the

traditional, hierarchical and bureaucratic organizational context that did not prove conducive to and could not sustain the development of teacher leadership. Teacher isolation, alienation and disenchantment, low morale, and an excessive number of initiatives competing for teacher time and energy were associated with the organizational context. Relationships were valued at ISA, yet were negatively impacted by the initiative. They were structured according to the hierarchy and were fragmented. Relationship building was seen to relate to advancing favouritism and decreasing trust within the organization. Dynamics evident with the prevailing organizational culture hindered the development of leadership capacity. The design and structure of the bureaucracy produced characteristic values, beliefs, norms and related social practices. It also advanced a passive / defensive culture, characterized by expectations, negativity and priority on tasks not relationships. 'Rhetoric' of building capacity seemed to contrast with the 'reality' of autocratic actions.

A range of perceived factors impacted participants' desire to become and remain part of the initiative to build leadership capacity at ISA. Overall, when reflecting on these factors, the influence of the traditional model of motivation associated with the organizational design and structure of a bureaucracy seemed evident. While administrators perceived themselves as motivated by a desire for professional and personal growth, teachers perceived their working conditions as factors motivating them to avoid participation in the initiative. The perception of working conditions as handed down from above discouraging participation may reflect the degree of autonomy and responsibility given to teachers within the bureaucracy. Teachers were discouraged from participating due to the vast amount of work they perceived generated from higher up the hierarchy, causing them stress and shifting their attention from teaching and learning. Additionally, perceptions of themselves indicated administrators as motivated by the work itself, and teachers motivated by professional and personal growth. Perceptions of positive relationships with their peers and the work itself motivated teachers, while perceptions of expectations perceived from supervisors, a lack of recognition, a lack of genuine responsibility, a lack of trust in their supervisors, and factors in their personal lives, discouraged them.

Administrators were perceived by other administrators to be motivated by the desire for growth and the work itself, expectations from their supervisor, and a sense of responsibility toward the school. Administrators were perceived by teachers to be motivated by the expectation to participate generated by their direct supervisor and by a desire to increase

their status, the desire for growth and the work itself. Teachers were perceived by administrators to be motivated by the desire for growth and by the work itself, expectations from supervisors, and by the desire for recognition and responsibility. They perceived teachers to be discouraged by negative attitudes toward them generated by their peers. Teachers were perceived by other teachers as motivated by desire to increase status and to meet the expectations of their supervisors, the work itself, a desire for growth and a desire to generate positive relationships with their peers. That both administrators and teachers perceive others to be influenced by expectations as a part of relationships with supervisors, may reflect the need to please those further up the hierarchy. That teachers' perceive others to be influenced by status, may also reflect this traditional model of climbing the hierarchy toward status and success.

CHAPTER 6 – CONCLUDING COMMENTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter places the findings of this study within the broader context of international schools generally. The findings from the analysis and interpretation of the data from within the context of ISA have been used to create a framework for introducing and enacting innovations in the international school context. By moving outside the specific ISA case and applying the findings from it to the international school context, key issues related to innovation in international schools have been identified and holistic recommendations to address these issues have been developed. The significance of the study is discussed, limitations of the study are considered and suggestions for further study are given. Finally, a reflection of the researcher's personal growth during the engagement in this study has been included.

6.2 International school context

As in previous chapters, the term 'international school' incorporates a range of diverse schools which vary widely in size, scope, design and intent. The comparatively high rate of turnover for members of the Board of Directors, administrators, teachers and students is a distinctive characteristic of international schools in general. The rate of turnover creates unique considerations for international schools approaching innovation and continuous school improvement. High rates of turnover along with large amounts of ad hoc growth and great diversity add to the challenge of innovation in the international schools context, a context in which innovations are inevitably highly vulnerable.

6.3 Framework for innovations in international schools

Considering the findings of this study within the context of international schools, the following framework provides a possible response to the challenge of innovation in similar international schools and aims to guide the introduction of innovations in them. The framework consists of two parts each of which is divided into a several sub-sections. 'Getting ready' considers aspects of the innovation before it is undertaken, and 'Getting going' considers enacting the innovation.

6.3.1 Part One: Getting ready

Drawing from this study, before any innovation is undertaken in an international school, careful consideration of the unique context into which the innovation will be introduced is needed to develop a deep understanding of it and the challenges it contains. To develop a thorough understanding of the context, five factors should be taken into consideration: history of innovation, prevailing discourses, consistency of the rationale underlying the innovation, resource assessment to support the innovation, and motivation to join and remain part of the innovation.

History of innovation

The history of innovation in relation to school improvement planning in an international school influences the likely success of innovations and continued school improvement in the future at the school. An understanding of the nature of the existing and past innovations is beneficial. An historical overview from multiple perspectives of both administrators and teachers should span a length of time at least equal to the average length of tenure for a teacher at the school. If the historical perspectives can be gathered for a longer period of time, this will be beneficial.

As a starting point to gaining an understanding of this, the history of the content and the intended purpose of the innovations which have been undertaken in the school should be analysed to determine the degree of consistency evident. An assessment to gauge how much change was accomplished in relation to how much innovation was attempted is also necessary. Successive failed attempts at innovation produce indifference or ambivalent tolerance of new innovations, along with a cynical attitude toward innovation. The origins of existing or past innovations should be investigated with particular attention given to two areas. First, whether or not the innovations are/were linked to existing, school-wide processes for school improvement planning, like the accreditation process. Second, the comparative degree to which both teachers and administrators were involved in identifying and prioritizing the innovations. The extent of commitment to and shared understanding of the goals and priorities of existing and past innovations should also be determined. Finally, identifying the number of initiatives undertaken or under way within the length of time determined will give an indication of potential innovation overload and fragmentation.

An international school that has a long history of a multitude of disjointed, failed attempts at top-down innovation will necessarily approach innovation differently from the

international school that has a long history of several cohesive, bottom-up innovations which have been successful.

6.3.2 Prevailing discourses

Administrators and teachers using one discourse, or frame for looking at the world as a way of understanding, or making sense of the world, may act very differently from others who may use an alternative discourse as a way of understanding. If administrators and teachers used only one common discourse for a particular concept there is a greater potential for their actions to consistently promote the kind of contexts needed for successful innovation in international schools. However, discourses are often so entrenched into an individual's perception that shifting them needs consistent effort over long periods of time. The five particular concepts around which one common discourse should develop are: leadership; relationship building; focus on student learning; dialogue, inquiry, and reflective practice; and school improvement planning.

Administrators and teachers should share leadership through working in parallel, sharing power and decision-making and exercising collective accountability (Crowther et al., 2009). The traditional view of leadership identifies leadership as individually based but this ought to be replaced with a view of leadership which identifies it as an organizational property and professional phenomenon. The prevalence of the bureaucratic, hierarchical understanding of leadership may ideally be replaced by an understanding of the need for leadership to be shared.

Relationship building must not be seen as secondary to taking care of practical, structural details associated with growth and change within international schools. Priority needs to be given to relationship building; ensuring that trust, openness and a sense of safety and security are the basis on which relationships are built. Relationships should not be viewed as an end but should be seen as a means of focusing on improving student learning through collaboration and sharing expertise. Shallow relationships influenced by competition within a hierarchy must be replaced with deep relationships based on collaboration and inclusiveness.

It seems obvious that schools should focus on student learning. However, there is a lack of shared understanding about the meaning of focusing on student learning and the importance of such a focus. The focus of energy must shift from management and administration to instruction and learning.

Administrators and teachers must engage in dialogue, inquiry, and reflective practice. Information should not travel from the top of the hierarchy to the bottom without dialogue and inquiry to inform decisions and practice. Blueprints for action around innovation should not be handed down from above without discussion. Administrators and teachers should engage in thinking about their own practice and enable others to think about theirs, as this reflection is a critical source of information to guide continuous improvement.

Administrators need to engage in an approach to school improvement planning that recognizes planning and management as social processes related to guiding organizational energy, acknowledging the importance of human behaviour and motivation (Welton, 2001). The approach to school improvement planning cannot rest solely with administrators at the top of the hierarchy, excluding the voices of the teachers. Further, the approach cannot continue to be linear. In the linear model of planning, administrators identify a vision as an end to be achieved and design the means through which others will achieve the end within a particular time frame. The approach attempts to control and dominate those involved, and fails to acknowledge that planning should be part of a reflective cycle and change cannot be rigidly controlled (Welton, 2001).

Consistent rationale underlying the innovation

The principles underlying an innovation and providing the foundation for it must be jointly developed, clearly and widely understood, and consistent with other innovations. This must be promoted in several ways. Teachers should be genuinely empowered to identify areas of need and to set priorities around innovation. Through dialogue, administrators and teachers need to establish clarity and cohesion around the content and intended outcomes of the proposed innovation and the philosophical agreements underlying the proposed innovation. The proposed innovation should align with existing goals and priorities, to avoid creating instability through the generation of competing goals and priorities.

6.3.3 Resource assessment

The ability of the school to enact innovation is dependent upon the availability of key resources within the school community. Before an innovation gets under way consideration must be given to the availability of key resources. First and foremost, consideration needs to be given to the expertise that already exists within the school to move the innovation forward. Rather than the reliance on costly external consultants, consideration should be given to internal expertise (Fullan, 2001b). Consideration should be given to creating

opportunities for job-embedded professional development. Rather than taking teachers away from their classrooms or taking their time outside working hours for workshops or training conducted by external consultants, job-embedded learning occurs at school when the learning is needed. The purpose of job-embedded learning is inquiry and improvement (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001), so it is directly relevant to individuals, giving them power over their own professional development and engaging them with others. It is also in line with the belief that teacher leaders increase their effectiveness and deepen their practice within the professional communities to which they belong (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c).

Finally, consideration should be given to the time and space available for further innovation. Adding innovations to the already demanding workload for administrators and teachers may prove counter-productive by creating dissatisfying working conditions. Investigations into the history of innovation in the particular context will be relevant when considering the time and space available for innovation.

Motivation

Factors that motivate administrators and teachers to become and remain part of innovation must be clearly understood so that administrators and teachers can be encouraged to join the initiative and to enthusiastically remain part of it. Thus sustained participation in school improvement eventuates. Initially, it is vital to honour and recognize the work that has been done by administrators and teachers in the school over the length of time under consideration. The expertise that has been built around existing and past initiatives should be honoured and recognised, and the teacher leadership that has taken the school to its current stage of development should be celebrated. In essence, administrators and teachers should be recognized for the contributions they have made to existing and past initiatives. Since administrators and teachers are motivated by personal and professional growth, ample opportunities should be available for them to develop.

Since teachers are motivated by opportunities to engage in positive relationships with their peers, ample opportunities for teachers to engage with their peers should be provided. This aligns well with the collaboration and interactions inherent in aspects of the framework already mentioned. For example, distributed leadership, deep relationships based on collaboration and inclusiveness, dialogue, inquiry and reflective practice, and job-embedded professional development all depend on teachers developing relationships with their peers. As teachers are likely to find involvement in these aspects of the framework motivating, they are likely to want to become involved and stay involved with them.

Developing an understanding of the unique context into which an innovation will be launched helps to ensure it will be successful. Consideration of the five factors described in Part One of the framework will help provide an understanding of the particular challenges that the context may contain. When innovation is starting, such consideration is invaluable to develop a realistic perspective of the complexity of the task, identifying particular challenges as well as highlighting potential areas of strength. Additional considerations are necessary when innovations are under way.

6.3.4 Part Two: Getting going

Enacting innovation in an international school is a complex undertaking. This study identified three areas that require particular attention when an innovation is started. Keeping in mind that innovation is a process and not an event, constant attention is beneficial to ensure that the process continues to produce improvement.

Actions evidence a match between 'rhetoric and reality'

Administrators and teachers must act in ways that demonstrate the change in behaviour prompted by the innovation, ensuring that 'rhetoric and reality' match within the organization. Administrators and teachers must 'live' the innovation on a daily basis within the school. It is only in this way that administrators and teachers can truly claim that they are "… changing the way we do things" (Fullan, 2001a, p. 41). It is vital that administrators model commitment to the innovation. Words from an administrator are not as likely to prompt a change in practice for another administrator or a teacher as observing an administrator take the risk of enacting an innovation.

The importance of acting in ways that evidence change also applies to the actions connected to the common discourse around particular concepts as previously outlined. For example, actions which indicate a regard for building positive relationships are far more persuasive than words describing a conviction about the importance of relationships, and actions which show the sharing of leadership are far more convincing than words that promote the importance of shared leadership.

Monitoring through reflection

Continuous monitoring is needed to ensure that the innovation is enacted as intended and to track the impact of the innovation on the organization. Engaging in individual and collective reflective practice involves asking evaluative questions as a means of monitoring

that the innovation continues to be enacted as intended. Reflecting on and thinking through the dissonances that inevitably arise between the theory of an innovation and the reality of putting it into action is critical (Owens & Valesky, 2007). This takes time and deliberate attention. Any innovation will manifest differently in any given organizational context. While experience is valuable to apply to any situation, assumptions and predictions as to how the innovation will manifest should be avoided. Additional information or insights may be needed before actions and practice are adjusted and improved accordingly.

Since innovations unfold in unpredictable ways and cannot be predestined, administrators and teachers should expect the unexpected in all areas of the organization. When the unexpected occurs, it should not be a surprise. The unexpected should be regarded as a valuable source of learning. Reflective consideration needs to be given to the unexpected, and to the factors around it that have impacted and been impacted by it. In anticipation of the unexpected and the unpredicted, caution needs to be taken against the danger of self-generating beliefs that remain untested (Senge, 2000). During the process of reflection, judgement needs to be suspended. Senge (2000) warns that beliefs are often adopted because they are based on conclusions, which are inferred from what has been observed and from past experiences. Acting on such beliefs before reflecting on them could lead to actions based on poor or incomplete knowledge of what is really occurring. Time should be spent in deliberate inquiry testing inferences, assumptions and generalizations before conclusions about what is really happening as a result of the innovation are determined (Senge, 2006).

Since planning and management should not be viewed as linear, but should be seen as processes of successive approximations, both courage and time are needed to respond to the gap between intent and outcome of an innovation (Welton, 2001). Courage allows administrators and teachers to be flexible when responding to any new conditions that may have developed and sufficient time is needed to pay attention to the processes of implementation. As well as being genuinely empowered to identify areas of need and to set priorities around innovation, teachers should be genuinely empowered to respond to the change dynamics as the innovation evolves.

Shared leadership

Enacting innovation is dependent upon administrators and teachers working and learning together and sharing leadership responsibilities (Lambert, 2003). Since teachers represent the most stable group of adults and the most politically powerful in schools (Lambert,

2003), their involvement as leaders in enacting innovation is critical. Crowther et al. (2002) call for a new paradigm of leadership, "… one that recognizes the central place of teachers" (p. 27).

The involvement of teachers in innovation should not be limited by hierarchical, dependent relationships in which leadership remains with the few at the top. Administrators cannot expect to continue functioning from the top of the hierarchy, instructing others to implement innovation along a pre-determined path. Teachers cannot be expected to carry out predetermined, designated actions but should enact innovation through dense networks of reciprocal relationships in which leadership is shared (Lambert et al., 1996). In other words, mutualistic leadership relationships, through which teachers and administrators share responsibility for agreed upon school outcomes, are vital to successful school improvement (Crowther et al., 2002). Further, such mutualistic leadership relationships have the potential to offer greater sustainability of school reform and improvement (Murphy, 2005).

As Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) explain, the professionalization of teaching shifted attention from the technical model of teaching that reflected bureaucratic assumptions, for example, that approaches to curriculum should be mandated and the implementation controlled, and that teachers could not improve their own teaching. Continued attention needs to be given to honouring the intelligence and abilities of teachers as professionals (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001), acknowledging their influence beyond individual classrooms (Crowther et al., 2002) and acknowledging their desire to exercise and develop this expertise. The maturity and sophistication characteristic of contemporary teaching needs to be recognized (Crowther et al., 2002).

In summary, the framework for innovations in international schools responds to the challenge of innovation in them by providing a structure to guide considerations before the innovation is undertaken and when the innovation is enacted. Before innovations are undertaken at an international school, aspects to consider are the history of innovation, prevailing discourses, consistency of rationale underlying the innovation, resources available to support the innovation, and motivation to join and remain part of the innovation. When an innovation has been initiated, actions which evidence a match between 'rhetoric and reality,' monitoring through reflection, and shared leadership are considerations to help ensure that the process continues to produce involvement.

6.4 Significant issues and recommendations

In using the framework to reflect upon innovation in an international school context, significant issues related to innovation in international schools have been identified. After careful consideration of those issues, holistic recommendations have been developed to respond to the issues.

School improvement planning

The history of innovation at the school is likely to reveal that school improvement planning is focused at the top of the hierarchy. The director and other central administrators, perhaps influenced by the Board of Directors, determine an approach to school improvement planning, setting priorities and determining actions for implementation. With turnover of people in these key roles, school improvement planning and plans change. The content and purpose of the innovations are likely to change, and some innovations under way are likely to be dropped and others adopted. It is unlikely that many of the innovations attempted have existed for long enough to have found success.

Layered over the top of this are the school improvement processes mandatory for the school in relation to accreditation. The accreditation process has the potential to serve "… as a vehicle to move school community members into meaningful school wide improvement and accountability" (WASC, 2006, p. v).

The outcome of this approach to school improvement planning is likely to be linked to fragmentation and innovation overload (Fullan, 2001b).

Recommendation 1:

The school improvement processes identified by the accreditation agency could provide the focus of the school improvement planning. As the international school sector continues to grow, emphasis on aspects of quality assurance such as accreditation of the school itself is likely to increase (Hayden, 2006). The accreditation process certifies to the public that the school is a trustworthy institution, validates the integrity of the curriculum and student transcripts, and confirms that the school undertakes continual self-analysis as a means of school improvement. The planning for accreditation is cyclical and lasts beyond the tenure of a superintendent and other senior administrators. It is research based and regularly reviewed, so is not dependent upon the style, expertise or interests of a director or superintendent. It involves teachers in self-directed problem-solving and provides the

opportunity for dialogue, collaboration and shared decision-making. It has the potential to become known in the community and to diminish both the influence of turnover of senior administration and innovation overload. There is also the potential for administrators and teachers to use the knowledge and expertise developed through their involvement in the process in other international schools which follow the same accreditation protocol.

Focusing on the processes identified by the accreditation agency is a means of replacing "… superficial adoption and disconnected cycles of change" (Fullan, 2001b, p. 27) with an approach to school improvement planning that can promote coherence and shared understandings.

Persistence of traditional discourse of leadership

Rethinking leadership in schools is a crucial first step in moving toward shared, ongoing, and sustainable school improvement (Copland, 2003). It is advisable for administrators and school board members to move beyond the traditional discourse of leadership. For innovation to be sustained, administrators and school board members may need to release leadership from the top of the hierarchy and distribute it throughout the school. It may not be advisable for the power of decision making and of holding others accountable to reside solely with the few at the top. Rather, decision-making could be shared and collective accountability could be exercised. Fullan (2001a) advises that, to be effective leaders, administrators "… must produce leadership in others" (p. 137).

Recommendation 2:

Administrators and school board members may be well advised to explore management theory and leadership theory, developing a shared understanding of the paradigm of shared leadership. Embedded professional development, allowing administrators and school board members to learn in context in the "dailiness" (Fullan, 2001a, p. 133) of organizational life may be beneficial to change their mindsets in this regard. Reflective dialogue, modelling and mentoring could be part of professional development. Administrators and school board members could move toward parallel leadership, developing mutualistic leadership relationships, sharing responsibility for school outcomes (Crowther et al., 2002).

Monitoring the impact of an initiative

Regardless of the noble intentions behind an innovation and the solid philosophical ground on which it is developed, innovations create impacts within all sections of an organization

and it is advisable that these impacts be known and understood. It may not be in the school's best interests to assume that the innovation is unfolding in all sections of the organization in similar ways. Dramatically different perspectives of the successes and impacts of innovation may not be constructive. Monitoring could be beneficial if it took place "early and often," sharing findings and insights with everyone involved (Fullan, 2001b, p. 73).

Recommendation 3:

Perception data could be collected from all sections of the organization in relation to the successes and impacts of the innovation. Reflection could be based around the organization's movement toward the desired goals and intended outcomes, and could prompt constant adjustments to actions in response to new insights gained.

Using financial and human resources effectively and respectfully

The financial resources applied toward professional development need careful consideration. Since adult learning occurs best through plenty of opportunity to practice the new learning in a real setting, often in collaboration with colleagues (Academy of International School Heads, 2006), financial resources may not be wisely spent on external consultants. The nature of the learning promoted by external consultants may be restricted to informational learning rather than focusing on transformative learning, and may involve only one section of the school rather than all sections of the school (Henton, personal communication, March, 2009). The school may expend substantial financial resources on developing individuals within the school, without influencing the development of the school as an organization overall.

Teachers are valuable human resources. Expectations for changed performance without providing time to practise and reflect may increase frustration amongst teachers which may eventually lead to disengagement and disillusionment. Innovation may best focus on a limited number of priority areas only and structures could exist to provide time to teachers to engage in growth and new learning.

Personal and professional growth is a key motivator for both administrators and teachers, so focusing attention upon it may be beneficial in gaining involvement and support for innovation.

Recommendation 4:

The principles of adult learning could form the basis of professional development to support sustainable school improvement. For administrators and teachers alike, job-embedded learning opportunities relying on day-to-day experiences as the focus of the learning may be most beneficial. All sections of the organization could engage in transformative learning, as "one part of the organization cannot sustain its learning unless other parts of the system also learn" (Henton, personal communication, March 2009). All involved in innovation may need time to allow for the opportunity to practise the new learning, reflect on it, and dialogue around it.

Recruitment, succession planning and induction planning

Given the rate of turnover in administration and teachers, careful attention may need to be given to recruitment, succession planning and induction planning. Recruitment could focus upon identifying excellent administrators and teachers who have experience in the innovations already underway at the school and who can add value to the school improvement processes already in place. It may not be beneficial for recruitment to focus on identifying excellent administrators and teachers who are experienced in a range of innovations which do not align with the innovations already underway at the school. Those new to the organization could share in the collective responsibility for the ongoing change that is underway in the school, rather than introducing alternative innovations that contradict or dilute innovations underway.

When an administrator or teacher, who has been involved in leading an initiative, leaves the school careful attention to a succession plan may be needed. Focus at succession is often on information exchange only, with little attention given to developing shared understandings of why things happened in the way they did, or initiating relationships with others involved.

Induction into the school is often viewed as an event rather than as a process that takes place over a period of time. Again, the focus of induction is frequently on providing information only, rather than on developing shared understandings of innovation underway and in initiating relationships with others.

Recommendation 5:

Processes related to recruitment, succession and initiation may need to focus on ways of developing shared understandings of innovations under way and ways of facilitating the

development of relationships amongst those involved. Recruiters may need to identify administrators and teachers who will add value to existing school improvement processes. Administrators and teachers moving out of and into the school may need opportunities to develop shared understandings of the innovations underway, and to initiate relationships with others involved in the innovation.

Prioritize relationship building

Owens and Valesky, (2007) state "… organizations, after all, especially educational organizations, are human endeavours" (p. 111) and therefore, cannot be reduced to mechanistic systems focused on simplicity, precision, system, order, and certainty. Some aspects of the context of international schools create a tendency to give priority to mechanistic systems rather than to human endeavours such as relationship building. For example, rapid growth, bringing with it the need to expand facilities and add faculty, and high rates of turnover may cause administrators to give priority to systems to deal with the growth and the turnover rather than to prioritizing the development and maintenance of relationships throughout the school. Rationalization for this follows the line of argument that priority can be given to relationships after the growth phase, and the building program phase are completed and the systems are functioning well.

The tendency to focus on systems rather than relationship building may influence the attention given to structural conditions over human resources. Attention to structural conditions like time to meet and talk, physical proximity, interdependent teaching roles, communication structures, and teacher empowerment is important. However, attention to human resources such as openness to improvement, trust and respect, teachers having knowledge and skills, supportive leadership, socialization, is more critical to innovation (Kruse et al., 1994).

Recommendation 6:

With the clear understanding that international schools are human endeavors, priority may need to remain focused on the human resources involved in relationship building. Constant attention may need to be given to developing and maintaining a culture in which positive relationships can thrive, despite aspects of the context of international schools that may make this challenging.

Positive relationships with peers are key motivators for teachers to engage in innovation

Teachers value the opportunity for conversations and dialogue and this serves as a key motivator for them to engage in innovation. They see hope in, and are passionate about, engaging with others in learning. Outside formal structures, teachers develop networks to find support and meaning through relationships with others. Despite the role-based emphasis on developing teacher leadership, teachers articulate and demonstrate strong interest in community-based approaches to developing teacher leadership.

Teachers have a strong interest in moving away from a focus on management and leadership toward a focus for teacher leadership in teaching, instruction and student learning.

Recommendation 7:

The opportunity for conversation and dialogue served as a key motivator and the power of this source of motivation could be harnessed. Fostering the further development of positive relationships with peers may have potential for the successful development of teacher leadership in international schools through community-based approaches. This carries implications for discourse about leadership in international schools, and is related to the need for administrators to move beyond the traditional discourse of leadership.

6.5 Significance of findings

Within the international school context, much innovation is taking place (Hayden, 1998). Even though there is little literature specifically related to this specific context, there is a large amount of innovation being undertaken in international schools worldwide (Hayden, 1998). This study contributes to the literature in this area by developing a framework for thinking about and enacting innovation in an international school context. The significant issues related to innovation in international schools and the holistic recommendations determined to respond to the issues are also contributions to the literature in this area. The complexity of the international school context, in particular the high rates of turnover amongst administrators and teachers, intensifies the complexity of sustaining innovations that leads to long-term school improvement.

Because of the highly complex nature of international schools, long-term planning is absolutely essential (Nelson, 2000). The literature surrounding the benefits of accreditation in international schools includes a range of reasons for involvement. For example, the

process is seen to create an action plan for the school in the short and long term, and to provide a guide for new administrators and teachers in their first years at the school (Murphy, 1998). However, the literature does not provide a view of accreditation as a means of long-term planning to mitigate against the complexity of the international school context, in particular the high rates of turnover amongst administrators and teachers.

The two-factor theory of motivation developed by Herzberg (1959) identified factors in the work place which consistently related to job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. 'Satisfiers' were related to intrinsic factors, while 'dissatisfiers' related to extrinsic factors, and these were seen to operate along a dual continuum such that the opposite of 'satisfaction' was 'no satisfaction' and the opposite of 'dissatisfaction' was 'no dissatisfaction' (Robbins et al., 2004). While 'satisfiers' could lead to true motivation, attention to 'dissatisfiers' could only reduce dissatisfaction rather than lead to satisfaction. When Sergiovanni (1966) replicated the study, he confirmed the general tenor of the work (Robbins et al., 2004). Herzberg (1959) and Sergiovanni (1966) identified interpersonal relationships with peers as a 'dissatisfier'. In his study, Sergiovanni (1966) noted that teachers "… responded infrequently to interaction with fellow teachers as being sources of high or low job feelings" (p. 42). It is a significant finding in this study that teachers identified interactions with their peers as a strong positive influence motivating them to take part in innovation. Relationships with peers appeared to function more as a 'satisfier' for teachers in this study than as a 'dissatisfier'. The evidence of positive relationships with peers seemed to provide true motivation for teachers rather than only reducing dissatisfaction. Knowledge of this may serve to provide insights as to how to more effectively engage teachers in innovation in an international school context.

6.6 Limitations of the study

The initiative to develop leadership capacity was launched in August 2006 and data were collected from November 2007 to June 2008. Essentially, the impact of the initiative was considered after two full school years. It may have been beneficial for consideration of the initiative to have taken place over a longer time period as insights shared may have intensified with time.

While the researcher took steps to counter the potential difficulties generally associated with conducting "backyard research" (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992), questions may be raised as to the trustworthiness of the researcher's observations and insights. As explained fully, in

Chapter 3, multiple strategies were employed to create confidence in the accuracy of the findings.

This study represented the researcher's first attempt at completing a case study. Well aware of the caution offered by Yin (2003) that "… we have little way of screening or testing for an investigator's ability to do good case studies" (p. 57), the researcher has continually reflected upon the application of the comprehensive research strategy and the set of pre-specified procedures that relate to case studies.

The recommendations made in this study are most relevant to international schools that are broadly similar to ISA. It is beyond the scope of the study to generalize to all international schools.

6.7 Suggestions for further investigations

As the number of international schools continues to grow and as international schools continue to spread throughout the world, a greater understanding of their context is needed. While this study intends to provide some insight into the international school context, it also indicates opportunities for further investigations into that context.

The American school system provided the context for Lambert (2003) to develop the Leadership Capacity Matrix (p. 5) and the District Leadership Capacity Matrix (p. 81). Within this context, the relationship between the principal and the district administrators in building district leadership capacity is described and recommendations for acts of superintendent leadership are outlined. Within an international school context, however, further investigation is needed into the typical relationship between the principal and the central administrators in regard to building school-wide leadership capacity, and into the ways in which superintendents and directors demonstrate leadership to promote school-wide leadership capacity.

Focus has been given to the challenges faced by principals in nurturing teacher leadership in national school systems and the leadership relationships between principals and teachers have been explored (Crowther et al., 2002; Crowther et al., 2009; Lambert, 2003; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Further investigation is needed into the extent to which the roles of principals in national school systems are consistent with the roles of principals in the international school context. Insight is needed into the challenges faced by principals in

nurturing teacher leadership in international schools and into the leadership relationships between principals and teachers in international schools.

Herzberg (1959) investigated general attitudes to their work held by accountants and engineers and Sergiovanni (1966) replicated the approach taken by Herzberg to explore the general attitudes to their work held by teachers. The purpose of his study was to test Herzberg's findings with teachers and 127 teachers from the suburban teacher population of Monroe County, New York participated in the study. There would be value in investigating the job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction factors in the work situation of teachers in international schools. Testing Sergiovanni's findings with teachers in the international school context could provide insights into the factors with motivate teachers to become and remain international school teachers.

Investigation into the expectations and assumptions surrounding recruitment of administrators in international schools is needed. If administrators are recruited with the expectation that they will operate independently, coming into the school to 'make things happen,' this will have a significant impact on ongoing, sustainable improvement in international schools. Without an expectation that administrators should focus upon innovations already underway at the school and upon adding value to the school improvement processes already in place, large amounts of financial and human resources will continue to be expended for little return to the schools.

6.8 Personal Reflection

Looking back to August, 2006 when the initiative to build leadership capacity was launched at ISA, I can confidently state that I had absolutely no idea of the learning that was to make up my dissertation journey. Assumptions have been questioned and layers of deep comprehension have been added to concepts that I have long known and presumed to have understood. Yet, my learning journey has consisted of much more, and has brought a profound richness to my professional life and has enhanced my capacity as a principal.

Prior to the start of my journey, I had never regularly kept a journal of any kind and was not familiar with the term 'reflexive journal'. Thinking back over my journey, I am struck by the significanct role that journaling has had in my learning process. My journal promoted a habit of questioning and reflecting to which I was not accustomed. As a practitioner-researcher, it provided a mechanism by which my role as a researcher could interact with my role as a principal. I was unaware of the tremendous power of reflection and the

importance of continuous inquiry and reflection as a part of professional practice. Yet, I was oblivious to the potential for the reflections to lead to altered dispositions that would inform my actions as a principal in my work space in the future. I can identify an assortment of memories that indicate the ways in which my reflection has been invaluable to my learning and to my development as a professional through the course of this study.

To illustrate this, I have a multitude of examples that could be provided from a range of sources. Interaction with others, email exchanges, face-to-face conversations, and exchanges during meetings prompted my reflection. I have selected several treasured memories from telephone conversations that I had with my two supervisors. Comments would be made or questions asked during those conversations that would haunt me. Resultant reflections would finally find their way into my journal where they were interrogated further.

Often during the telephone conversations I would be surprised by what I heard myself saying. On hearing my announcement to my supervisors that, "Oh, my data are so emotional!" I wondered the extent to which the expressions on their faces were registering dismay and disbelief. The word emotional did not seem to be the correct word to end the statement, yet I had pronounced it with conviction. It would have seemed more appropriate to have chosen a word like inspiring, comprehensive, or descriptive. Contemplation on this word choice finally led me to the resolve that my data were indeed moving and engaging in several very real ways. Through journaling, I pondered, "Why am I finding my data emotional? What is making it emotional for me? Should it be emotional? What if it wasn't?"

My data captured the fervour of the participants for the work in which they were engaged. I was at times in awe at the intensity with which participants expressed their convictions and shared their perspectives. The participants who delivered the data earned my respect for their enthusiasm and convictions. Data delivered with such zeal demanded sensitivity in interpretation, and gentle deeper probing. It necessitated my authentic engagement in return, and this provided energy to puzzle and prod to seek understanding.

I gradually realized that the emotional quality of my data was compelling me to seek a broad understanding of the dynamics at play and to earnestly try to identify what was happening within the organization to produce the data. My emotions were stirred by the data because I cared about the people in the organization who provided me with the data. I cared about the dreams and ideals to which the administrators clung. I cared about the

frustrations that the teachers expressed. I cared about the efforts that administrators and teachers made to affect improvement in student learning, and about the energy they'd invested in supporting various innovations over the years. I felt that I owed them an explanation of why ISA was as it was. I wanted to provide a sense of hope and optimism that there were ways to do things differently that could both sustain innovation and lead to genuine improvement, and create positive energy. To achieve this I needed to acknowledge the importance of the emotions connected to my data and step away from it to view it in a fair and impartial way. To achieve this, a frequent question that I posed to myself in my journal became, "Why do I think that?"

From my initial amazement at having described my data as emotional, I've gained an appreciation of the importance of the emotional value of information exchanged. I intend this awareness to motivate me to care about the feelings -- dreams, ideals, frustrations -- of those with whom I work. To care, I now understand that I need to seek fair and impartial understanding of dynamics at play and to seek different ways to approach my work that will lead to sustained innovation and genuine improvement, and that will create positive energy. In this way, efforts and energy expended are honoured.

The passions expressed in the data were often at opposing ends of a continuum. Intense satisfaction rested alongside smouldering frustration. Pride for some balanced the disappointment of others. Connectedness countered disillusionment. This frequently left me marvelling at the multiplicity of emotions expressed and wondering how the diversity served the participants, either moving them forward or simply exhausting them. My perspective had not encompassed an appreciation for the diverse interpretations of reality that existed within the organisation. I was at times consumed in deliberating how people working in the same organization could develop such diverse perspectives? I also marvelled at how such a multiplicity could have existed without my prior knowledge of it. My journal forced me to let go of my assumption of uniformity and to 'see' situations from a variety of points of view. Journaling moved me out of my complacency, and forced me to accept the diversity in my reality. I will continue using a journal for this purpose.

Questions posed by my supervisors during telephone conferences were also sources of reflection. "But don't you think people should be happy in their workplace?" asked one of the supervisors. The question was raised in view of a statement in the data made by the Director, "I think we are a healthier organization … whether or not people are happy, I don't know – but I think our culture being focused on student learning is certainly coming in

to focus." I laughed casually in response to the question, but would have rather shouted, "Well, of course!" My supervisor was unaware that I have long used a simple motto with teachers, parents, and students that, "Everyone has the right to come to school happy and to go home satisfied." My motto was quoted back to me in my data several times. I had so frequently and so publicly declared my 'happiness motto' that discovering the complexities around bringing it to reality was compelling. My supervisor was unaware of just how important workplace happiness was for me as a professional and how disturbing I found the data that signaled its absence. My quest to interpret my data and to try to understand the dynamic of the organization was fuelled by a desire to understand the complexities sufficiently to determine whether my 'happiness motto' could ever be publicly stated again. I tried to imagine how it would feel for frustrated or dissatisfied teachers to hear me announce my belief that they had the right to arrive at school happy and to leave at the end of the day feeling satisfied.

Through journaling, I identified three key areas of learning related to the question posed by my supervisor. Firstly, I may need to avoid well intended, overly simplified generalizations that may make others feel uncomfortable. Consequently, I have extended my motto to include a qualifier that encourages anyone who is not arriving happy or leaving satisfied to be active in identifying why, and to talk to me or someone else who can help change that reality. Secondly, I need to act in ways that allow my intentions to become shared reality. Simply intending happiness and satisfaction will not create them. I noted in the framework for innovations in international schools that there needs to be a match between 'rhetoric and reality' when enacting innovation. This same match needs to exist for whatever I intend. My investigations have left me with a clear understanding that mutualistic leadership relationships will lead to the levels of happiness and satisfaction that I intend. Therefore, I must not only speak about them but act in ways that will create them. Finally, I realized the need to constantly monitor the extent to which any of my intentions are evidenced. One of my final recommendations suggested the need to monitor the impact of an initiative. In a similar manner, it became evident to me that I constantly need to monitor the extent to which my intentions are evidenced. Collecting perception data related to my intentions would be beneficial in assessing the extent to which they are evidenced. During my study, my journal frequently contained the questions, "I wonder how that could be perceived by others?" and "Where are the hidden complexities?" In the future, I intend my journal to include these and other questions to continually reflect on and monitor my

environment to assess how closely my words and actions match and to determine how my intentions are impacting it.

On many occasions, I was grateful for the advice offered by my supervisors in regard to my writing. One particular piece of advice had significant impact not only on my writing but also on a previously unquestioned perspective. While encouraging me to present my data in a manner which would engage readers, one of the supervisors suggested, “Approach this as a novelist would.” However, she quickly added a proviso, “But remember you’re not writing a detective novel or a crime thriller!” With my ‘Agatha Christie’ like perspective, I returned to my data to reflect on where the intrigue and mystery lay with my findings. I was fascinated, and I found my data to be captivating. Initially, I was inadvertently in search of perpetrators of evil, and somewhere to attribute blame. Over time, however, I became aware that conspiracy and deception were not evident at all, and that all of the participants were genuine in their intent. I found it theoretically sound to adopt the perspective of social constructionism. Nevertheless, I found it difficult in concrete terms not to assert a verdict. The advice not only influenced my writing style but also heightened my awareness that there was no definitive solution to be found, no culprit to be identified, and no judgements to be made in terms of right or wrong. “Be careful, Agatha!” was a caution I offered to myself regularly. Moreover, it is one which I propose to continue using to alert myself to the complexity of views inevitable amongst a collection of people with different backgrounds, experiences, and cultures, and to the need to avoid determining verdicts and handing down sentences.

The first time one of my supervisors suggested, “You need to find a theory,” I captured in my journal the reflection, “But, I thought I’d already found one!” At first encounter, the suggestion sounded straightforward and harmless enough. I’d always considered myself to be a reflective practitioner, up-to-date with current developments. As I set out on the task, I had no idea that it would take me weeks to identify a suitable theory to apply to the particular aspects of my findings in question. In that time, I’d read widely, and anguished over issues of conceptualization. I’d found a theory and I’d also found that the theory brought a host of additional insights and considerations. So, I was satisfied with the outcome. Yet, the second time my supervisor made the same suggestion in relation to a different aspect of my findings; I approached the task with trepidation, concerned at the length of time it would take me to find a suitable theory and fearful of expending the energy needed to conceptualize the theory in relation to my findings.

Over time, I came to dread certain telephone conversations with my supervisors when I knew I'd be hearing about the need for a theory. Each time the suggestion was made, I knew it would certainly involve me in additional weeks of toil and agony as I'd conceptualize and re-conceptualize. It was not until I heard myself say to a colleague that we'd need to find a theory to help us move forward with a specific work place dilemma that I realized something had changed. Somehow, I'd grown to associate with the perspective offered by Owens and Valesky (2007) that theory is crucial in shaping our everyday perception and understanding of commonplace events. Without my journal capturing my reflection and without the assortment of theories challenging my concepts I would not have moved "… beyond the simple cause and effect logic [to discover] complex interrelated sets of variables" (Owens & Valesky, 2007, p. 125) that were part of my context.

My journal contained many musings related to the disparity between theory and practice that was at times evident in my context. If I was a reflective practitioner in the past, I'd become a very different kind of reflective practitioner as a result of the prompting my supervisor repeatedly provided "to find a theory." As I approach my work in the future, I'll be engaging with theory and research as well as practice (Lieberman & Miller, 2008c). A journal will help me look for the dissonances between theory and practice, and help promote harmony between espoused theory and theory-in-use (DuFour et al., 2006). I have learned the value of continuous inquiry and reflection as a part of professional practice.

I will continue my involvement within the international school context in the role of principal for many years to come. However, from the experience I've gained from my engagement in this study, my involvement will be significantly different. At the time of writing this reflection, I am months away from starting a new job as principal at an international school outside Asia. The framework for innovations in international schools will guide my engagement with innovation and the recommendations offered will guide my practice. For example, I'm in the process of designing mechanism to gather perception data regarding the nature of the existing and past innovations within the division in which I'll be working. As a further example, I've already contacted the regional representative for one of the key accreditation agencies in the region to engage in dialogue around the prominence of the accreditation process in relation to school improvement planning. Additionally, the journal that I've already begun is scattered with concerns of how best to approach and prioritize relationship building in the opening of the school year.

This learning has been transformative.

6.9 Final Statement

Focusing on the initiative to build leadership capacity through the development of teacher leaders, this study contributes to research within the international school context. Findings from within the context of one international school were placed in the broader, context of international schools in general. To enhance the possibilities of sustaining initiatives in international schools, a framework for innovations to be used when initiating and enacting innovations was developed, and holistic recommendations relating to key issues regarding innovations were made. While the framework and the recommendations contribute in meaningful and practical ways to research in the international school context, the study also provides direction for further investigations, dialogue, and discovery.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX 1 – EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED

A – Questionnaire sent to teachers who started at ISA before or during August 2006

Part one: Select from the choices available.

1. Gender:

   Female

   Male

2. Nationality:

   American

   Australian

   British

   Canadian

   Chinese

   New Zealander

   Other: Please Specify

3. Highest degree completed:

   Bachelor Degree

   Master Degree

   Doctoral Degree

4. Highest degree completed awarded from:

   America

   Australia

   Britain

   Canada

   China

   New Zealand

   Other Country: Please Specify

5. Number of years as an educator:

1 – 3 years

4 – 6 years

7 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

13 – 15 years

16 – 18 years

19 – 21 years

22 – 24 years

25 – 27 years

28 – 29 years

30 or more years

6. Number of years of employment at ISA:

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10 or more

7. Please identify the ways(s) in which you are currently or have been last year part of the initiative to build leadership capacity (Please choose all that apply): Leadership role with stipend (e.g. grade level leader, team leader, department chair)

Leadership role without stipend (e.g. divisional representative on a school-wide committee or task force, specialist representative to divisional leadership team)

Participant in Critical Friends Training

Lead a Critical Friends Group

Took part in school sponsored professional development supporting teacher leadership (e.g. Daisy Jones' Workshop September 2006)

No specific active engagement at this time

Other: Please Specify

8. Campus and division:

South High School

South Middle School

South Elementary School

North High School

North Middle School

North Elementary School

9. Open ended questions on this questionnaire were completed to which degree:

Fully

Partially

Not at all

Part two: Please enter your responses below. Your text will be recorded, even if it extends beyond the size of the textbox provided and is hidden from your view.

10. In general, from your perspective, what has happened in the school as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity?

11. As a result of this initiative, what changes have you observed amongst members of the administrative team?

12. As a result of this initiative, what changes have you observed amongst teachers in general?

13. What do you think has helped you and/or other develop as a teacher leader since August 2006? What examples can you give?

14. What is your understanding of the way leadership currently operates at ISA?

15. Since the initiative began, do you think there have been any changes to the way leadership operates at ISA? Please explain.

16. What changes in the way leadership currently operates would you like to see in the future?

17. What aspects of the school are changing and/or have changed as a result of the initiative?

18. In what ways have relationships in the school changed as a result of the initiative in the school overall?

19. In what ways have relationships in the division where you work changed as a result of the initiative?

20. If you're currently engaged in the initiative, what motivates you to be part of the initiative? If you're not currently engaged, what would motivate you to become engaged?

21. What do you think motivates other teachers to be part of the initiative?

22. What do you think motivates administrators to be part of the initiative?

B – Questionnaire sent to teachers who started at ISA in August 2007

Part one: Select from the choices available.

1. Gender:

   Female

   Male

2. Nationality:

   American

   Australian

   British

   Canadian

   Chinese

   New Zealander

   Other: Please Specify

3. Highest degree completed:

   Bachelor Degree

   Master Degree

   Doctoral Degree

4. Highest degree completed awarded from:

   America

   Australia

   Britain

Canada

China

New Zealand

Other Country: Please Specify

5. Number of years as an educator:

1 – 3 years

4 – 6 years

7 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

13 – 15 years

16 – 18 years

19 – 21 years

22 – 24 years

25 – 27 years

28 – 29 years

30 or more years

6. Please identify the ways(s) in which you are currently or have been last year part of the initiative to build leadership capacity: (Please choose all that apply):

Leadership role with stipend (e.g. grade level leader, team leader, department chair)

Leadership role without stipend (e.g. divisional representative on a school-wide committee or task force, specialist representative to divisional leadership team)

Participant in Critical Friends Training

Lead a Critical Friends Group

Took part in school sponsored professional development supporting teacher leadership (e.g. Daisy Jones' Workshop September 2006)

No specific active engagement at this time

Other: Please Specify

7. Campus and division:

South High School

South Middle School

South Elementary School

North High School

North Middle School

North Elementary School

8. Open ended questions on this questionnaire were completed to which degree:

Fully

Partially

Not at all

Part two: Please enter your responses below. Your text will be recorded, even if it extends beyond the size of the textbox provided and is hidden from your view.

9. In general, from your perspective, what has happened in the school as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity?

10. What have you observed amongst members of the administrative team that may be a result of this initiative?

11. What have you observed amongst teachers in general that may be a result of this initiative?

12. What do you think has helped others at ISA develop as a teacher leader? What examples can you give?

13. What do you think could help you develop as a teacher leader at ISA?

14. From your experience to date, what is your understanding of the way leadership currently operates at ISA?

15. Do you have any impression that there have been any significant changes in the way leadership operates now at ISA and how it operated prior to the start of the initiative? Please explain.

16. What changes in the way leadership currently operates would you like to see in the future?

17. Do you perceive any aspects of the school are changing as a result of the initiative? Please explain.

18. Do you perceive that relationships in the school changed as a result of the initiative in the school overall? Please explain.

19. Do you perceive that relationships in the division in which you work are changing as a result of the initiative? Please explain.

20. If you're currently engaged in the initiative, what motivates you to be part of the initiative? If you're not currently engaged, what would motivate you to become engaged?

21. What do you think motivates other teachers to be part of the initiative?

22. What do you think motivates administrators to be part of the initiative?

C – Questionnaire sent to administrators who started at ISA before or during August 2006

Part one: Select from the choices available.

1. Gender:

   Female

   Male

2. Nationality:

   American

   Australian

   British

   Canadian

   Chinese

   New Zealander

   Other: Please Specify

3. Highest degree completed:

   Bachelor Degree

   Master Degree

   Doctoral Degree

4. Highest degree completed awarded from:

   America

   Australia

   Britain

   Canada

   China

   New Zealand

   Other Country: Please Specify

5. Number of years as an educator:

1 – 3 years

4 – 6 years

7 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

13 – 15 years

16 – 18 years

19 – 21 years

22 – 24 years

25 – 27 years

28 – 29 years

30 or more years

6. Number of years of employment at ISA:

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10 or more

7. Campus and division:

South High School

South Middle School

South Elementary School

North High School

North Middle School

North Elementray School

8. Open ended questions on this questionnaire were completed to which degree:

Fully

Partially

Not at all

Part two: Please enter your responses below. Your text will be recorded, even if it extends beyond the size of the textbox provided and is hidden from your view.

9. In general, from your perspective, what has happened in the school as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity?
10. As a result of this initiative, what changes have you observed amongst your colleagues in the administrative team?
11. As a result of this initiative, what changes have you observed amongst teachers?
12. What do you think has helped teacher leaders develop as a since August 2006? What examples can you give?
13. What is your understanding of the way leadership currently operates at ISA?
14. Since the initiative began, do you think there have been any changes to the way leadership operates at ISA? Please explain.
15. What changes in the way leadership currently operates would you like to see in the future?
16. What aspects of the school are changing and/or have changed as a result of the initiative?
17. In what ways have relationships in the school changed as a result of the initiative in the school overall?
18. In what ways have relationships in the division for which you are responsible changed as a result of the initiative?
19. What motivates you to be part of the initiative?
20. What do you think motivates other administrators to be part of the initiative?
21. What do you think motivates teachers to be part of the initiative?

D – Questionnaire sent to administrators who started at ISA in August 2007

Part one: Select from the choices available.

1. Gender:

   Female

   Male

2. Nationality:

   American

   Australian

   British

   Canadian

   Chinese

   New Zealander

   Other: Please Specify

3. Highest degree completed:

   Bachelor Degree

   Master Degree

   Doctoral Degree

4. Highest degree completed awarded from:

   America

   Australia

   Britain

   Canada

   China

   New Zealand

   Other Country: Please Specify

5. Number of years as an educator:

   1 – 3 years

   4 – 6 years

   7 – 9 years

   10 – 12 years

   13 – 15 years

   16 – 18 years

19 – 21 years

22 – 24 years

25 – 27 years

28 – 29 years

30 or more years

6. Campus and division:

South High School

South Middle School

South Elementary School

North High School

North Middle School

North Elementary School

7. Open ended questions on this questionnaire were completed to which degree:

Fully

Partially

Not at all

Part two: Please enter your responses below. Your text will be recorded, even if it extends beyond the size of the textbox provided and is hidden from your view.

8. In general, from your perspective, is there anything particular about ISA as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity?

9. What have you observed amongst your colleagues that may be a result of this initiative?

10. What have you observed amongst teachers in general that you consider is a result of this initiative?

11. What do you think has helped teacher leaders develop at ISA, since the initiative began in August 2006? What examples can you give?

12. From your experience to date, what is your understanding of the way leadership currently operates at ISA?

13. Do you have any impression that there have been any significant changes in the way leadership operates now at ISA and how it operated prior to the start of the initiative? Please explain.

14. What changes in the way leadership currently operates would you like to see in the future?
15. Do you perceive any aspects of the school are changing as a result of the initiative? Please explain.
16. Do you perceive that relationships in the school are changing as a result of the initiative, in the school overall? Please explain.
17. Do you perceive that relationships in the school are changing as a result of the initiative, in the division where you work? Please explain.
18. What motivates you to be part of the initiative?
19. What do you think motivates other administrators to be part of the initiative?
20. What do you think motivates teachers to be part of the initiative?

E – Questionnaire sent to external consultants

Part one: Select from the choices available.

1. Gender:

   Female

   Male

2. Nationality:

   American

   Australian

   British

   Canadian

   Chinese

   New Zealander

   Other: Please Specify

3. Highest degree completed:

   Bachelor Degree

   Master Degree

   Doctoral Degree

4. Highest degree completed awarded from:

   America

Australia

Britain

Canada

China

New Zealand

Other Country: Please Specify

5. Number of years as an educator:

1 – 3 years

4 – 6 years

7 – 9 years

10 – 12 years

13 – 15 years

16 – 18 years

19 – 21 years

22 – 24 years

25 – 27 years

28 – 29 years

30 or more years

6. Number of years of engagement at ISA:

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10 or more years

7. Open ended questions on this questionnaire were completed to which degree:

Fully

Partially

Not at all

Part two: Please enter your responses below. Your text will be recorded, even if it extends beyond the size of the textbox provided and is hidden from your view.

8. In general, from your perspective, what has happened in the school as a result of the initiative to build leadership capacity?
9. As a result of the initiative, what changes have you observed amongst administrators?
10. As a result of the initiative, what changes have you observed amongst teachers?
11. What do you think has helped teacher leaders develop since August 2006? What examples can you give?
12. What is your understanding of the way leadership currently operates at ISA?
13. Since the initiative began, do you think there have been any significant changes to the way leadership operates at ISA? Please explain.
14. What changes in the way leadership currently operates would you recommend?
15. What aspects of the school are changing and/or have changed as a result of the initiative?
16. In what ways have relationships in the school changed as a result of the initiative, in the school overall? Please explain.
17. In what ways have relationships in particular divisions changed as a result of the initiative?
18. What motivates you to be part of the initiative?
19. What do you think motivates administrators to be part of the initiative?
20. What do you think motivates teacher leaders to be part of the initiative?

APPENDIX 2 – GROUP EMAIL MESSAGE SENT TO ALL PARTICIPANTS IN ADVANCE OF LAUNCHING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear ISA Colleagues,

I'm spending this Sunday like I've spent many Sundays over the past few years, at my desk at home trying to further my doctoral studies! After a very, very long time and many, many re-writes, my proposal was finally endorsed earlier this month. My study revolves around the school-wide improvement initiative of building leadership capacity, which started in the beginning of the 2006-07 school year.

I'm delighted to be approaching the data collection phase, but I need your help.

Mid this week, I'll be sending out a link to an online questionnaire that will take between 20 and 30 minutes to complete. I'll be asking for your time and energy to respond to the survey on or before 15 November.

When you're planning your next few weeks, please keep my request in mind. I know that this is a busy time of year (not that there is really any time that isn't), and that you all have more than enough on your plates without this, too. I'd gratefully appreciate your assistance.

Regards,

Bernadette

APPENDIX 3 – GROUP EMAIL MESSAGES SENT TO PARTICIPANT GROUPS REQUESTING PARTICIPATION IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A – Sent to teachers

Dear Colleagues,

One of our school-wide improvement initiatives, started in August at the beginning of the 2006-07 school year and continuing to date, focuses on building leadership capacity. My doctoral studies revolve around this initiative, and the aim of my questionnaire is to capture how you perceive the influence of this on-going process.

Clicking on the link below will take you to the questionnaire.

[link inserted]

There are two parts to the questionnaire. Please answer the questions in any order, and express your own understandings in your own words, providing as much detail as possible. Until you've clicked 'Done' at the end of the questionnaire, you will be able to edit any of your responses in either part of the questionnaire.

Your responses will be submitted anonymously and, hence, cannot be traced back to you. Your participation is voluntary. Responses can be submitted up to and including Thursday, 15 November.

My findings will be available to any interested parties at ISA, and I look forward to using them to positively influence the further development of leadership capacity at our school.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Bernadette

B – Sent to administrators

Dear Colleagues,

One of our school-wide improvement initiatives, started in August at the beginning of the 2006-07 school year and continuing to date, focuses on building leadership capacity. My

doctoral studies revolve around this initiative, and the aim of my questionnaire is to capture how you perceive the influence of this on-going process.

Clicking on the link below will take you to the questionnaire.

[link inserted]

There are two parts to the questionnaire. Please answer the questions in any order, and express your own understandings in your own words, providing as much detail as possible. Until you've clicked 'Done' at the end of the questionnaire, you will be able to edit any of your responses in either part of the questionnaire.

Your responses will be submitted anonymously and, hence, cannot be traced back to you. Your participation is voluntary. Responses can be submitted up to and including Thursday, 15 November.

My findings will be available to any interested parties at ISA, and I look forward to using them to positively influence the further development of leadership capacity at our school.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Bernadette

C – Sent to external consultants

Dear Consultant to ISA,

One of our school-wide improvement initiatives, in which you've been involved, focuses on building leadership capacity. The initiative started in August at the beginning of the 2006-07 school year and continues to date. My doctoral studies revolve around this initiative, and the aim of my questionnaire is to capture how you perceive the influence of this on-going process.

Clicking on the link below will take you to the questionnaire.

[link inserted]

There are two parts to the questionnaire. Please answer the questions in any order, and express your own understandings in your own words, providing as much detail as possible. Until you've clicked 'Done' at the end of the questionnaire, you will be able to edit any of your responses in either part of the questionnaire.

Your responses will be submitted anonymously and your participation is voluntary. Responses can be submitted up to and including Thursday, 15 November.

My findings will be available to you and any interested parties at ISA, and I look forward to using them to positively influence the further development of leadership capacity at our school.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Bernadette

APPENDIX 4 – EMAIL SENT BY THE DIRECTOR TO ALL ADMINISTRATORS AND TEACHERS SIX DAYS PRIOR TO CLOSING THE QUESTIONNAIRES TO ENCOURAGE PARTICIPATION IN COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRES

11/9/07 7:20 PM

Dear Staff,

I am writing to let you know that we have all returned safely from the administrative conference held last week.

The conference was a good opportunity for me personally to continue my learning in very specific topics most important of which was two days of continued study with four of our ISA Board members. Our work together focused on school governance, transitions for lasting leadership in schools, financial planning, policy development and other related topics. I also benefited greatly from a number of sessions on one to one computing and 'technology futures', if you will. Always of help are the sessions with other large school heads (that refers to the size of the school and has nothing to do with cranial capacity).

I had the opportunity to meet with representatives from two different universities regarding our professional development programs at ISA. This served to remind me of this particular form of continued learning, that is the advance degree programs so many of you are engaged in through Plymouth state University, Lehigh University and many others.

I remain a firm believer in the importance of a strong degree program as one of the very best means of further professional and career development. It is for this reason and in the same vein, I bring to your attention the current doctoral work being conduct by Benadette Carmody. Bernadette is engaged in original research related to change in organizations and developing teacher leadership through these processes. Knowing Bernadette as I do I know that her efforts are well grounded in the research base and appropriate relevant literature. I also know that her efforts will be highly professional in approach and output. I am particular supportive of this study because Bernadette's work is specifically relevant to ISA; her findings will be both beneficial and immediately applicable to our school as we continue in our learn together.

Her work is also highly dependent on YOU! Please take a few moments and complete the on line survey she has developed. If you have lost the link, send Bernadette an email today and she will provide that to you immediately.

Your answers are important to Bernadette developing a strong data base for the research she is doing at ISA. I encourage you to take a few moments and provide your perspective and experience, your individual insights and your personal wisdom to the work Bernadette is doing.

I thank you for your willingness to help and salute your spirit of continued learning for all.

I wish you a pleasant weekend.

Sincerely,

Larry

APPENDIX 5 – INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

A – Teachers

Central administration generated several school-wide improvement initiatives that started in August 2006, Core Values and ESLRS, Implementation of the Professional Development Plan, Performance Evaluation Program, etc. This interview focuses on the initiative to Building Leadership Capacity through the development of teacher leaders.

There are no right answers to any of the questions I ask. I'd like you to be completely open and honest. All comments are confidential.

1. What is your understanding of the school's purpose behind the initiative to build leadership capacity? What did ISA want out of the initiative?
2. The initiative focuses on the development of teacher leaders. What do you understand by the term 'teacher leader'?
3. How do you feel as a teacher leader at ISA? (Tell me more, if you will, about that?)
4. What do you think teacher leaders are able to achieve in terms of influencing decision-making at ISA?
5. To what extent do you think the different divisions have adopted a consistent approach to teacher leadership?
6. To create the ideal and to maximize the potential power that teacher leaders might have within the school, if you could make changes to the way that teacher leaders operate within the school or the influence that they have within the school, what changes would you make?
7. What factors may be at play in the organization that may influence the attainment of that ideal?
8. What potentials do you think Critical Friends Groups hold for the school? What might help CFGs reach their potential in the school?

We're about half way through and from my point of view it is going really well. Your responses have been telling me some important things. How's it going for you?

9. In the questionnaire, some teachers reported positive changes as a result of this initiative (for example, more involvement by more teachers, improvements taking place more quickly, more buy-in), while others reported negative changes (like more responsibility, increased stress, less time in classrooms), and some reported no change to the organization at all. From your perspective, are their more positive than negative changes at this point, or visa versa (more negative than positive) or would you say that things are pretty much status quo?

10. What do you think is influencing that?

    If positive: what could the school do to help make other's experience of the initiate positive?

    If negative: what could the school do differently to avoid this?

11. I have a similar question about relationships in the school, both overall and within divisions. Responses to the questionnaire indicated that some people saw positive changes in relationships (e.g. more cross divisional conversations), others saw negative (e.g. less trust) and others reported that they saw no change. Again, from your perspective, are their more positive than negative changes at this point or visa versa or status quo?

12. What factors influence these changes?

    If positive: what could the school do to help make other's experience of the initiate positive?

    If negative: what could the school do differently to avoid this?

13. I'm going to ask you to imagine two possible models of teacher leadership. One might focus on teacher leadership through broadening administrative structures and roles, providing opportunities for teachers to extend their careers, engaging teachers in leadership that is targeted for specific purposes. Another might focus on teacher leadership through building communities of practice, providing opportunities in a variety of ways for teachers to exercise leadership, engaging teachers in leadership that is distributed and generalized. How do you see what is happening at ISA fitting into these two possible models? Might one be more evident than the other? Is there overlap?

14. In what ways have you been involved as a teacher leader last school year and this year?

15. What would you say that you've gotten out of the experience?

The school is lucky to have you!

Any individual questions generated by responses.

16. You've been very helpful. Are there other thoughts or feelings you'd like to share with me to help me in relation to the initiative to build teacher leadership? Anything at all that you'd like to add?

Thank you very much for your time.

B – Administrators

Central administration generated several school-wide improvement initiatives that started in August 2006, Core Values and ESLRS, Implementation of the Professional Development Plan, Performance Evaluation Program, etc. This interview focuses on the initiative to Building Leadership Capacity through the development of teacher leaders.

There are no right answers to any of the questions I ask. I'd like you to be completely open and honest. All comments are confidential.

1. What is your understanding of the school's purpose behind the initiative to build leadership capacity? What did ISA want out of the initiative?
2. The initiative focuses on the development of teacher leaders. What do you understand by the term 'teacher leader'?
3. How do you think teacher leaders feel at ISA? (Tell me more, if you will, about that?)
4. What do you think teacher leaders are able to achieve in terms of influencing decision-making at ISA?
5. To what extent do you think the different divisions have adopted a consistent approach to teacher leadership? What gives you that impression?
6. To create the ideal and to maximize the potential power that teacher leaders might have within the school, if you could make changes to the way that teacher leaders operate within the school or the influence that they have within the school, what changes would you make?

7. What factors may be at play in the organization that may influence the attainment of that ideal?

8. What potentials do you think Critical Friends Groups hold for the school? What might help CFGs reach their potential in the school?

We're about half way through and from my point of view it is going really well. Your responses have been telling me some important things. How's it going for you?

9. In the questionnaire, some teachers reported positive changes as a result of this initiative (for example, more involvement by more teachers, improvements taking place more quickly, more buy-in), while others reported negative changes (like more responsibility, increased stress, less time in classrooms), and some reported no change to the organization at all. From your perspective, are their more positive than negative changes at this point, or visa versa (more negative than positive) or would you say that things are pretty much status quo?

10. What do you think is influencing that?

    <u>If positive</u>: what could the school do to help make other's experience of the initiate positive?

    <u>If negative</u>: what could the school do differently to avoid this?

11. I have a similar question about relationships in the school, both overall and within divisions. Responses to the questionnaire indicated that some people saw positive changes in relationships (e.g. more cross divisional conversations), others saw negative (e.g. less trust) and others reported that they saw no change. Again, from your perspective, are their more positive than negative changes at this point or visa versa or status quo?

12. What factors influence these changes?

    <u>If positive</u>: what could the school do to help make other's experience of the initiate positive?

    <u>If negative</u>: what could the school do differently to avoid this?

13. I'm going to ask you to imagine two possible models of teacher leadership. One might focus on teacher leadership through broadening administrative structures and roles, providing opportunities for teachers to extend their careers, engaging teachers in

leadership that is targeted for specific purposes. Another might focus on teacher leadership building communities of practice, providing opportunities in a variety of ways for teachers to exercise leadership, engaging teachers in leadership that is distributed and generalized. How do you see what is happening at ISA fitting into these two possible models? Might one be more evident than the other? Is there overlap?

14. In what ways have teacher leaders contributed most to the school last year and this year?

15. What do you think they get out of the experience?

Any individual questions generated by responses.

16. You've been very helpful. Are there other thoughts or feelings you'd like to share with me to help me in relation to the initiative to build teacher leadership? Anything at all that you'd like to add?

Thank you very much for your time.

C – External consultants

Central administration generated several school-wide improvement initiatives that started in August 2006, Core Values and ESLRS, Implementation of the Professional Development Plan, Performance Evaluation Program, etc. This interview focuses on the initiative to Building Leadership Capacity through the development of teacher leaders.

There are no right answers to any of the questions I ask. I'd like you to be completely open and honest. All comments are confidential.

1. What is your understanding of the school's purpose behind the initiative to build leadership capacity? What did ISA want out of the initiative?

2. The initiative focuses on the development of teacher leaders. What do you understand by the term 'teacher leader'?

3. What do you think teacher leaders are able to achieve in terms of influencing decision-making at ISA?

4. To create the ideal and to maximize the potential power that teacher leaders might have within the school, what factors would you ensure were present and what factors would you ensure were absent in the school?

We're about half way through and from my point of view it is going really well. Your responses have been telling me some important things. How's it going for you?

5. Would it take to sustain this initiative?

6. I'm going to ask you to imagine two possible models of teacher leadership. One might focus on teacher leadership through broadening administrative structures and roles, providing opportunities for teachers to extend their careers, engaging teachers in leadership that is targeted for specific purposes. Another might focus on teacher leadership building communities of practice, providing opportunities in a variety of ways for teachers to exercise leadership, engaging teachers in leadership that is distributed and generalized. How do you see what is happening at ISA fitting into these two possible models? Might one be more evident than the other? Is there overlap?

7. What do you think teacher leaders get out of the experience?

Any individual questions generated by responses, for example:

- *To what extent do you think the different divisions have adopted a consistent approach to teacher leadership? What gives you that impression?*

- *What potentials do you think Critical Friends Groups hold for the school?*

- *What might help CFGs reach their potential in the school?*

- *As a result of this initiative, are their more positive changes (more involvement by more teachers, improvements taking place more quickly, more buy-in) or more negative changes (more responsibility, increased stress, less time in classrooms) or status quo?*

- *As a result of this initiative, have the relationships in the school more positive (more cross campus conversations) more negative (less trust, more competition) or status quo?*

8. You've been very helpful. Are there other thoughts or feelings you'd like to share with me to help me in relation to the initiative to build teacher leadership? Anything at all that you'd like to add?

Thank you very much for your time.

APPENDIX 6 – FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Area one: Involvement and sustainability

Finding

Great efforts have been invested into building leadership capacity through:

- Creating structures and roles to allow teachers to engage in leadership opportunities that are targeted for specific purposes that will move the school forward toward its identified goals, e.g. committees and task forces, and offer teachers opportunities to extend their careers, e.g. an experience to add to a resume.
- Providing professional development that has centered around helping teachers better perform in the structures and roles e.g. leadership training offered by Daisy Jones and CFG training offered by Faye Henton, and extend their careers e.g. PSU credits

There is certainly a sense of greater participation and greater engagement.

Pondering

1. I'm wondering about the nature of the participation and engagement fostered by this approach to building leadership capacity. What are your thoughts about this kind of involvement by teacher leaders?
2. Will this kind of involvement sustain the school-improvement initiatives should the rate of turnover of school administration continue along a similar pattern as it has in the past?
3. Has the leadership capacity built since August 2006 contributed to sustainable school improvement?
4. If key members of the administration move on, will the improvement efforts initiated by them stop OR might the leadership capacity developed allow teacher leaders to continue to sustain those improvement efforts?

Area two: Leadership and potentials

Finding

The understanding reflected in the data is that leadership in the school seems to have remained unchanged since the initiative began and that it reflects a somewhat traditional understanding of leadership with authority being based within the individual members of the administrative structure. Recommendations are made by teacher leaders and decisions are made by members of the admin.

There is an indication of a desire to establish communities of practice and to share leadership, focusing on building a strong positive network of relationships, focusing on student learning, etc. e.g. voluntary Critical Friends Groups.

Pondering

5. I wonder about the potentials to develop teacher leadership in the context of the school given the view of leadership that prevails.
6. There is a sort of a chain of realities. The view of leadership that prevails at ISA influences the context of the school and the context of the school influences the potentials to develop teacher leaders. How do you see this chain of realities in operation in the school?

Area three: Dynamics and relationships

Finding

There seems to be challenging dynamics and some strain on relationships at play within the school that may affect the efforts to develop teacher leadership. There is a sense that teachers want to be involved and appreciate the opportunities available to them but that they also are experiencing stress, pressure, frustration as a result of that involvement. There are interrelated concerns, for example, the number of initiatives undertaken, a lack of time, and the pace. Relationships seem to be affected by this too, as concern was expressed about favoritism, lack of trust, fear of reprisal. While there are many pockets of support and enthusiasm, there seems to be an overall sense of concern and negativity.

Pondering

7. I'd like you to help me explore the sense of concern and negativity that seems evident both in terms of dynamics within the school and relationships amongst teachers and between teachers and administrators, and the influence this has on the efforts to develop teacher leadership.

8. I wonder of the source or origins of the concern and negativity. From where does such energy generate and why does it seem pervasive? What does this do to teacher leaders? Someone else commented that "negative influence is just simply tradition here!" What's your understanding of such a comment? How do teacher leaders develop in that tradition?

Area four: Motivation

Finding

Teachers reported themselves to be primarily motivated to take part in the initiative for personal or intrinsic reasons: wanting to continue learning, wanting to contribute, building a sense of satisfaction, etc.

However, teachers thought that other teachers where primarily motivated to take part in the initiative for extrinsic reasons and reasons linked to status: wanting to climb the ladder, earning credits for PSU.

Pondering

9. Given the context of the school, I'm wondering what really keeps teacher leaders motivated to keep taking on leadership roles and contributing rather than closing their classroom doors and keeping their heads down.

10. What keeps you choosing to lead? What is your source of motivation to continue?

APPENDIX 7 – POSITION PAPER ON ONE SCHOOL ON TWO CAMPUSES

International School of Asia has embarked on achieving a unique vision for serving the expatriate community in this city. In order to meet the growing demand for an ISA education, the Board of Directors authorized the development of two pre-K –12 schools to serve families throughout the city. To accomplish this vision, the parents of the ISA community have endeavored to develop a strong financial base from which to recruit and retain well-qualified talented professional staff and to develop purpose built facilities on both campuses in order to meet the needs of over 3000 students.

Given this vision and direction of the ISA Board and community, International School of Asia operates under the philosophy of being One School on Two Campuses firm in the belief that achieving this vision will unite the community in providing a stronger and more comprehensive educational program. The benefits of the one school two campus philosophy are:

- Increased ability to serve students and their families.
- Increased ability to attract and serve professional staff.
- Increased ability to develop authentic interactive learning experiences using technology to promote 21st century learning skills.
- Increased visibility and recognition in the city, and prestige within the educational community worldwide.
- Increased opportunity for student interaction with peers across campuses in authentic and meaningful ways.
- Increased professional expertise in program development and implementation.
- Increased opportunity to engage leading researchers and other professional expertise in faculty and program development for ISA.
- Increased opportunity for developing professional expertise of larger number of staff across both campuses in a vibrant learning community.
- Increased revenue base to provide resources and financial security.
- Increased ability, both historically and for the future, to maintain ISA' market niche.

- Maintains optimal school size for divisions on both campuses as opposed to one very large school.

The ISA professional community is committed to maximizing the benefits of the one school two campus philosophy by providing common programs and learning opportunities for students on both campuses while emphasizing the benefits of the distinctive characteristics and cultures of both the South and North communities. By pursuing common ends through varied means we will implement a common curriculum using common assessments to provide varied but similar learning experiences so that all students receive an exemplary college preparatory American-based education.

List of References

Academy of International School Heads, (2006). *Leading an Effective Team*. Hyannis, MA: Academy of International School Heads.

Anderson, C. S. (1992). The search for school climate: A review of the research. *Review of Educational Research*, 52, 368-420.

Argyris, C. (2000). *Flawed advice and the management trap*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Argyris, C., & Schon, D. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness*. San Francisco, CA: Josey-Bass.

Argyris, C., & Schon, D. (1978). *Organizational learning: A theory of action perspective.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Bambino, D. (2002). Redesigning Professional Development: Critical Friends. *Educational Leadership*, 59(6), 25-27.

Barth, R. S. (1988). Principals, teachers, and school leadership. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 69(9), 639-642.

Barth, R. S. (1990). *Improving Schools from Within: Teachers, Parents, and Principals Can Make the Difference*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Basse, Inc.

Barth, R. S. (2001). *Learning by Heart.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Basse, Inc.

Balogun, J. & Hailey, V. H. (2004) *Exploring Strategic Change*. (2nd ed.) Essex, UK: Pearson Education Limited.

Beachum, F., & Dentith, A. M. (2004). Teacher Leaders Creating Cultures of School Renewal and Transformation. *The Educational Forum*. Spring, 1-3.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The Strategy of Taking Charge*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Berg, E. (2005). Effecting Change: The Power of Teacher Leadership. *Middle Ground: The Magazine of Middle Level Education, 8*(3), 16-18.

Blandford, S., & Shaw, M. (Eds.). (2001a). *Managing International Schools*. New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Blandford, S., & Shaw, M, (2001b). The Nature of International School Leadership, In Blandford, S., & Shaw, M. (Eds.). *Managing International Schools*. (pp. 9-28) New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Board of Directors. (2003). *Strategic Plan*. Asia: International School of Asia.

Board of Directors. (2008). *Policy Manual*. Asia: International School of Asia.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to Theories and Methods*. (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Boles, K., & Troen, V. (1994). *Teacher leadership in a professional development school.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, LA.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (2002). *Reframing the Path to School Leadership: A Guide for Teachers and Principals*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Bowers, C. (1993). *Critical essays on education, modernity, and the recovery of the ecological imperative.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Bruffee, K. A. (1986, Dec). Social Construction, Language, and the Authority of Knowledge: A Bibliographical Essay. *College English*, 48(8), 773-790. Bryk, A., Sebring, P., Kerbow, D., Rollow, S., & Easton, J. (1998). *Charting Chicago school reform*. Boulder, Co: Westview Press.

Cambridge, J. (1998). Investigating national and organizational cultures in the context of the international school. In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. (pp. 197-211). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Campbell Williams, M., & Dobson, P. (1995). Using metaphors and rich pictures in university education. In L. Summers (Ed.), *A Focus on Learning*, (pp. 36-41). Proceedings of the 4th Annual Teaching Learning Forum, Edith Cowan University, February 1995. Perth: Edith Cowan University.

Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S. L. (1993). Inside/outside: Teacher research and knowledge. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Conley, D. T. (1997) *Roadmap to restructuring: Charting the course of change in American education*. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management.

Cooke, R. A., & Lafferty, J. C. (1989). *Organizational Culture Inventory*. Plymouth, MI: Human Synergistics.

Cooke, R. A. (2004 July) *Culture-Performance Connection: A Mandate for Change*, Paper presented at the Sixth Annual Australian Conference on Culture and Leadership, Sydney, Australia.

Copland, M. A. (2003). Building the capacity to lead: Promoting and sustaining change in an inquiry-based model of school reform. In J. Murphy & A. Datnow (Eds.), *Leadership for school reform: Lessons from comprehensive school reform designs* (pp. 159-183). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Coyle, M. (1997, May/June). Teacher leadership vs. school management: Flatten the hierarchies. *Teacher Leadership*, 70(5), 236-239.

Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crotty, M. (2003). *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crowther, F., Kaagan, S. S., Ferguson, M., & Hann, L. (2002). *Developing Teacher Leaders: How Teacher Leadership Enhances School Success*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Crowther, F., Ferguson, M., & Hann, L. (2009). *Developing Teacher Leaders: How Teacher Leadership Enhances School Success*. (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Danielson, C. (2002). *Enhancing Student Achievement: A Framework for School Improvement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Danielson, C. (2006). *Teacher Leadership That Strengthens Professional Practice*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Davey, L. (1991). *The Application of Case Study Evaluations*, *ERIC Digests*: ERIC.

Day, C., Harris, A., Hadfield, M., Tolley, H., & Beresford, J. (2000). *Leading Schools in Times of Change*. Milton Keynes, UK: Open University Press.

Deal, T. E., & Peterson, K. D. (1999). *Shaping School Culture: The Heart of Leadership*. San Francisco, Ca: Jossey-Bass.

DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (1998). *Professional Learning Communities at Work: Best Practices for Enhancing Student Achievement*. Bloomington, IN: National Educational Services.

DuFour, Richard., DuFour, Rebecca, Eaker, R., & Many, T. (2006). *Learning by Doing: A Handbook for Professional Learning Communities at Work*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.

Elmore, R. F. (2000). *Building a new structure for school leadership.* Washington, DC: Albert Shanker Institute.

Elmore, R. F. (1990, September). *Reinventing school leadership* (pp. 62-65). Working memo prepared for the Reinventing School Leadership Conference. Cambridge, MA: National Center for Educational Leadership.

Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Evans, R. (1996). *The Human Side of School Change: Reform, Resistance, and the Real-life Problems of Iinnovation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fail, H. (2007). The Potential of the Past in Practice: Life Histories of Former International School Students. In Hayden, M., Levy, J. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education*. (pp. 103-112). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Fink, D., (2001). Learning to Change and Changing to Learn, In Blandford, S., & Shaw, M. (Eds.). *Managing International Schools*. (pp. 80-93) New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Firestone, W. A. (1996). Leadership roles or functions. In K. Leithwood, J. Chapman, D. Corson, P. Hallinger, & A Jart (Eds.), *International handbook of educational leadership and administration* (pp. 395-418). Dordrecht: Boston: Kuluwer Academic.

Forster, E. M. (1997, Fall) Teacher leadership: Professional right and responsibility. *Action in Teacher Education,* 19(3), 82-94.

Frost, D., & Durrant, J. (2003, May). Teacher leadership: Rationale, strategy, and impact. *School Leadership & Management*. 23(2), 173-186.

Fullan, M. (1993). *Change forces*. New York, NY: Falmer.

Fullan, M. (1995, November). Broadening the concept of teacher leadership. Paper presented at the National Staff development Council, New Directions conference, Chicago, IL.

Fullan, M. (2001a). *Leading in a Culture of Change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fullan, M. (2001b). *The New Meaning of Educational Change*. (3rd ed.) New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Fullan, M. (2004). *Leading in a Culture of Change: Personal Action Guide and Workbook*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Fullan, M. (2005). *Leadership and Sustainability: System Thinkers in Action*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Gabriel, J. G. (2005). *How to Thrive as a Teacher Leader*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Gay, L. R., & Airasian, P. (2003). *Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Applications*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Educational, Inc.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. Chicago: Aldine.

Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming qualitative researchers: An introduction*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

Glickman, C. D. (2002). *Leadership for Learning: How to Help Teachers Succeed*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Goldberg, M. (2001). *Lessons from Exceptional School Leaders*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Graetz, F., Rimmer, M., Lawrence, A., & Smith, A. (2006). *Managing Organisational Change*. (2nd Ed.) Milton, QLD: John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd.

Gronn, P. (2000). Distributed Properties: A New Architecture for Leadership. Educational Management and Administration. 28(3), 317-338.

Hacking, I. (1999). *The Social Construction of What?* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (2006). *Implementing Change: Patterns, Principles, and Potholes*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Educational, Inc.

Hardman, J. (2001). Improving Recruitment and Retention of Quality Overseas Teachers, In Blandford, S., & Shaw, M. (Eds.). *Managing International Schools*. (pp. 123-135) New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Harris, A., & Muijs, D. (2003). Teacher Leadership - Improvement through Empowerment? An Overview of the Literature. *Educational Management and Administration, 31*(4), 437-448.

Hart, A. W. (1990). Impacts of the school social unit on teacher authority during work redesign. *American Educational Research Journal*, 27, 503-532.

Hatch, T. (2000). *What happens when multiple improvements initiatives collide?* Menlo Part, CA: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

Hawley, D. B. (1995). How Long Do International School Heads Survive? A Research Analysis. *International Schools Journal, 14*(2), 23-36.

Hayden, M. (1998). International education in practice. In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. (pp. 1-10). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). (1998a). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (1998b). Preface. In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). (2000a). *International Schools and International Education: Improving Teaching, Management and Quality*. London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Hayden, M & Thompson, J. (2000b) Quality in Diversity, In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Schools and International Education: Improving Teaching, Management and Quality*. (pp. 1-14). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Hayden, M. (2006). *Introduction to International Schools and their Communities*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Hayden, M. (2007). Professional Development of Educators : the International Education Context. In Hayden, M., Levy, J. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education*. (pp. 223-232). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Hayden, M., Levy, J. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). (2007a). *The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Hayden, M., Levy, J. & Thompson, J. (2007b). Introduction. In Hayden, M., Levy, J. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education*. (pp. 1-8). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Heifetz, R. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press

Heller, D. A. (1994). The problem with power. In D. R. Walling (Ed.), *Teachers as leaders: Perspectives on the professional development of teachers* (pp. 287-297). Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa.

Herzberg, F. (1959) *The Motivation to Work*. NY: John Wiley and Sons.

Holstein, J. A. & Gubrium, J. F. (1995). *The Active Interview*. Qualitative Research Methods Series, Vol. 37. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hord, S. M. (1997) *Professional Learning Communities: Communities of Continuous Inquiry and Improvement*, Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (1996). *Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice*. (5th ed.) New York, NY: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

ISA. (2006). *International School of Asia: School Improvement Initiatives SY06-07*. (V.3.3 – 9/20/2006). Asia: International School of Asia.

ISA. (2007). *Curriculum & Professional Development Handbook.* Asia: International School of Asia.

ISA. (2008). *Self Study Report*. Asia: International School of Asia.

Jackson, A. W., & Davis, G. A. (2000). *Turning Points 2000: Educating Adolescents in the 21st Century*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Jones, S. R. (2002). Rewriting the Word: Methodological Strategies and Issues in Qualitative Research. [Electronic Version]. *Journal of College Student Development,* 7, 12-23.

Katzenmeyer, M., & Moller, G. (2001). *Awakening the Sleeping Giant: Helping Teachers Develop as Leaders* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M. A., (2000). *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*. (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Kruse, S., Seashore Louis, K., & Bryk, A. (1994). Building Professional Community in Schools. *Issues in Restructuring Schools*, 6, 3 – 6.

Kuhn, T. (1970). *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions.* Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M., (1980). *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Lambert, L. (1998). *Building Leadership Capacity in Schools*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Lambert, L. (2003). *Leadership Capacity for Lasting School Improvement*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Lambert, L. (2006). Lasting Leadership: A Study of High Leadership Capacity Schools. *The Educational Forum, 70*(Spring), 238-254.

Lambert, L., Collay, M., Dietz, M. E., Kent, K., & Richert, A. E. (1996). *Who Will Save Our Schools? Teachers as Constructivist Leaders*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Lambert, L., Walker, D., Zimmerman, D. P., Cooper, J. E., Lambert, M. D., Gardner, M. E., & Szabo, M. (2002). *The Constructivist Leader*. (2nd Ed.) New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lauder, H. (2007). International School, Education and Globalization: Towards a Research Agenda, In Hayden, M., Levy, J. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Research in International Education*. (pp. 441-449). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

LeCompte, M. D. Millroy, W. L., & Preissle, J. (Eds.). (1992). *The Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Leithwood, K. A., Jantzi, D., Silins, H., & Dart, B. (1992, January). *Transformational leadership and school restructuring.* Paper presented at the International Congress for School Effectiveness and Improvement, Victoria, British Columbia.

Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., & Steinbach, R. (1999). *Changing Leadership for Changing Times*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2004). *Teacher Leadership*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (Eds.). (2008a). *Teachers in Professional Communities: Improving Teaching and Learning*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2008b). Contexts and Commitments. In Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (Eds.). *Teachers in Professional Communities: Improving Teaching and Learning*. (pp. 7-17) New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2008c). Developing capacities. In Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (Eds.). *Teachers in Professional Communities: Improving Teaching and Learning*. (pp. 18-28). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2008d). Balancing Content and Process: Facing Challenges. In Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (Eds.). *Teachers in Professional Communities: Improving Teaching and Learning*. (pp. 29-39) New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (2008e). Reflecting on the Five Organizing Themes: Context, Commitment, Capacity, Content, and Challenge. In Lieberman, A. & Miller, L. (Eds.). *Teachers in Professional Communities: Improving Teaching and Learning*. (pp. 97-106) New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1986). "But Is It Rigorous? Trustworthiness and Authenticity in Naturalistic Evaluation." *New Directions for Progam Evaluation*. 30 (summer: 73-84, *Naturalistic Evaluation*, edited by David D. Williams. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lingard, B., Hayes, D., Mills, M., & Christie, P. (2003). *Leading Learning: Making Hope Practical in Schools*. Berkshire, UK: Open University Press.

Little, J. W. (1988). Assessing the prospects for teacher leadership. In A. Lieberman (Ed.), *Building a professional culture in schools* (pp. 78-105). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Lortie, D. (1975). *School teacher: A sociological study.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lunenburg, F. C. & Ornstein, A. C. (1996). *Educational Administration: Concepts and Practices*. (2nd ed.) Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Macaulay,D. (1998) *The New Way Things Work*, New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Company.

MacDonald, J. (2006) The international school industry, *Journal of Research in International Education*, Vol. 5, No 2, pp. 191-213.

Manthei, J. (1992). *The mentor teacher as leader: The motives, characteristics and needs of seventy-three experienced teachers who seek a new leadership role.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, CA.

March, J. G. (1984). How We Talk and How We Act: Administrative Theory and Administrative Life, In Sergiovanni, T. J., & Corbally, J. E. (Eds.). *Leadership and Organizational Culture: New Perspectives on Administrative Theory and Practice*. (pp. 18-35). Urbana and Chicago, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Marshall, G. "social constructionism." A Dictionary of Sociology. 1998. Retrieved March 16, 2010 from Encyclopedia.com: http://www.encyclopedia.com/doc/1O88-socialconstructionism.html

Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School Leadership that Works: From Research to Results*. Aurora, CO: McRel.

Mathison, S. (1998). Why Triangulate? *Educational Researcher* (March), 13-17.

Matthews, M. (1989). The uniqueness of international education, Part 2. *International Schools Journal,* Vol. 18, No. 24-34.

Merideth, E. M. (2007). *Leadership Strategies for Teachers*. (2nd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Qualitative Research Case Study Applications in Education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative Data Analysis: An Expanded Sourcebook*. (2nd Ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Mitchell, A. (1997, Fall). Teacher Identity: A key to increased collaboration. *Action in Teacher Education,* 19(3), 1-14.

Morgan, G. (1997). *Images of Organization*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Murphy, E. (Ed.). (1991). *ESL: A Handbook for Teachers and Administrators in International Schools*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Murphy, E. (1998). International school accreditation: who needs it? In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. (pp. 212-225). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Murphy, J. (2005). *Connecting Teacher Leadership and School Improvement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

National School Reform Faculty. (2006). *Critical Friends Groups*. Bloomington, IN: Harmony Education Center.

Neimeyer, G. J. (Ed.). (1993). *Constructivist Assessment: A Casebook.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Nelson, N. (2000) Strategic Planning for international schools: a roadmap to excellence, In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Schools and International Education: Improving Teaching, Management and Quality*. (pp. 169-178). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Newmann, F. M., and Associates. *Authentic Instruction: Restructuring Schools for Intellectual Quality*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1996.

Newmann, F., King, B., & Youngs, P. (2000, April). *Professional development that addresses school capacity*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association. New Orleans.

Ogawa, R. T., & Bossert, S. T. (1995, May) Leadership as an organizational quality. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31(2), 224-243.

Owens, R. G., & Valesky, T. C. (2007). *Organizational Behavior in Education: Adaptive Leadership and School Reform*. (9th ed.) Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Pascale, R., Millenamm, M., & Gioja, L. (2000). *Surfing the edge of chaos*. New York, NY:Crown Business Publishing.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Pellicer, L. O., & Anderson, L. W. (1995). *A handbook for teacher leaders*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Pfeffer, J., & Sutton, R. (2000). *The knowing-doing gap: How smart companies turn knowledge into action.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School.

QSR, (2007). *NVivo Version 7.0.281* [Computer Program]. Doncaster, VIC, Australia: QSR International Pty Ltd.

QSR, (2008). 'Preparing your Table Data for NVivo 7. Retrieved February 27, 2008 from www.qsrinternational.com

Raelin, J. A. (2003). *Leaderful Organizations: How to Bring Out Leadership in Everyone*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Reis, D., & Pena, L. (2001). Reengineering the Motivation to Work. *Management Decision*, 39/8, 666-675. Retrieved March 19, 2009, from http://www.emerald-library.com/ft

Richards, N. (1998). The Emperor's new clothes? The issue of staffing in international schools. In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. (pp. 173-183). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Richards, L. (2005). *Handling Qualitative Data: A Practical Guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Richards, L., & Morse, J. M. (2007). *README FIRST for a User's Guide to Qualitative Methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Robins, P., & Alvy, H. (2004). *The New Principal's Fieldbook: Strategies for Success*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Robbins, S. P., Millett, B., & Waters-Marsh, T. (2004). *Organisational Behaviour*. (4th Ed.) Frenchs Forest, NSW: Pearson Education Australia.

Rossman, G. B., & Rallis, S. F. (1998). *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Sanderson, B.E. (2005). *Talk It Out: The Educator's Guide to Successful Difficult Conversations.* Larchmont, NY: Eye on Education.

Sarason, S. (1996). *Revisiting the culture of the school and the problem of change*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Scagliarini, R. (2008). *Reforming the Middle Years Curriculum in an International School: A Naturalistic Inquiry*. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Southern Queensland, Queensland, Australia.

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational Culture and Leadership*. (3rd ed.) San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schiller, S. (2002). *Constructive Change Initiative*. Alexandria, VA: Center for Constructive Change.

Schon, D. A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Senge, P. M. (1990). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization* (1st ed). New York, NY: Doubleday.

Senge, P. M. (2006). *The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization* (2nd ed). New York, NY: Doubleday.

Senge, P. M., Kleiner, A., Roberts, C., Ross, R. B., & Smith, B. J. (1994). *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook: Strategies and Tools for Building a Learning Organization*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Senge, P. M., Cambron-McCabe, N., Lucas, T., Smith, B., Dutton, J., & Kleiner, A., (2000) *Schools That Learn: A Fifth Discipline Fieldbook for Educators, Parents, and Everyone Who Cares About Education.* New York, NY: Doubleday.

Senge, P., Scharmer, C. O., Jaworski, J., & Flowers, B. S. (2004), *Presence: An Exploration of Profound Change in People, Organizations, and Society*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1966). Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction of Teachers. (University of Illinois, Rep. No. BR-5-8394). Urbana, IL: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (1996). *Leadership for the Schoolhouse: How is it Different? Why is it Important?* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Basse, Inc.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (2000). *The Lifeworld of Leadership: Creating Culture, Community, and Personal Meaning in Our Schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Basse, Inc.

Sergiovanni, T. J. (2005). *Strengthening the Heartbeat: Leading and Learning Together in Schools*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Basse, Inc.

Sergiovanni, T. J., & Corbally, J. E. (Eds.). (1984). *Leadership and Organizational Culture: New Perspectives on Administrative Theory and Practice*. Urbana and Chicago, IL: University of Illinois Press.

Silva, D. Y., Gimbert, B., & Nolan, J. (2000, August). Sliding the doors: Locking and unlocking possibilities for teacher leadership. *Teachers College Record*, 102(4), 779-804.

Silverman, D. (2005). *Doing Qualitative Research*. (2nd Ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Smith, K. M. (2003, 2009). Communities of practice, *The Encyclopedia of Informal Education*, Retrieved April 17, 2009 from www.infed.org/biblio/communities_of_practice.htm

Smylie, M. A. (1996). Research on teacher leadership: Assessing the state of the art. In B. J. Biddle, T. L. Good, & I. F. Goodson (Eds.), International handbook of teachers and teaching (pp. 521-592). Dordrecht: Boston: Kluwer Academic.

Smylie, M. A., & Brownlee-Conyers. J. (1992, May). Teacher leaders and their principals: Exploring the development of new working relationships. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 28(2), 150-184.

Smylie, M. A., & Denny, J. W. (1990). Teacher leadership: Tensions and ambiguities in organizational perspectives. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 26, 235-259.

Smylie, M. A., Conley, S., & Marks, H. M. (2002). Exploring new approaches to teacher leadership for school improvement. In J. Murphy (Ed.), *The educational leadership challenge: Redefining leadership for the 21st century* (pp. 162-188). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Smylie, M. A., & Hart, A. W. (1999). School leadership for teacher learning: A human and social capital development perspective. In J. Murphy & K. S. Louis, *Handbook of research on educational administration* (2nd ed., pp. 421-441). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Smyser, S. O. (1995, Autumn). Developing the teacher leader. *Teacher Education,* 31(2), 130-137).

Sparks, D. (1999). Real-life View: An Interview with Ann Lieberman. *Journal of Staff Development, 20*(4), 53-57.

Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stewart, D. W., Shamdasani, P. N., & Rook, D. W. (2007) *Focus Groups: Theory and Practice.* (2nd Ed) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Stein, M. K. (1998). *High performance learning communities. District 2: Report on year one implementation of school learning communities.* Pittsburgh, PA: Pittsburgh University learning and Research Center.

Stoll, L., & Louis, K. S. (2007). Professional learning communities: elaborating new approaches. In L. Stoll & K. S. Louis (Eds.) *Professional learning communities divergence, depth and dilemmas.* Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Stone, M., Horejs, J., & Lomas, A. (1997, Fall). Commonalities and differences in teacher leadership at the elementary, middle, and high school level. *Action in Teacher Education*, 19(3), 49-63.

Sylvester, B. (1998). Through the lens of diversity: inclusive and encapsulated school missions. In Hayden, M. & Thompson, J. (Eds.). *International Education: Principles and Practice*. (pp. 184-196). London, UK: Kogan Page Limited.

Szumal, J. L. (2003) OCI *Interpretation and Development Guide*, Arlington Heights, IL: Human Synergistics / Center for Applied Research.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tietze, S., Cohen, L., & Musson, G. (2003). *Understanding Organization through Language*. London, GBR: Sage Publications.

Tracy, D. (1990). *The Power Pyramid: How to Get Power by Giving it Away*. New York, NY: Morrow.

Voke, H. (2003). Responding to the Teacher Shortage. In M. Scherer, (Ed.), *Keeping Good Teachers,* (pp. 3-13). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Von Krogh, G., Ichijo, K., & Nonaka, I. (2000). *Enabling knowledge creation: How to unlock the mystery of tacit knowledge and release the power of innovation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wasley, P. A. (1991). *Teachers who lead: The rhetoric of reform and realities of practice.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Welton, J., (2001). Planning: the Art of the Possible, In Blandford, S., & Shaw, M. (Eds.). *Managing International Schools*. (pp. 94-104) New York, NY: Routledge Falmer.

Wong, H. K. (2003). Induction Programs that Keep Working. In M. Scherer, (Ed.), *Keeping Good Teachers,* (pp. 42-49). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. (3rd ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.