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ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΤΙΚΗ ΗΓΕΣΙΑ***

Διπλωματική εργασία

**Teacher Leadership as an approach to Distributed Leadership:
evidence, practices and prospects in Greek high schools**

της

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Abstract

The association of leadership with formal positions and principal leadership was questioned and a new concept of leadership emerged suggesting the practice of distributed leadership as a promising alternative. Distributed leadership recognized that multiple individuals can enhance the effective practice of leadership, especially teachers who contribute significantly to school development. For this reason, teachers should possess pedagogical and leadership competencies as well as a strong sense of moral purpose.

Focusing on the features of teacher leadership as it has developed within the distributed leadership context, this study explored teacher leadership in public secondary schools in Greece. Data were collected through quantitative research method, which required secondary school teachers to respond to a questionnaire in order to provide measurable results in relation to the extent teacher leadership is practiced in secondary Greek schools.

The study found that teacher leadership was not an established concept in Greek secondary public schools, despite some instances of teacher leadership practices. The development of teacher leadership was viewed in relation to the contextual conditions that shape leadership practices. Such conditions include both teachers' characteristics as well as elements of the Greek educational system. Sometimes teachers' beliefs and attitudes as well as the top-down leadership practices impede the creation of conditions conducive to teacher leadership practice.

Recommendations from this study would include acknowledging teacher leadership in Greece's education reform policy, supporting teachers to accept leadership tasks and giving priority to the implementation of development programs for both principals and teachers.

Περίληψη

Η σύνδεση της ηγεσίας με επίσημες θέσεις ευθύνης και η ηγεσία των εκπαιδευτικών αμφισβητήθηκαν και μια νέα αντίληψη σχετικά με την ηγεσία προέκυψε, η οποία πρότεινε την άσκηση της κατανεμημένης ηγεσίας ως μια αποτελεσματική εναλλακτική επιλογή. Η κατανεμημένη ηγεσία αναγνώρισε πως πολλαπλά άτομα μπορούν να αυξήσουν την αποτελεσματική άσκηση ηγεσίας, ιδιαίτερα οι εκπαιδευτικοί οι οποίοι μπορούν να συνεισφέρουν αποτελεσματικά στην ανάπτυξη των σχολικών μονάδων. Σε αυτές τις περιπτώσεις οι εκπαιδευτικοί κατέχουν παιδαγωγικές και ηγετικές ικανότητες καθώς και έντονη αίσθηση ηθικού σκοπού.

Η παρούσα εργασία επικεντρώθηκε στα χαρακτηριστικά της ηγεσίας του εκπαιδευτικού, όπως αυτά προκύπτουν μέσα από το πλαίσιο της κατανεμημένης ηγεσίας, και διερεύνησε την ηγεσία του εκπαιδευτικού σε δημόσια σχολεία της δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης στην Ελλάδα. Τα δεδομένα συγκεντρώθηκαν με τη μέθοδο της ποσοτικής έρευνας, κατά την οποία εκπαιδευτικοί της δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης κλήθηκαν να απαντήσουν σε σχετικό ερωτηματολόγιο, έτσι ώστε να εξαχθούν μετρήσιμα αποτελέσματα σχετικά με τον βαθμό που η ηγεσία των εκπαιδευτικών ασκείται στα ελληνικά δευτεροβάθμια σχολεία.

Η παρούσα έρευνα διαπίστωσε πως η ηγεσία του εκπαιδευτικού δεν έχει καθιερωθεί σαν έννοια στην ελληνική δημόσια δευτεροβάθμια εκπαίδευση, παρά κάποιες μεμονωμένες περιπτώσεις άσκησης τέτοιου είδους ηγεσίας. Η ανάπτυξη της ηγεσίας του εκπαιδευτικού προσεγγίστηκε σε σχέση με διάφορες συγκυριακές συνθήκες που καθορίζουν τις πρακτικές ηγεσίας. Τέτοιες συνθήκες συμπεριλαμβάνουν όχι μόνο χαρακτηριστικά των εκπαιδευτικών, αλλά και στοιχεία του ελληνικού εκπαιδευτικού συστήματος. Η δημιουργία συνθηκών που συμβάλλουν στην πρακτική της ηγεσίας του εκπαιδευτικού δυσχεραίνεται από τις απόψεις και στάσεις των εκπαιδευτικών, καθώς και από τις πρακτικές άσκησης ηγεσίας εκ των άνω προς τα κάτω.

Προτάσεις που προκύπτουν από τη μελέτη συμπεριλαμβάνουν την αναγνώριση της ηγεσίας του εκπαιδευτικού στην πολιτική αναμόρφωσης του ελληνικού εκπαιδευτικού συστήματος, την ενθάρρυνση των εκπαιδευτικών να αναλαμβάνουν δραστηριότητες ηγεσίας και την προτεραιότητα στην εφαρμογή προγραμμάτων επαγγελματικής ανάπτυξης τόσο των διευθυντών όσο και των εκπαιδευτικών.

1 Chapter 1 Focus and rationale for the study

1.1 Introduction to the problem

The challenge of developing schools with the capability for continuous improvement has drawn attention to a rapidly emerging focus on fostering leadership at all levels of the education system (Hallinger & Heck, 2009). This is particularly evident in the literature towards distributing leadership among a broader set of key stakeholders, especially teachers, in schools (Gronn 2002a, Spillane, 2006). Therefore, the field of school leadership has shifted focus from the characteristics and behaviors of individual leaders (Bolden, 2011) towards the idea of leadership as a group activity that works through and within relationships (Bennett et al., 2003).

Apart from the simple pragmatic solution to reduce official leaders' workload that distributed leadership offers (Tian et al., 2015), the interest in it is based on its potential to enhance school members' self-efficacy when their expertise is applied in particular leadership work (Day et al., 2000). For this reason, schools have necessitated distributing leadership responsibility paying attention to student leadership, community leadership and teacher leadership (Wilmore, 2007), which is the focus of the present study.

Being viewed as a key factor for building the capacity for change, distributed leadership has been well-received and practiced in several educational systems, such as in England, the Netherlands, Norway, Wales (Harris, 2013). Within this emerging context, distributed leadership has received widespread importance and attention (Gronn, 2002b). Distributed leadership has been enthusiastically received due to its potential to bring about school development (Harris & DeFlaminis, 2016) and organizational change under the right circumstances (Leithwood et al., 2009). As a result, distributed leadership has become the normatively preferred leadership model in the 21st century (Bush, 2013) concentrating attention from researchers, educators and policymakers in the USA, Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom (Spillane & Sherer, 2004).

The contemporary interest in the concept of distributed leadership could be explained (Harris et al., 2008) in relation to the increasing recognition of the limitations of existing structural arrangements to secure organizational growth and transformation. Contrary to traditional hierarchical organizational structures, when distributed leadership is applied, the expertise and talent of staff can be identified, developed and utilized (Fullan, 1993). Moreover, schools applying distributed leadership are thought to have more staff that are knowledgeable about, and take responsibility for the improvement of educational outcomes (Robinson, 2009). As a consequence of distributed leadership, power and authority are redistributed in such a way so as to create the conditions in which people work together and learn together, where they construct and refine meaning leading to a shared purpose or set of goals (Harris & Muijs, 2003), which practically means giving authority to teachers as well and empowering them to lead. Wherever such conditions exist, leadership is a substantial internal driver for school improvement and change (Hopkins, 2001). It also recognizes that all teachers are likely to become leaders at several times and suggests that leadership is a shared and collective effort that engages the many rather than the few (Harris & Muijs, 2003).

Literature asserts that the main reason for teacher leadership is to develop schools into professional learning communities (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001) and to enable teachers to become actively involved in decision making processes within the school, thus contributing to the democratisation of schools (Gehrke, 1991). The term ‘professional learning community’ is one that implies a commitment not only to teacher sharing but also the generation of a school-wide culture that makes collaboration expected (Harris, 2003, p.321). A professional community, therefore, is one where teachers are involved in decision making, have a shared sense of purpose, participate in collaborative work and accept joint responsibility for the outcomes of their work. However, for pedagogical improvement to occur, it is imperative that ‘an infrastructure to support collaboration and create the internal conditions for mutual learning is built’ (Harris, 2003, p.321).

Several research findings have highlighted the importance of teacher leadership. Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) underscore that leadership distribution to teachers has a

positive influence on teacher effectiveness and student engagement. Day and his colleagues (2007, p.17) emphasized the effect of ‘substantial leadership distribution on school success and the improvement of pupil learning outcomes’. York-Barr and Duke (2004, p.258-259) summarize the benefits of TL into four categories:

- a. benefits of employee participation: since additional person power is needed to run the organizational operations, employee participation can inform management and lead to more effective decisions as well as bring greater ownership and commitment to organizational goals.
- b. expertise about teaching and learning: teachers can substantially contribute to educational improvement given their expertise about teaching and learning. This expertise increases teacher quality and advancements in teaching and learning.
- c. acknowledgment, opportunities, and rewards for accomplished teachers: teacher leadership catered for the desire to recruit, retain, motivate and reward accomplished teachers, while acknowledging teachers’ expertise and providing opportunities for them to grow.
- d. benefits to students: students gain a lot when they observe and experience participative and democratic forms of management themselves. Also, such forms of management cause higher teacher morale and better decisions about school improvement (Barth, 2001).

Acknowledging the benefits of teacher leadership both for teachers themselves as well as their pupils, several countries (USA, United kingdom, Australia) have attempted educational reforms (‘A Nation At Risk’, ‘A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the Twenty First Century’, etc.), where teacher leadership was seen to be the key factor for this improvement (Frost & Durrant, 2003). For teacher leadership to take place, a climate of collaboration based on communication, sharing and opportunities for teachers to work together should exist. As Frost and Durrant (2003, p.3) note, ‘it is not a matter of delegation, direction or distribution of responsibility but rather a matter of teachers’ agency and their choice in initiating and sustaining change’. Therefore, the principle of teacher leadership is at the core of building professional learning communities in schools

quite simply because it is premised upon teachers working in collaboration to learn with and from each other.

1.2 The research problem

The European report on the quality of school education (European Commission, 2001) constitutes very useful benchmark for European educational national policies and reforms. It consists of sixteen indicators on the quality of school education in relation to attainment, success and transition, monitoring for evaluation, resources and structures. Greece's performance in relation to these sixteen indicators as well as its performance in PISA comparative mechanisms of quality assurance shows the educational challenges that Greece has to face. More comparative mechanisms of quality assurance, such as the use of external assessment of learning or external evaluation of schools and teaching or any other comparative mechanism of quality assurance, would provide more reliable indicators on the quality and effectiveness of the system. OECD shows that Greece's performance on PISA shows both that it lags behind many OECD countries and that its performance has improved at a far slower rate than other countries facing similar conditions (OECD, 2011). For this reason, they recommend Greece specific educational policy advice.

Improving the quality of education in Greece has become more critical and urgent than ever. Greece's educational system has to be altered and adjusted to offer Greek students equal chances of being successful in the global setting with their international mates. The important contribution of teachers to school improvement has been established by research (Frost & Durrant, 2003, Barth, 2001; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). Furthermore, the emergence of teachers who taught well and demonstrated leadership capacities at the same time has led to the concept of teacher leadership as a critical factor in sustaining changes in schools. In Greece, school leadership continues to be largely centred on the principal and this practice raises concerns on whether one leader has all the time, energy, and expertise required to lead reform (Spillane, 2006), since even the most promising initiatives are likely to fail when left in the hands of only one person.

Under these theoretical advancements on the aspect of teacher leadership, it is of interest and of value to determine whether teacher leadership exists in Greek public schools as it does in other educational systems, and, if it does, to understand its nature and explore its contributions to school improvement efforts. Although literature supports the highly beneficial effects of teacher leadership upon schools and students specifically in the USA, Canada and Australia (Harris & Muijs, 2003), there is no published research on the nature and impact of teacher leadership within the Greek public educational context. Even if there are many stories about teachers who seem to be making a difference for their schools, little attention has been given to teacher leadership in the Greek setting. One reason for this could be the extremely high-centralized top-down approach characteristic of the Greek public education system.

1.3 The research question

The broad focus of this study is teacher leadership and, in particular, an exploration of teacher leadership in public secondary schools (junior and senior high schools) in Greece. The research aims to provide contemporary evidence of teacher leadership in action in the Greek context. To that end, the study investigates teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership based on the following four factors of teacher leadership: supra-practitioner, sharing expertise, sharing leadership, and principal selection (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Moreover, the following research questions are investigated:

1. What are the differences in teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership according to gender and age?
2. What are the differences in teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership according to different degree levels attained and years of teaching experience?
3. What are the differences in teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership according to type of school?

This study, thus, seeks to understand the nature of teacher leadership in secondary schools in Greece as well as its relation to the above independent variables.

1.4 The Greek context

The Greek public educational system consists of ten years of mandatory education (one in nursery schools, six years of elementary education and three years of high school (gymnasio) and three more years of high school (lykeio) which are optional. According to ELSTAT there are 1,725 junior high schools (gymnasia) and 1,269 senior high schools (lykeia) throughout the country. The administrative structure of Greek school system could be divided in four levels of administration depending on the degree of power and the geographical position of the services (Saiti, 2009):

- a. The national level consisting of the central office of the Department of Education,
- b. The regional level consisting of the Regional offices of Education,
- c. The prefectural level consisting of the Prefectural offices of Education, and
- d. The school level consisting of the Principals and vice principals.

According to Weber (1947) schools are bureaucracies, meaning that they are structures with hierarchy of authority, objective standards, division of labor, rules and regulations. As such, they present two important features. Formalization refers to formal rules and procedures, and centralization of authority is determined by how organization decision making is delivered (Hoy & Sweetland, 2001). Within this perspective, the Greek educational system presents high degree of centralization, and as a result, uniform planning and control (Ιορδανίδης, 2002). Koutouzis and his co-authors' research (2008) led to the conclusion that Greek educational system remains highly centralized and bureaucratic and does not provide enough space for school autonomy nor substantial management (Koutouzis et al., 2008). Despite ministry's efforts towards introducing a decentralized educational system (OECD, 2011, FEK 1566/1985), the function of all the composing units of the system depends on central administration. The global concern around the issues of school effectiveness and upgrading of all stakeholders involved in educational processes gave rise to the discussion about the necessity of making changes to the central educational policy (Katsaros, 2008).

1.5 Significance and value of the study

Despite the fact that many studies relating to the concept of teacher leadership can be found, there is not enough research in the literature concerning the way teachers perceive the teacher-leader role in the context of schools in the literature (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). This study intends to contribute to the expansion of knowledge on teaching and school leadership in a variety of ways. First of all, the study explores teachers' experiences, thus shedding light to the current situation in Greek secondary schools in relation to school leadership. As a result, the study both encourages readers to question the principal-centred leadership as well as brings to the foreground the idea of distributed leadership as a sustainable leadership option. The present study being the first on teacher leadership in Greek public schools adds to the findings made from similar studies on teacher leadership in other countries. In the future, other researchers might wish to conduct future surveys on the same topic to validate or expand its findings.

The study of teacher perceptions is important for the additional reason that teacher leadership is approached from the teachers' perspective rather than solely from the aspect of formal and informal school leaders. Smylie (1995) points out that the focus of most research on teacher leadership had been on formal leadership roles rather than more informal emergent forms of teacher leadership. Therefore, this study aims to expand that scope by including teachers involved in both formal and informal leadership roles.

Angelle and DeHart (2011) believe the disparity in view of teacher-leadership affects researchers' ability to understand perceptions of the work of teacher-leaders. More specifically, a clear understanding of what existing differences in teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership will benefit daily educational practice. This in turn may permit the effective practice of teacher leadership in schools as well as the addition or improvement of teacher development programmes.

Educational research does not offer sufficient insight into the way teachers realize teacher leadership with the means of a quantitative survey. However, the results of a quantitative

research could be exploited in a variety of ways, so that areas for future research are identified and people involved in educational matters, such as policy makers, take the results into consideration for future reference. In this case, educational policy makers will be able to draw conclusions concerning professional development and school policy regarding teacher leader roles. These future implications can encourage educational policy makers to implement school reforms, such as school-culture improvement and teacher leadership with the aim of enabling school vision to improve (Angelle & DeHart, 2011).

1.6 Operational definitions

The study was based upon certain theories and concepts and employs specific vocabulary. The following terms are defined to enhance understanding of the study:

- Distributed leadership: it is viewed as ‘a group activity that works through and within relationships, rather than individual action (Bennett et al. 2003, p. 3)
- Teacher-leadership: the ‘set of skills demonstrated by teachers who continue to teach students but also have an influence that extends beyond their own classrooms to others within their own school and elsewhere’ (Danielson, 2006, p.12)
- Teacher-leaders: they willingly assume additional roles, responsibilities, or other actions (Danielson, 2007), driven by an urge to improve the quality of student education (Silva et al., 2000) and contribute to better student learning outcomes (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008)
- Formal leaders are leaders who occupy formal leadership roles, such as principals, vice principals, coordinators, or teacher mentors, while informal leaders do not hold any official formal roles (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Efficient school leadership is not exclusive to formal positions, but is distributed across a number of individuals in a school (Eurydice, 2011)
- Professional learning: teachers learn and share as discrete units, or they form professional learning communities, where a school-wide culture that makes

collaboration ‘expected, inclusive, genuine, ongoing, and focused on critically examining practice to improve student outcomes’ (Seashore, Anderson & Riedel, 2003, p. 3)

- High School: a secondary education school from year 7 to 13 consisting of junior high school (gymnasio), from year 7 to 10, and senior high school (lykeio) from year 11 to 13.

1.7 Organization of the dissertation

The present study is organized into five chapters.

It begins with Chapter 1 outlining the background of the study. The purpose of the study is discussed along with a reference to the main research questions of the study.

Chapter 2 presents a review of relevant literature that informed the study. The review covers the concept and evolution of teacher leadership within the distributed leadership framework, the characteristics of teacher leaders, the benefits of and concerns on teacher leadership as well as the context required for teacher leadership to thrive.

Chapter 3 discusses the research design and methodology of the study.

In Chapter 4, the findings of the study are presented in relation to each research question and the implications of the findings are discussed.

1.8 Summary

The introduction has provided a background on the issue of school leadership within the distributed leadership framework. The contemporary emphasis on teacher leadership is attributed to the benefits teacher leadership has been associated with. While the concept of teachers carrying on leadership responsibilities might not be entirely new, the existence of a group of teachers who are both exceptional teachers and effective leaders

may make a critical difference to Greece's efforts to provide quality education to the students in schools. This study explores the nature of teacher leadership in secondary schools in Greece. Relevant literature against which the data emerging from this study will be analyzed is presented in the next chapter in order to provide a foundation for the understanding of the concept discussed.

2 Chapter 2 Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction

While the idea of school leadership being synonymous with principals' leadership was losing ground, the 'recognition that the work of leadership involves multiple individuals including teacher leaders' (Spillane & Sherer, 2004, p.6) was steadily establishing. According to the literature, the role of teachers is invaluable concerning the development of schools (Barth, 2001; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009), mainly due to the fact that teachers are familiar with the classroom situations and are therefore able to implement changes in order to enhance students' learning (Harris & Muijs, 2005; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). This chapter concentrates on the concept of teacher leadership and discusses its features with reference to distributed leadership. Following, it focuses on issues related to the application of teacher leadership and underlines the importance of several factors determining the development and practice of teacher leadership.

2.2 Defining Teacher Leadership

Many researchers doubted the belief which associated leadership with the highest levels of an organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2006) and claimed that those in leadership positions should 'create the conditions where professional knowledge and skills are enhanced, where effective leadership exists, at all levels, and where the entire organisation is working interdependently in the collective pursuit of better outcomes' (Harris, 2013, p.551). The important role of teachers in school leadership has been repeatedly highlighted in literature. Frost and Durrant (2003, p.1) articulated that 'whether the impetus for change springs from national reforms or from the perception of a single teacher that something could be better, improvements in teaching and learning ultimately depend on the action taken by teachers'.

Harris (2003) supported that teachers are in a position to lead change, guide organizational development and improvement and maintained that success is more likely to occur when teachers are offered opportunities to lead development and change (Harris, 2008). The support for teacher leadership is based on the belief that teachers have the potential to make a difference to learning and learners since they are closest to the classroom (Harris & Muijs, 2005; York-Barr and Duke, 2004), know their classrooms, the culture of their school, and the support they need to perform their jobs (NCCTQ, 2007). As a consequence, the practice of leadership evolved to detach from formal leadership positions.

Although early teacher leadership was initially embedded in formal roles with distinct responsibilities (Bradley-Levine, 2017), teachers' roles as middle-managers expanded to include expert positions such as curriculum or staff developer (Little, 2003) and finally shifted to a focus to colleague support roles such as mentors, offering opportunities for more teachers to become leaders (Bradley-Levine, 2017) and 'change agents' (Fullan, 1993) whether or not they have formal roles. This shift is best exemplified by Frost and Durrant (2003, p.4), who do not view teacher leadership 'in terms of the extent to which teachers can be persuaded to take on management roles', but through a more inclusive perspective.

This move beyond formal roles is noticed in teacher leadership definitions, which emphasize that teacher leaders are in a position to influence their colleagues outside of formal leadership roles. Despite the scarce definitions of teacher leadership, possibly due to the 'the expansive territory encompassed under the umbrella term 'teacher leadership' (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p.260), there is a common agreement among the researchers that teacher leadership extends beyond classroom settings. York-Barr and Duke (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of teacher leadership research since the early 1990s and came to the following definition of teacher leadership:

'(it) is the process by which teachers, individually or collectively, influence their colleagues, principals, and other members of school communities to improve teaching and learning practices with the aim of increased student learning and achievement.' (287-288)

Similarly, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) characterize teacher leaders as those who ‘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). In Danielson’s (2006) definition, teacher leadership is viewed as a ‘set of skills demonstrated by teachers who continue to teach students but also have an influence that extends beyond their own classrooms to others within their school and elsewhere’ (p.12).

There are certain aspects that teacher definitions seem to share. First of all, they share the aspect of collaboration and influence among teachers. Unlike traditional notions of leadership, the framework of teacher leadership entails that teachers are offered opportunities to leave the isolation of their classrooms to cooperate with their colleagues (Dozier, 2007) and to seek and find additional challenges and growth chances (IEL, 2001). Teacher leaders also encourage their colleagues to perform things more effectively (Danielson, 2006) with the intention of improving the teaching and learning practices as well as ‘increased student learning and achievement’ (York-Bar & Duke, 2004, p.288). Moreover, the definitions share the view of teacher leadership as a process, which signifies the centrality of interactions among leaders, followers and their situation that Spillane (2006) attributes to distributed leadership.

Above all, however, teacher leadership places emphasis on collective action, empowerment and shared agency and it is ‘centrally and exclusively concerned with the idea that all organizational members can lead and that leadership is a form of agency that [can] be distributed or shared’ (Harris, 2003, p.317). Teacher leadership is closely related to a larger number of members of an organization being concerned with the success of the school (Harris, 2003), involved with decision-making and taking part in creating and transferring knowledge, or what Sergiovanni (2001) calls ‘leadership density’. Those features of distributed leadership traced in the teacher leadership approach are presented in the following part of the chapter.

2.3 Teacher Leadership within the Distributed Leadership framework

As early as 1950s, a social psychologist, Cecil Gibb (1947) suggested that leadership is the outcome of group dynamics, and not just the person designated as leader. His statement entailed that leadership is distributed by definition. The next decades saw school principals as the sole leaders and perceived school leaders as powerful and charismatic (Northouse, 2004) before distributed leadership theory advocated that schools ‘decentre’ the leader (Harris, 2003, p.317).

Harris (2003, p.317) underlines that distributed leadership theory is ‘particularly helpful in providing greater conceptual clarity around the terrain of teacher leadership’. First of all, it incorporates the activities of multiple groups of individuals in a school who work at guiding and mobilizing staff in the instructional change process’ (Spillane et al., 2001, p.20). Secondly, it implies that leadership is distributed among a number of individuals and it is the interaction of multiple leaders that determine leadership task accomplishment (Spillane et al., 2001). A third reason is that distributed leadership ‘implies interdependence rather than dependency embracing how leaders of various kinds and in various roles share responsibility’ (Harris, 2003, p.317).

2.4 Definition of Distributed Leadership

One of the findings from recent studies on effective leadership is that authority to lead should not be located in the person of the leader but can be distributed among school members (MacBeath, 1998; Day et al., 2000). Although a commonly accepted definition of the concept of distributed leadership cannot be found (Bennett et al., 2003), definitions share the common belief that leadership is distributed among the various members of organizations. Harris (2004, p.14) defines distributed leadership as ‘a form of collective agency incorporating the activities of many individuals in a school who work at mobilizing and guiding other teachers in the process of instructional change’. Jones and his colleagues (2012) describe distributed leadership in their project report as follows:

'a form of shared leadership that is underpinned by a more collective and inclusive philosophy than traditional leadership theory that focuses on skills, traits and behaviours of individual leaders'(p.71)

Distributed leadership is often interchangeably used with 'shared leadership', 'team leadership' and 'democratic leadership'. However, distributed leadership is associated with the involvement of multiple leaders or the practice of school leadership, and is viewed as an organizational quality (Spillane, 2005). Instead of talking about distributed leadership, Spillane (2006) prefers to talk about a distributed perspective because this suggests that leadership is a collective activity that necessarily involves interaction (Frost 2008). As Spillane (2006) explains:

From a distributed perspective, leadership involves mortals as well as heroes. It involves the many and not just the few. It is about leadership practice, not simply roles and positions. And leadership practice is about interaction, not just the actions of heroes. (p.4)

From a distributed perspective, leadership is viewed as agency. Distributed leadership has been described as 'a form of collective agency incorporating the activities of many individuals in a school who work at mobilizing and guiding other teachers in the process of instructional change' (Harris, 2004, p. 14). Therefore, the foundation in a distributed conceptual framework lies in the relationship between leaders, followers, and the leadership practice. Spillane (2006) adds the situation as another important element in the leadership dynamics and indicates that 'collective interactions among leaders, followers and their situation are paramount' for distributed leadership practice (p.4). The elements of distributed leadership are presented in more detail in the following section.

2.5 Components of Distributed Leadership

Scholars argue that school leadership should no longer be defined by position of the principalship but instead by the product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and their 'situations' (Spillane et al., 2001). Along with leaders, followers shape leadership practice as well. In this sense leadership is more appropriately understood as 'fluid and emergent, rather than a fixed phenomenon' (Gronn 2000, p.324). It reflects the

view that every person in one way or another can demonstrate leadership (Goleman et al., 2002). This does not mean that everyone is a leader, or should be, but it offers the possibility for a more democratic and collective form of leadership (Harris, 2003, p.317).

Situation involves tools, organizational routines, structures, and other aspects of the situation. According to Spillane and Sherer (2004, p.31), situation ‘is both constitutive of and constituted in leadership activity’, since it is both the medium and outcome of leadership activity, and ‘offers particulars (e.g. tools of various kinds, organizational structures, routines, language) that contribute to defining leadership practice as an interaction with people’ (Spillane & Sherer, 2004, p.8). Within this framework, ‘situation or context does not simply ‘affect’ what school leaders do as some sort of independent or interdependent variable; it defines leadership practice in interaction with leaders and followers’ (Spillane & Sherer, 2004, p.9).

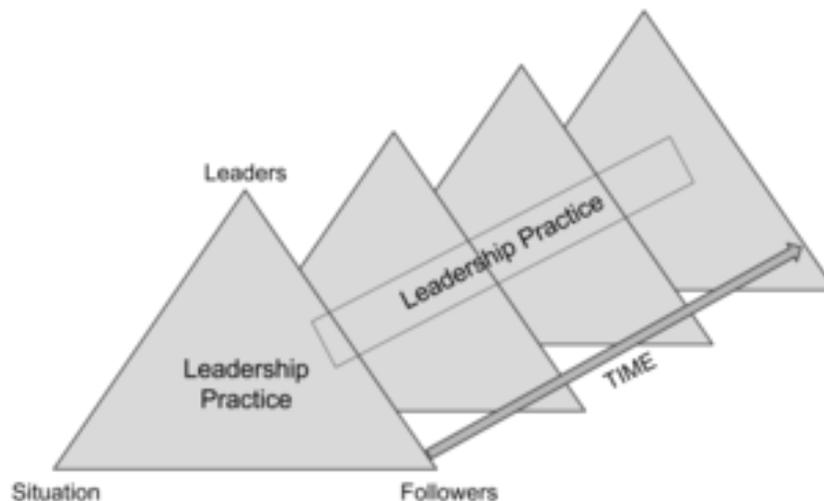


Figure 2.1: Distributed Leadership Framework

Spillane’s figure (2006) represents leadership practice as a triangle, each angle representing one of the three essential elements. The single triangles represent the interactions among leaders, followers and the situation at a given time, while the multiple triangles represent the multiple interactions which emphasize the importance of time. Interactions can be more or less connected with one another during several instances.

Traditional leadership approaches neglect ‘the kinds of leadership that can be distributed among many roles and functions in the school’ (Harris, 2004, p.12). However, expansion of the leadership functions and roles to various individuals in the organization constitutes an essential component in a distributed leadership framework, or the ‘leader-plus aspect’ suggested by Spillane (2006). The ‘leader-plus aspect’ acknowledges that ‘leading and managing schools can involve multiple individuals’, not only the ones ‘in formal leadership positions such as principals, assistant principals, and specialists but also individuals who are not formally designated leaders’ (Spillane et al., 2009, p.49). Therefore, the Distributed Leadership framework recognizes that a net of individuals beyond those in formal leadership roles is involved in managing and leading schools (Frost, 2005; Elmore, 2000) and underlines the importance of incorporating teachers in school leadership practices (Heller & Firestone, 1995; Marzano, 2003).

This feature of distributed leadership is explained by Woods, Bennett, Harvey, and Wise (2004) under the distinctive element of openness of boundaries, which means that distributed leadership is predisposed to widen the conventional net of leaders’ (p.442). As a result, this possibility raises the question of which groups and individuals could possibly be included in the net of leaders and how wide the boundary should be. Woods et al. (2004) notice that much of the literature examines the concept of distributed leadership in relation to teachers. However, they suggest that other members of the school community could be considered, for example the students themselves. Moreover, when distributed leadership is discussed, the boundary opens to involve parents and other stakeholders as well.

Apart from the leader-plus aspect of distributed leadership, Spillane et al. (2009) put forward the practice aspect of distributed leadership. The practice aspect ‘foregrounds the practice of leading and managing’ and ‘frames practice as a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers and aspects of their situation’ (p.49). They also claim that people’s actions are important in studying practice, yet ‘interactions are paramount in efforts to understand the practice from a distributed perspective (2009, p.49). Spillane’s practice-centred model highlighted distributed leadership as going beyond shared

leadership, because it not only comprised the leader-plus aspect but also the practice aspect and seemed to have fundamentally changed the unit of analysis from people to practice (Tian et al, 2016).

On the other hand, Gronn (2002a, 2003) built the second highly influential model on the conceptualisation of distributed leadership. He established the numerical–concertive model, which corresponds to Spillane’s (2006) leader-plus and practice-centred aspects. According to the numeric or additive view, distributed leadership is ‘the sum of its parts - the aggregate of attributed influence in a group of individuals in which any member can exercise leadership, whereas the concertive model suggests a more holistic view, in which leadership ‘is demonstrated through synergies achieved by joint action’ (Fitzsimons et al., 2011, p.318). Gronn (2009) went on to articulate the need to move beyond distributed leadership and put forward ‘a case for hybridity as a more accurate representation of diverse patterns of practice which fuse or coalesce hierarchical and hierarchical elements of emergent activities’ (p.214). The hybrid model he built after reviewing a number of empirical studies detached distributed leadership from the individual-collective and formal-informal continuums. The model acknowledges that individual leaders are equally significant and simultaneously co-exist with collective forms of leadership (Tian et al., 2016).

Studying the actions of individuals or aggregating their actions is insufficient; a distributed perspective frames practice as a product of the interactions, thus it requires a systemic and collective understanding of leadership as a social process (Barker, 2001; Hosking, 1988), which emerges through the interactions of multiple actors (Uhl-Bien, 2006). This social aspect is also emphasized by Benett et al. (2003) who describe distributed leadership as a group activity that works through and within relationships, rather than actions. As Gronn (2002a, p.28) highlights, it is not the agency of individuals, but the ‘structurally constrained conjoint agency, or the concertive labour performed by pluralities of interdependent organization members’ that is central to the idea of distributed leadership. Gronn observes three main patterns in concertive action (2002a: p.657):

- a. Spontaneous collaboration reflects bursts of synergy when groupings of individuals with different skills and abilities, perhaps from across different organizational levels, ‘pool their expertise and regularise their conduct to solve a problem, after which they may disband’.
- b. Intuitive working relations, emerge over time ‘as two or more organizational members come to rely on one another and develop close working relations’.
- c. Institutionalized practice ‘can be seen in the tendency to institutionalise formal structures’ arising from design or through less systematic adaptation.

Gronn (2000) suggests that distributed leadership implies a different power relationship within the school where the distinctions between followers and leaders tend to blur. He puts forward a theory of action based on the idea of conjoint agency. In activity theory, leadership is more of a collective phenomenon. As Gronn (2000, p.331) puts it ‘the potential for leadership is present in the flow of activities in which a set of organization members find themselves enmeshed’. Activity theory is describing social life ‘as a process of ever-moving relationships between technologies, nature, ideas (concepts), persons and communities, in which the focus of action circulates to one person, then another, according to the social and environmental context and the flow of action within this’ (Bennett et al., 2003, p.16).

During the process and development of leadership practices, the interactions that take place represent the core of the distributed leadership practice. Understanding interactions involves ‘unpacking how leadership practice is stretched over leaders. One way to do this is by analyzing the interdependencies among leaders’ actions’ (Spillane, 2006, p.57), which shape social activity. Gronn (2000) reconceptualizes distributed leadership as a socially distributed activity theory, where the activity connects the organizational structures with the agency, or actions, and agents.

Bolden (2011) highlights that one of the main distinctions ‘between distributed leadership and more traditional approaches is its attempt to offer a systemic perspective on

leadership rather than positioning itself as a distinct theory per se' (p.257). As Spillane (2006) suggests:

More importantly, what is likely to be more salient is not the fact that leadership is distributed but how leadership is distributed [...] A distributed perspective on leadership can coexist with and be used beneficially to explore hierarchical and top-down leadership approaches. (p.102-103)

Influenced by and building on Gronn's (2000) socially distributed activity principles and Elmore's (2000) social distribution perspectives of leadership, Spillane (2006) has identified three categories of leadership practice distribution: collaborated distribution, collective distribution, and coordinated distribution, which offer clarity to the conceptual framework of leadership:

- a. Collaborated distribution: Spillane and Sherer (2004, p.14) clarify that collaborated distribution 'denotes where one leader's practice becomes the basis for another leader's practice and vice-versa; the practice takes place in the interaction among leaders and there is a reciprocal interdependency'. Therefore, collaborated distribution 'involves a reciprocal interdependency, in which the actions of different leaders involve input from one another in co-performing a leadership routine' (Spillane, 2006, p.61).
- b. Collective distribution involves leaders co-performing and working towards a shared leadership routine separately, yet still interdependently of each other. This type of distribution is especially important in this study, since it provides insight into the motivation, ability and action of teachers. In other words, teachers work independently, yet they share the mission and the goals of their school.
- c. Coordinated distribution describes leadership practices formed by tasks that are to be completed sequentially in order for the leadership routine to be performed by leaders either independently or together.

The research on distributive leadership as a conceptual framework is promising in addressing important aspects of school leadership. Widening the scope of leadership decision-making by stretching and distributing these functions among various members

of the organization provides autonomy, collegiality, collaboration, communication, empowerment, involvement, problem solving, and the creation of opportunities for professional growth (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1998).

2.6 Concerns about Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership partly arose ‘from the growing recognition that principals and other senior leaders are overloaded, particularly in education systems with high levels of decentralization to the school level’ (Bush 2013, p. 40) and the enormous increase of their responsibilities. In contemporary, information-rich society distributed leadership has special relevance and applicability, since it could be a response to ‘the intensification of administrators’ work’ (Gronn, 2002b, p.23). Harris (2007) suggests that distributed leadership should not be taken at face value since there are critical questions which require serious empirical research. Certain questions should be addressed, for example whether distributed leadership is a way for government reforms to deliver standardized packages or whether distributed leadership constitutes a democratic consensus joining the entire community (Hargreaves & Fink, 2008). Furthermore, since all leaders or people undertaking leadership tasks may not be good leaders (Kellerman, 2004), Timperley (2005) suggests that the distribution of leadership might be perilous because it may result in distributing incompetence. This is why he suggests that distributing leadership ‘is only desirable if the quality of the leadership activities contributes to assisting teachers to provide more effective instruction to their students’ (Timperley, 2005, p.417).

According to Fitzgerald and Gunter (2006) distributed leadership could be considered as a form of disguised managerialism, urging teachers to do more work. Furthermore, distributed leadership can be challenged because of ‘the complexities of who does the distribution and who is in receipt of distribution’ (Gunter & Ribbins, 2003, p.132). Polka and Litchka (2008) provide valuable insights into the ways in which leaders can create professional victims. The findings illuminate the potential for bullying by those in positions of power, especially when leadership is distributed unwisely and placed in the wrong hands. Tian et al. (2016) identify the risks of applying distributed leadership as a

form of providing teachers with autonomy with a leading rein. For this reason, they propose that distributed leadership should be defined and studied ‘in terms of leadership as a process that comprises both organizational and individual scopes; the former regards leadership as a resource and the latter as an agency’ (p.156).

Based on England’s educational policy reforms towards distributed leadership, Gunter (2015) raises questions regarding whether these reforms aim at educational leadership or functional delivery and outcome measures. Fitzgerald and Gunter (2006, p.6) question whether it is possible for ‘distributed leadership to occur in a policy climate that affords authority and responsibility for leadership and management to those labeled according to an established hierarchy’. What they actually imply is that several school structures oppose distributed leadership practice. For these reasons, it is imperative that any consideration of distributed leadership or any other alternative model of leadership must be theoretically and empirically tested. Harris (2008) highlights that:

Finally, we must not fall into the trap of believing that any form of distributed leadership is inherently good. It depends. It depends on the growth state of the organisation, its readiness to change, its culture and its developmental needs. It depends upon the pattern of distribution and its purpose. It depends upon the relationships, trust and culture of the organisation.(p.184)

Within this framework of structural changes so that contemporary educational needs are met, teachers’ roles and responsibilities change. Hence, it is important for the study to present a clear and comprehensive grasp of aspects related to the importance of teacher leadership as well as the ways it is operationalized as an approach to distributed leadership. The interactions among leaders, followers and the situation that Spillane (2006) attributes to distributed leadership are signified by the term ‘process’ in the teacher leadership definition by York-Barr and Duke (2004) cited further above.

2.7 Characteristics and Practices of teacher leaders

Over the past, the practice of teacher leadership has been increased through programmatic efforts, such as mentor teacher programs, teacher career ladders, and shared governance (Hart, 1995), or professional development schools whose aim was to offer both pre-service as well as in-service teacher education (Book, 1996). More recently, teacher leadership has expanded to include leadership practiced through more informal means of leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). The Institute of Educational Leadership (IEL, 2001) published a report that defines what teacher leadership encompasses:

‘Teacher leadership is not about ‘teacher power’. Rather, it is about mobilizing the still largely untapped attributes of teachers to strengthen student performance at ground level and working toward real collaboration, a locally tailored kind of shared leadership, in the daily life of the school (p.4)

Crowther and his colleagues (2002, p.38) use the term parallel leadership to indicate the ‘relatedness between teacher leaders and administrator leaders that activates and sustains the knowledge-generating capacity of schools’. The aspects of teacher leadership are presented in Katzenmeyer and Moller’s (2001) three facets of teacher leadership. Teacher leadership involves:

- a. leadership of students or other teachers: teacher leaders may be facilitators, coaches, mentors, trainers, curriculum specialists, creating new approaches and leading study groups;
- b. leadership of operational tasks: teacher leaders keep the school organised and moving towards its goals, through roles as Head of Department, action researcher, member of task forces;
- c. leadership through decision making or partnership: teacher leaders are members of school improvement teams and committees, instigators of partnerships with business, higher education institutions and parent-teacher associations.

When teachers become leaders, they extend their presence beyond the classroom to seek challenges and opportunities for growth opportunities (IEL, 2001) by providing input at

meetings, sharing best practices, working with the community, working with university faculties, and mentoring teacher candidates (Petrie, 1995). Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) suggest that teachers are more ready to become teacher leaders when they have acquired excellent professional teaching skills, as well as a clear and well-developed personal philosophy of education, when their career stage enables them to give to others, and when their personal life stage permits them to devote time and energy to assume a position of leadership. According to York-Barr and Duke (2004) teachers who are in their midcareer and their midlife are best suited to demonstrate high levels of teaching competence. This stage coincides with Huberman's (1989) mid-career teachers life cycle, when teachers are experienced, feel confident about their professional skills and knowledge, and experiment with new approaches and activities.

Further dimensions of the teacher leadership role have been identified by other researchers (Harris & Muijs , 2003). Harris (2002) suggests four discernible and discrete dimensions of the teacher leadership role.

- a. The 'brokering' role of teacher leadership concerns the way in which teachers translate the principles of school improvement into the practices of individual classrooms and safeguards that links within schools are secure and that opportunities for meaningful development among teachers are maximised.
- b. The participative role of teacher leadership implies that all teachers feel part of the change or development and have a sense of ownership. Teacher leaders cooperate with other teachers to bind to a particular development and to cultivate a more collaborative way of working (Blasé & Anderson, 1995).
- c. Teacher leaders fulfilling their mediating role are important sources of expertise and information and are able to draw critically upon additional resource and expertise if required.
- d. The fourth dimension relates to establishing close relationships with individual teachers through which mutual learning takes place.

The last dimension of teacher leadership has been consistently underlined as a necessary prerequisite for school improvement and change. Collaboration is at the heart of teacher

leadership, since it is premised upon change that is achieved collectively. Teacher leadership has to embrace mutual trust and support so that it is most effective. As West and his colleagues (2000) point out:

If this leadership potential is to be realised, then it will have to be grounded in a commitment to learn and develop that inhabits the structures of schools as well as the classroom – it is likely that the school will conceive and act differently from the traditional explanations of leadership and structure. (p.39)

For Barth (1999) teacher leadership extends beyond just collaborating or participating in decision making. He views teacher leadership as fulfilling some of the functions possibly undertaken by senior management, such as choosing textbooks and instructional materials or shaping the curriculum. This view of teacher leaders as collaborators with senior management in decision making on particular features of school policy has been underlined in literature (Gehrke, 1991). In particular, it constitutes one of several conditions that can influence the practice of teacher leadership, as is shown in the following section of the chapter.

2.8 Conditions that influence TL

Frost concluded in one of his articles that their theory about teacher leadership is that ‘teachers can lead innovation, build professional knowledge, develop their leadership capacity and influence colleagues and practice in their schools, provided they have the appropriate support structures and strategies’ (2012, p.223). Several preconditions are necessary for teacher leadership to flourish. Harris (2003, p.319-320) notes the following three conditions. First of all, it is necessary that time is set aside for teachers so that they are able to meet to plan and discuss issues such as curriculum matters, developing school-wide plans, leading study groups, organizing visits to other schools, collaborating with Higher Education Institutions, and collaborating with colleagues.

Secondly, there need to be rich and diverse opportunities for continuous professional development, focusing both on the development of teachers’ skills and knowledge, but also on aspects specific to their leadership role. More particularly, professional

development should include developing skills such as leading groups and workshops, collaborative work, mentoring, teaching adults, action research, collaborating with others so that teachers are effectively helped to adapt to the new roles involved (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). Last but not least, Harris (2003) outlines that one of the main areas of capacity building for teacher leadership is the development of teacher's self-confidence. Collaborating with teachers in other schools, experimenting with new teaching approaches, disseminating their findings to colleagues significantly enhance the potential for teacher leadership significantly enhanced (Darling-Hammond, 1990).

The conditions that influence teacher leadership summarized by York-Barr and Duke (2004, p.268-269) are school culture and context, structures and roles and relationships. Schein (1985, p.6) defines culture as 'the deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization, that operate unconsciously and define in a basic 'taken for granted' fashion an organization's view of its self and its environment'. A positive organizational culture is bound to increase teachers' capacity seeing that shared responsibility leads to the accomplishment of organizational goals (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Further, Fullan (2001) highlights the importance of school culture and leadership, since leaders act as change agents and can alter the teaching and learning culture of schools.

In relation to school culture and context mentioned above, it has been suggested that school practices (for example, principals' coordination ability, regular communication among staff) determine the degree of professionalism and teacher participation (Talbert & McLaughlin, 1994). With reference to structures, York-Barr and Duke (2004) note that newer conceptions emphasizing shared leadership and collaboration among teachers make it necessary for long-standing practices of school policy to change.

In relation to roles and relationships, York-Barr and Duke (2004) divide them into two categories, the relationships between teacher leaders and their colleagues and those between teacher leaders and their principals. First of all, a characteristic of teacher leaders is their ability to establish trusting and collaborative relationships (York-Barr &

Duke, 2004). The success of teacher leadership within a school highly depends on interpersonal factors and relationships with other teachers and the school management team (Katzenmeyer and Moller, 2001). Moreover, school principals have been found to play a key role in developing teacher leadership. If principals want to identify, develop and support teacher leaders in their schools, they need to encourage teachers to become leaders, help teachers develop leadership skills and provide positive and limited constructive feedback (Buckner & McDowelle, 2000). Similarly, research by Childs-Bowen, Moller and Scrivner (2000) indicate that principals need to create the infrastructure to support teacher leadership. This work highlights the importance of principals creating opportunities for teachers to lead, build professional learning communities and celebrate innovation and teacher expertise.

It is obvious from the evidence above that principal leadership constitutes a key success factor in school improvement (Hallinger & Heck, 2009). Frost (2012, p.223) highlights that school principals have to build the professional culture that contributes to good knowledge management, which ‘is a matter of orchestrating teacher-led innovation such that coherence and harmony are achieved within the school’. However, principals who cover only such areas as establishing a vision, acquiring resources for teachers, working to help individual teachers and other similar activities do not necessarily learn what is specifically needed to stimulate ongoing organizational improvement (Fullan, 2014). For this to happen, Fullan (2014) explains that principals must make both teacher learning as well as their own learning a priority. Therefore, the ability of principals to make progress a collective undertaking is equally important as acquiring skills for leading professional learning (Robinson, 2011).

This principals’ ability to make progress a collective undertaking is closely related to the feature of schools as learning organizations as one of the most important factors associated with school effectiveness (Sammons et al., 1996). As MacBeath (1998) explains school’s increased learning ability indicates its capacity for improvement, because ‘as we move towards the learning organization, the culture of the school becomes the knowledge carrier, spanning generations of staff’ (Macbeath & Mortimore,

2001, p.18). Leadership and learning are indispensable to each other, since leaders both need to learn and learn as they lead (Swaffield & MacBeath, 2009). Also, leadership and learning share same skills, such as reflection, problem-solving, and using prior experience. In particular, in schools 'leadership and learning are mutually embedded, so that as we learn we become more confident in sharing with, and leading others. And as we lead, we continuously reflect on, and enhance, our learning' (Swaffield & MacBeath, 2009, p.32).

Since teacher leadership is a form of leadership and professional development is a form of learning, Alexandrou and Swaffield (2012) explore the interrelationship between leadership and learning. They present the model of Leadership for Learning (LfL), based on conceptions of both leadership and learning as activity conjoined through agency and consisting of three principles. The first principle is a focus on learning. Teacher leadership is a form of learning, since it involves many opportunities for professional development. The second principle is related to conditions favourable to learning, thus emphasizing schools principals' roles in fostering such conditions that encourage both teacher leadership and professional development. The final principle is a sense of internal accountability that 'implies a commitment to self-evaluation on the part of everyone, and to acting on evidence in order to improve, with a view to sustainability, succession and leaving a legacy' (Alexandrou & Swaffield, 2012, p.161).

All those parameters are summarized in Boles' (1992) findings that the factors for successful teacher leadership included principal support, strong communicative and administrative skills, an understanding of organisational culture and a reexamination of traditional patterns of power and authority in school systems. Moreover, teachers' motivation to undertake a leadership role is also important. As Wagstaff & Reyes (1993) have pointed out, teacher leadership may lead to possible resentment unless teacher leaders are offered adequate compensation. Their argument is underpinned by the research which shows that teachers obtain intrinsic rewards through teacher leadership (such as increased effectiveness, increased influence, collegiality), but teacher leaders also assume strongly increased responsibilities. For this reason, only if teacher leaders

receive some form of remuneration or reward within the school, will they feel motivated to pursue their roles.

York-Barr and Duke (2004, p.289) carry out a review of the contemporary literature on teacher leadership and present a conceptual framework of teacher leadership shown in the following figure.

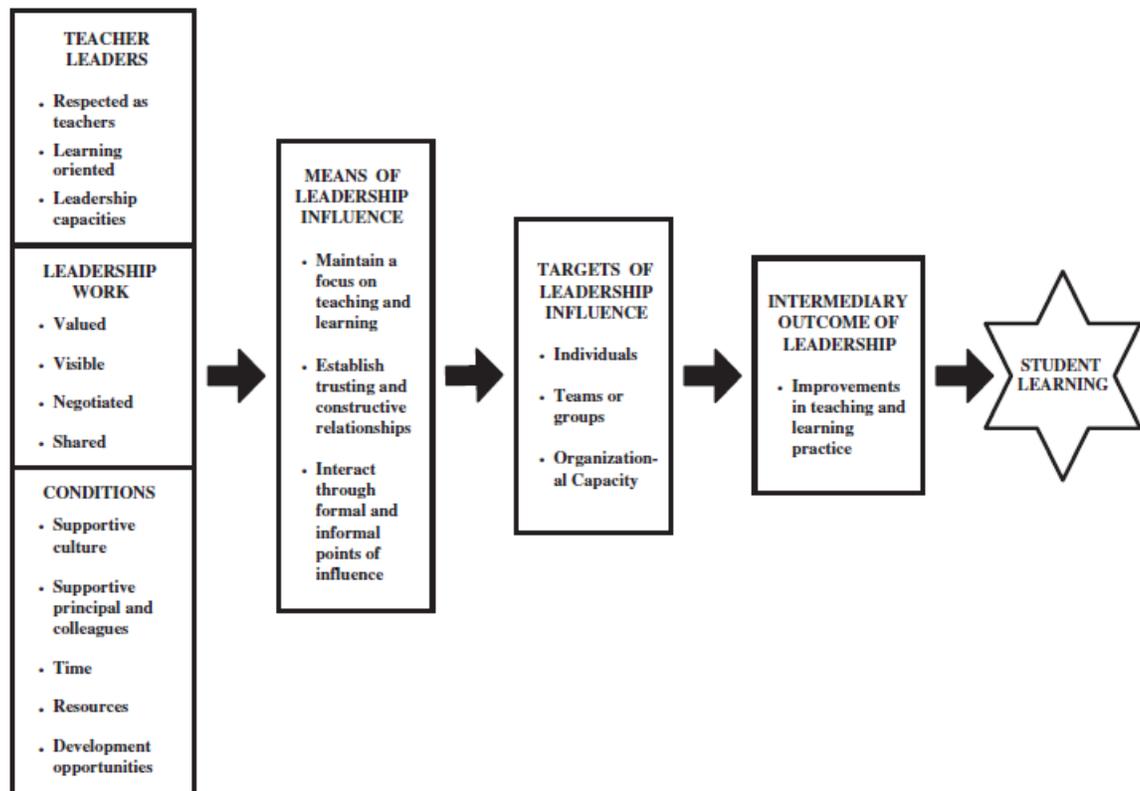


Figure 2.2: Teacher leadership for student learning: conceptual framework

The figure suggests a path teacher leaders can follow to influence student learning, which also serves as a theory of action for teacher leadership. According to the framework, there are seven major components. The first three constitute the foundation upon which teacher leadership is possible, in particular the characteristics of teacher leaders, the type of leadership work and the conditions supporting it. The next three components, namely the means, the targets and the intermediary outcomes of changes in teaching and learning practices, suggest the path by which teacher leaders can influence student learning. The

seventh component is student learning and the theory of learning is completed in this way.

Frost's (2008) research indicates a potential for teachers to take on the challenge of leading innovation and improvement. More particularly, whenever schools operate as a 'professional learning community' (Hargreaves, 2007, p.3), teachers are committed to sharing learning but 'also to the generation of a school-wide culture that makes teacher leadership an expectation' (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Frost (2008, p.340) further claims that teacher leadership is closely linked with the right of teachers 'to fulfill their human potential, which necessarily entails having influence over their surroundings and each other'. Towards this respect a number of educational initiatives in the UK (for instance, Continuing Professional Development, National College for School Leadership) have taken place to fund schools aiming at both improving the quality of professional learning as well as strengthening the capacity for continuous development (NCSL, 2002).

Teacher leadership has been gaining momentum 'because it recognizes that teachers' ability to lead has a significant influence upon the quality of relationships and teaching within the school' (Muijs & Harris, 2003, p.444-445). A lot of researchers argue that nurturing teachers as leaders is directly linked to school effectiveness, development and improvement (Elmore, 2000; Frost & Durrant, 2002; Marzano, 2003). Standards-based instruction, accountability, and a national focus on student improvement are some by-products that have emerged as a result of public demand for more effective schools and consequently, school restructuring. A move away from bureaucratic control and toward professionalization of teaching necessitates such a school restructuring that empowers teachers and fosters school-based shared decision-making (Blasé & Blasé, 2000).

2.9 Teacher leadership and school improvement

Research on school leadership theory and practice laid emphasis on teacher leadership and ignited discussions about increasing 'the status and rewards of teaching, so as to attract and retain intellectually talented individuals, to promote teaching excellence

through continuous improvement, to validate teacher knowledge about affective educational practices, and to increase teacher participation in decision making about classroom and organizational issues' (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p.256). Nowadays, teacher leadership is seen as an inseparable part of organizational development, since teachers should be actively involved at all levels and all domains of an organization (Spillane et al., 2001), both within and outside their classrooms (Ash & Pershall, 2000). Teacher leadership has been considered to be crucial to a school's capacity to improve itself (York-Barr & Duke, 2004) principally because of its potential to help counteract the limitations of the hierarchical model of school organization (Frost & Durrant, 2003).

First of all, teacher leaders are important in school reform because 'they lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, influence others toward improved educational practice, and accept responsibility for achieving the outcomes of their leadership' (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, p.6). However, only if schools move to a democratic model of school leadership, can teachers influence development and change (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001). It is imperative for schools to move away from traditional top-down management and encourage teachers to take responsibility (Harris & Muijs, 2003). Otherwise, students will be taught democratic values through lessons on citizenship, within a strictly hierarchical leadership school context (Barth, 1999).

Apart from school reform, teacher leadership makes a positive impact on teacher effectiveness. Smylie (1995) highlights that teacher leadership can improve teacher effectiveness in various ways. On the one hand, the attention to continuous learning and excellence in teaching can improve the quality of teachers. On the other hand, the emphasis on spreading good practice to colleagues can lead to enhanced teacher expertise throughout the school. In turn, the increased expertise and confidence of teachers, along with the greater responsibilities they are entrusted with, are bound to make teachers more willing to take risks and introduce innovative teaching methods, which will positively affect teacher effectiveness. Harris and Muijs (2002) come to the conclusion that effective schools lay emphasis on the teaching and learning processes and invest in

teacher development time, since teacher effectiveness has been shown to be directly linked with improved student performance. In their research to explore the effects of school and teacher leadership separately, as well as the effects of these two sources of leadership, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) indicate that teacher leadership influences student engagement and concluded that distributing a large proportion of current leadership activity to teachers would have a positive influence on teacher effectiveness as well as student engagement.

2.10 Summary

From the review of literature, it is clear that teacher leadership is not directly linked to formal leadership positions. Teacher leaders are willing to take an active role in teaching and learning in collaboration with both formal leaders and their colleagues. The emphasis given to teacher leadership is premised upon the belief that teacher leadership can positively affect school improvement and student achievement. For this reason, it is important for the particular context in which it occurs to favour the enactment of teacher leadership. The literature makes it clear that when leadership is distributed and teachers are deeply interested in their school development, school improvement is more likely to occur (Gronn, 2000). However, the concerns of the skeptics have to be addressed, should teacher leadership be able to reveal its potential and help schools move forward.

The next chapter gives consideration to the research design and presents the methodology followed for the needs of the purpose.

3 Chapter 3 Research design and methodology

3.1 Introduction

Distributed leadership has been found to offer an overwhelming number of potential benefits compared to traditional, hierarchical forms of leadership. It reduces the chances of error of single decisions and enhances opportunities for organizations to benefit from more members' capacities (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). Teacher leadership is one approach to distributing leadership in schools and it is more likely to emerge when distributed leadership exists in the context of practice (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Teacher leadership can positively influence teacher effectiveness and student engagement (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Activities associated with teacher leadership, such as teacher collaboration or professional networking, positively affect teachers' morale, sense of self-efficacy and school development (Harris & Mujis, 2003).

This study expands on the available knowledge about teacher leadership and aims at illuminating the practice of teacher leadership in the Greek secondary educational context. In this chapter the research design and methodology essential for answering the questions posed by the study are presented in detail.

3.2 Research design

The majority of studies researching the topic of teacher leadership have used qualitative research methods. Qualitative 'researchers are interested in capturing the individual's point of view through multiple strategies such as interviewing and observation' (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). However, this research uses quantitative research, which is 'about collecting numerical data to explain a particular phenomenon' (Mujis, 2011). In particular a survey research is employed in order to investigate Greek public secondary teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership based on the following four factors of teacher leadership: supra-practitioner, sharing expertise, sharing leadership, and principal

selection (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). As a quantitative research, ‘the survey is designed to produce numerical data, and proceeds by measuring variables’ (Punch, 2003, p.3). Quantitative research methods involve a numerical or statistical approach to research design (Williams, 2011) and are specific in their surveying and experimentation (Leedy & Ormord, 2001). Quantitative researches are independent of the researchers and, therefore, are characterized by objectivity.

In relation to the features of quantitative studies (Punch, 2003), the present study is:

- small-scale; the size and scope of survey are restricted,
- cross-sectional; the survey collects data from people at one point in time, rather than at two or more points in time
- based on the individual person as the unit of analysis; it investigates how individual people vary on the different variables, and how that individual-person-variance is related across the different variables
- built around a self-administered questionnaire (or paper-and-pencil self-report questionnaire, as it is sometimes called).

Following Creswell’s (2009) worldviews considerations, the present study adopts a post-positivist worldview. Postpositivism recognizes that ‘we cannot be ‘positive’ about our claims of knowledge when studying the behavior and actions of humans’ (p.7). This is why postpositivists study problems in such a way so as to identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes. Moreover, from a postpositivist perspective, it is essential for researchers to develop numeric measures of observations and study the behavior of individuals.

The purpose of the present study is to investigate Greek secondary teachers’ perceptions of teacher leadership and identify potential factors influencing them. Given the purpose of the study, the use of quantitative research has been considered more appropriate, since the study objective is to use numerical data produced by the measurement of variables. The study employs an explanatory research design, since ‘the researcher is interested in the extent to which two variables (or more) co-vary, that is, where changes in one variable are reflected in changes in the other’ (Creswell, 2011, p.340).

Before identifying the dependent and independent variables of the present study, it is worth noting that independent variables are attributes or characteristics that influence an outcome or a dependent variable under study, and are included in the research design so that their effects are determined, while dependent variables are attributes or characteristics that are affected or expected to be affected by independent variables (Creswell, 2011, Fraenkel et al., 2012). The independent variables of the present study include gender, age, degree level, years of teaching experience and type of secondary school. The dependent variable is teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership.

In quantitative research settings, special attention should be paid to choosing the appropriate research design and data-collection instrument (Fraenkel et al, 2012), since designing research investigations properly is likely to lead to reliable and valid information. Reliability and validity are aspects that will be further discussed along with the instrument presentation below.

3.3 The sample – Sampling Procedure

The schools that participated in the research were selected following nonrandom convenience sampling. Nonrandom sampling refers to the situation when members of the population do not have equal chances of being selected (Fraenkel et al., 2012). Convenience sampling is a form of nonrandom sampling methods and refers to the researchers' use of 'a group of individuals who (conveniently) are available for study' (p.99).

The population of the research was secondary school teachers who work in secondary education in Greece. The questionnaire was sent to equal number of schools in all prefectures of secondary education, both junior and senior high schools, so that prefectures and teachers working in junior and senior high schools receive fair representation, and principals were required to share it with their teaching staff. However, due to inadequate responses, even after the second request, the questionnaire was sent to

more schools in all prefectures. The 163 participants in this study included junior high school (gymnasium) and senior high school (lykeio) teachers, who do not hold any formal leadership position. It was important that neither principals nor vice principals participate in the study, since the focus of the study is teachers' perspective on the practice of teacher leadership in schools.

3.4 Data collection

In the beginning of the research, online questionnaires were sent to schools' principals requesting them to forward the questionnaire to the teaching personnel. Due to the fact that the answers received were very few even after a reminder-mail was sent, this step had to be repeated with the addition of more schools in the list, always making sure that equal number of schools are addressed from each country region. However, each region did not equally contribute to the study, since the researcher could not possibly persuade teachers to complete the questionnaire and therefore relied exclusively on the participants' willingness to take part in the study. The electronic administration of the survey enabled the researcher to reach participants in all regions of the country quickly and effortlessly.

3.5 Instrument

The data-collection instrument used for the purposes of the study is the Teacher-Leadership Inventory (TLI) developed by Angelle and DeHart (2011) to measure the extent of teacher leadership in schools. The TLI was translated into Greek and some additions or alterations were made in some questions, so that the instrument would appropriately correspond to the Greek educational context. Moreover, in some questions (items 2, 5, 8, 9, 10 and 12) the participants were provided some space to specify, if they wished, the instances they exhibited particular behaviors. In this way, conclusions regarding the actual content of teacher leadership initiatives could be drawn.

For the electronic administration of the survey, Google Forms were utilized as an easily accessible way to collect large amounts of data. This system has been extensively used in several research fields and can safeguard security, anonymity and unlimited space for responses. The questionnaires were anonymous and the completion of the questionnaire required eight to ten minutes. Demographic questions were also integrated in the survey so that independent variables (such as gender, age, and years of teaching experience) were identified.

The Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) was developed by Angelle and DeHart (2010) and came to its final form through a multistage process. During the first phase of the instrument development, the researchers interviewed 14 administrators and 51 teachers in 11 schools located in a southeastern State (Angelle & Beaumont, 2008). The open-ended questions of the interview enabled researchers to obtain an accurate picture of teacher leadership within each school context. The researchers conducted constant comparative analysis which gave rise to five themes of teacher leadership: educational role model, decision maker, visionary, designee, and supra-practitioner.

Based on the results of the previously mentioned qualitative analysis, in the next stage, the researchers constructed a 25-item survey aiming at measuring the extent of teacher leadership at school level. The researchers incorporated the suggestions made by experts from three separate universities and, thus, created a revised version of the questionnaire. This revised survey was later administered and further suggestions for improvement led to almost the final version of the survey.

This version of the survey was administered twice and two-factor analyses were conducted on the results. After the first administration and the exploratory factor analysis, eight items were deleted from the questionnaire and a four-factor model of teacher leadership emerged. In the second administration, the final 17-item questionnaire was used and the researchers conducted a confirmatory factor analysis which fully supported the four-factor model. The final version of the TLI consists of 17 statements and

employs a 4-point Likert-type scale (never, seldom, sometimes, and routinely) designed to measure the extent of teacher leadership in schools.

In relation to validity and reliability concerns, Fraenkel et al. (2012) underscore the importance of validity and reliability and their dependence on the way instruments are used. Angelle and DeHart (2010) report a Cronbach α reliabilities of .85 for the entire instrument. In relation to Factor 1, Sharing Expertise, the α reliability was .84, and a sample item from this factor is ‘Other teachers willingly offer me assistance if I have questions about how to teach a new topic or skill’. As far as Factor 2, Sharing Leadership, is concerned, it had an α of .84 and a sample item from this factor includes ‘Teachers have opportunities to influence important decisions even if they do not hold an official leadership position’. Factor 3, Supra Practitioner, with an α of .85, is represented by the sample item ‘Teachers willingly stay after school on school improvement activities’. Finally, Factor 4, Principal Selection, had an α reliability of .56; a sample item from this factor is ‘Most teachers in leadership positions only serve because they have been principal appointed’. This previous evidence of reliability and validity can ensure that the instrumentation will provide satisfactory information.

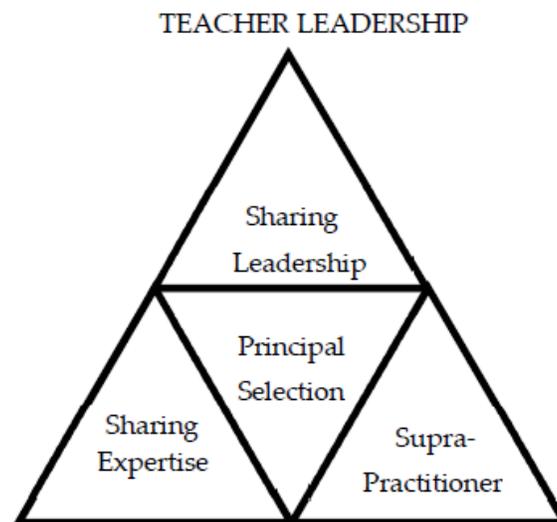


Figure 3.1: The four-factor model of teacher leadership (Angelle & DeHart, 2016)

The TLI comprises four factors, which are defined below, so that the findings from the study are easily understandable. Factor 1 is designated as *Sharing Expertise* (SE) and includes five items (items 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7). It focuses on the sharing of pedagogical or classroom management knowledge. As Angelle and DeHart (2011) point out these items measure both the perceptions of teacher leader skills and their willingness to share these skills and knowledge with their colleagues.

Factor 2, *Sharing Leadership* (SL) suggests that leadership in schools involves both the willingness of principals to share leadership as well as the willingness of teachers to accept a leading role (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). The second factor comprises six items (items 5, 6, 12, 13, 14 and 16). This factor could be separated into two smaller subsets. The first (called 'Leadership Opportunities') refers to items revealing principals' attitude which fosters teacher participation in leadership activities, while the second subset (called 'Leadership Engagement') indicate whether teachers actually engage in leadership activities. These two subsets reveal that 'on one hand, 'the principal provides opportunities to lead, and on the other hand, teachers take advantage of these opportunities to engage in leadership activities', thus creating a 'give-and-take relationship' between principals and teacher leaders (Angelle & DeHart, 2011, p.149). As researchers clarify, the greatest extent of teacher leadership appears in schools where principals do not object to relinquish power.

The third factor, the *Supra-Practitioner* (SP), comprise three items (items 8,9 and 10) and measures teacher behaviors that are beyond their prescribed roles but willingly engage themselves in them. This factor identifies leaders who go above and beyond their regular classroom duties, assume extra duties beyond the school day and perform tasks that other teachers are not willing to perform (Angelle & DeHart, 2011).

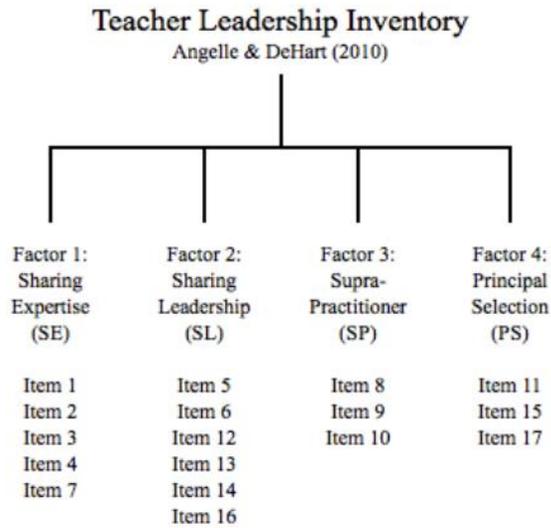


Figure 3.2: Teacher Leadership Inventory subscales (Angelle & DeHart, 2010)

The last factor, Factor 4, *Principal Selection (PS)*, comprises three items (items 11, 15 and 17) refers to principals who create in-groups and take exception to certain teachers (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). In this way, this situation suggests that any climate of collaboration and trust among school members can be damaged, as opposed to situations where leadership is shared to larger groups of teachers.

Angelle and DeHart explain that although ‘leadership in an organization should be viewed as a group effort, there can exist situations which demand a closer inspection of individuals within the group’ (2016, p.107). The four-factor model of teacher leadership focuses on the leadership practices of the teachers within a school and, therefore, fills the gap by focusing on the leadership practices of the teachers within a school (Angelle & DeHart, 2016).

3.6 Data analysis

The questionnaire consists of 17 items related to teacher leadership and 6 basic questions about the demographic data of the participants. The survey generated data that revealed information concerning participants’ individual perceptions of teacher leadership in their

school settings. The information was entered into IBM® SPSS® Statistics 20© software, a software package used for statistical analysis. The initial data analyses present the frequencies of categorical variables, such as age, gender, type of secondary school, degree level, and years of teaching experience. The key findings are explained so that the following analysis of the quantitative variables is clear.

In the next step, teacher responses from the survey were collected to access overall leadership scores. In particular, the means for all responses composing each factor were calculated and, in this way, factor scores were computed. For example, calculating the mean of the responses for Questions 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7 determined the factor score for Sharing Expertise. Moreover, a one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) method of data analysis for each variable was conducted to test for differences among the variables in question (age, gender, type of secondary school, degree level, and years of teaching experience). Therefore, the sample data was compared on a dependent variable with more than one independent variable.

3.7 Limitations of the study

This study of teacher leadership in Greek secondary schools has a number of limitations. First of all, the database used is restricted, thus the findings of the study are specific to the participants involved in the study and could not be possibly generalized so that readers draw conclusions applicable to the totality of secondary schools. Teachers' participation in the study was not compulsory; therefore, the respondents represent only those individuals who took an interest in completing the questionnaire or those who are favourably disposed to teacher leadership behaviors. As a result, the respondents' perceptions of teacher leadership might have scored higher than they actually are in everyday practice. There is also the chance that some teachers might have been willing to participate, but they did not due to limited knowledge of electronic surveys or computer access. For this purpose, unless a much larger sample participates in the study, a more comprehensive understanding of teacher leadership cannot be provided. Furthermore, the study would yield extensive results if a longitudinal study was conducted, so that a group

was studied over a specific period of time (Williams, 2011). In this way, changes teachers' perceptions on teacher leadership would also be recorded.

In relation to the survey instrument, the degree of reliability and validity of the questionnaire determines the validity of the research findings (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). Furthermore, the Teacher Leadership Inventory was initially designed for the U.S. educational context. For this reason, the questionnaire was adjusted to better correspond to the Greek secondary educational settings. However, even in this case, the danger of an unsuccessful adjustment of items underlies. What is more, the answers to the questions were actually a self-report of teachers' perceptions towards the degree of teacher leadership in their schools; thus, their perceptions were inevitably influenced by their personal experiences that each individual respondent had with their schools. This in turn might involve some degree of prejudice either in favour of or against their schools.

3.8 Summary

This chapter presents the research design and methodology used in this quantitative study whose aim is to explore teacher leadership in Greek secondary education. In the beginning some methodological assumptions that influenced this quantitative study are considered. Following, the research sample, data collection methods, instrumentation and data analysis are discussed. The instrument used, the Teacher Leadership Inventory, was chosen based on its reliability and validity scores, since it was tested and used in previous studies. The instrument is analytically presented, so that the results of the survey are comprehensible. The following chapter presents the research findings including explanations of all key findings.

4 Chapter 4 Research findings and results

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the research study and methodology employed in this quantitative study of teacher leadership in Greek secondary schools. By providing contemporary evidence of teacher leadership in action in the Greek context, the study explores teacher leadership in public secondary schools (junior high schools and general senior high schools) in Greece. Apart from this consideration, the study investigates the relationship between teacher leadership and several variables (gender, age, degree level, years of teaching experience and type of school).

In the beginning, descriptive statistics of the teachers who participated in the study are presented. Next, the results of the Teacher Leadership Inventory (TLI) developed by Angelle and DeHart (2010) are presented. For the result generation the IBM® SPSS® Statistics 20© software was used. The results are presented for each factor investigated by calculating the means for all responses composing the factor. Afterwards, the results of the four factors in relation to the variables are presented. The four factors comprising the Teacher Leadership Inventory are Sharing Expertise (SE), Sharing Leadership (SL), Supra-Practitioner (SP) and Principal Selection (PS), and they were presented in detail in the previous chapter.

4.2 Descriptive profile of survey respondents

Anonymity and confidentiality were two points special attention has been paid to. The analyses required necessitated the acquisition of the participants' demographic information. Names of participants, schools, principals' names were not required in the questionnaire. All the teachers who completed the survey worked in secondary schools, either junior high schools (Gymnasio teachers) or senior high schools (Lykeio teachers). As the following table (see Table 1) illustrates, most of the respondents were female

(71.8%). The largest proportion of respondents possesses a Master's degree (52.1%) and work in a lower secondary school – Gymnasio (57.7%). Also, the highest number of participants had 13-18 years of teaching experience (31.9%), followed by the 9-12 years of teaching experience group (25.2%).

Table 1: Demographic Information for Teacher Leadership Inventory respondents

Characteristic			
		Frequency	Percent
Gender			
	Male	46	28.2
	Female	117	71.8
Highest degree attained			
	Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66	40.5
	Master's	85	52.1
	Ph.D/Ed.D	12	7.4
Years of teaching experience			
	1-2	2	1.2
	3-8	5	3.1
	9-12	41	25.2
	13-18	52	31.9
	19-24	31	19.0
	25-30	20	12.3
	over 30	12	7.4
Age			
	26-35	5	3.1
	36-45	72	44.2
	46-55	72	44.2
	over 55	14	8.6
Type of school			
	Gymnasio	94	57.7
	Lykeio	69	42.3
	Total	163	100.0

4.3 Teacher Leadership Inventory descriptive statistics

The data source used in this study was the TLI (Angelle & DeHart, 2011) which measures four dependent variables: Sharing Expertise, Sharing Leadership, Supra Practitioner, and Principal Selection. According to Angelle and DeHart (2011), the Sharing Expertise Factor focuses on the sharing of pedagogical or classroom management knowledge and measures not only the perceptions of teacher leader skills as well as their willingness to share this knowledge and skills with their colleagues. The factor of Sharing Leadership measures the willingness of both principals to share leadership and teachers to accept the challenge to lead. The third factor, the Supra Practitioner, measures perceptions of teacher behaviours that are beyond the prescribed roles and engaged in willingly by the teaching personnel. The last factor, Principal Selection, refers to principals creating in-groups among certain teachers as well as out-groups by taking exception to certain teachers showing leadership. The instrument used a 4-point Likert scale with the following descriptors: 4=Routinely, 3=Sometimes, 2=Seldom, 1=Never.

The results in the following table (see Table 2) display the means and standard deviations for the 17-item-survey questions and represent the responses for all 163 participants. Only one item reported a rating for higher than 3.5. Also, six items reported rating higher than 3.0, all of which relate to the Sharing Expertise and Sharing Leadership factors. The highest rating (3.63) was for the item 1: *Teachers ask one another for assistance when they have a problem with student behavior in the classroom*. The item with the lowest rating was item 11: *Administrators object when teachers take on leadership responsibilities*. Items 15 and 17 that belong in the same factor also received low ratings, 2.9 and 2.44 respectively. As far as the three items of the Principal Selection factor are concerned, Angelle and DeHart (2016) mention that this factor correlated negatively with each of the other factors, indicating that a respondent scoring high in SE, SL or SP will score low on PS, and vice-versa. However, reverse-coding for these three items would only distort the meaning of the construct of Principal Selection, and for this reason the items were not negatively worded.

Table 2: Teacher Leadership Inventory Descriptive Statistics for all participants per item

Item	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Item 1: Teachers ask one another for assistance when they have a problem with student behavior in the classroom.	2.00	4.00	3.6319	.54384
Item 2: Teachers willingly offer assistance to one another when they have questions about how to teach a new topic or skills.	1.00	4.00	3.4847	.61218
Item 3: Teachers share new ideas for teaching with other teachers such as through grade level/department meetings, school wide meetings, professional development, etc.	1.00	4.00	2.9693	.75705
Item 4: Teachers discuss ways to improve student learning.	1.00	4.00	3.1718	.81343
Item 5: Teachers are involved in making decisions about activities regarding their school unit, such as professional development, cross curricular projects, etc.	1.00	4.00	2.9448	.84803
Item 6: Teachers are actively involved in improving the school as a whole.	1.00	4.00	3.1411	.76882
Item 7: Teachers stay current on education research in our grade level/subject area/department.	1.00	4.00	3.0000	.66667
Item 8: Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work on school improvement activities.	1.00	4.00	2.4540	.79507
Item 9: Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to help other teachers who need assistance.	1.00	4.00	2.3374	.81816
Item 10: Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work with administrators, if administrators need assistance.	1.00	4.00	2.7055	.90221
Item 11: Administrators object when teachers take on leadership responsibilities.	1.00	4.00	2.1595	.84566
Item 12: The principal responds to the concerns and ideas of teachers.	1.00	4.00	3.4724	.72276
Item 13: Teachers plan the content of professional learning activities at my school.	1.00	4.00	2.7485	.88432
Item 14: Teachers have opportunities to influence important decisions even if they do not hold an official leadership position.	1.00	4.00	2.9387	.71745
Item 15: The principal consults the same small group of teachers for input on decisions.	1.00	4.00	2.8957	.89314
Item 16: Time is provided for teachers, beyond their teaching hours, to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning.	1.00	4.00	2.4233	.85991
Item 17: Most teachers in leadership positions only serve because they have been principal appointed (although they did not choose it themselves).	1.00	4.00	2.4417	.91691

For the survey analysis, Angelle and Dehart's (2010) four scales measuring teacher leadership was used (Sharing Expertise, Sharing Leadership, Supra-Practitioner and Principal Selection). For the development of an additional scale called Overall Teacher Leadership, the above scores from these four scales were combined and averaged. For the calculation of the mean Principal Selection scale as well as the Overall teacher leadership Scale, the scores for the three items in the Principal Selection Scale were reversed. This was based on the fact that low scores in the Principal Selection Scale corresponded to high scores in the remaining three scales. For example, a high occurrence in the last item (*Most teachers in leadership positions only serve because they have been principal appointed (although they did not choose it themselves)*) would entail that principals select teacher leaders, which in turn implies that teachers do not have equal or equitable chances to lead.

The scale with the highest mean is the scale of Shared Expertise ($M=3.252$, $SD=.441$), followed by that of Shared Leadership ($M=2.944$, $SD=.532$). Both Supra-Practitioner and Principal Selection Scales have the same mean $M=2.4999$, $SD=.714$ and $M=2.4999$, $SD=.629$ respectively. The mean for all combined teacher leadership items on the survey ($M=2.798$, $SD=.345$) shows that teachers perceive themselves to be leaders less often than sometimes. The following table presents the results for each one of the four factors.

Table 3: Mean scores for each factor

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Sharing Expertise	163	1.60	4.00	3.2515	.44310
Sharing Leadership	163	1.67	4.00	2.9448	.53192
Supra-Practitioner	163	1.00	4.00	2.4990	.71374
Principal Selection	163	1.00	4.00	2.4990	.62895
Overall Teacher Leadership	163	1.82	3.58	2.7986	.34516
Valid N (listwise)	163				

According to Angelle and Dehart (2011) the entire instrument had a Cronbach alpha of .85. The scale of Sharing Expertise include the following items: (1) *Teachers ask one another for assistance when they have a problem with student behavior in the classroom,* (2) *Teachers willingly offer assistance to one another when they have questions about*

how to teach a new topic or skills, (3) Teachers share new ideas for teaching with other teachers such as through grade level/department meetings, school wide meetings, professional development, etc., (4) Teachers discuss ways to improve student learning, and (5) Teachers stay current on education research in our grade level/subject department. In the present case, Chronbach's alpha was reported to be .65 for this scale, lower than Angelle and Dehart's (2010) .84 reliability, yet an acceptable value for the internal consistency of the items in the scale (George & Mallery, 2003).

The second scale, Sharing Leadership, was calculated in relation to the following six items: (1) *Teachers are involved in making decisions about activities regarding their school unit, such as professional development, cross curricular projects, etc., (2) Teachers are actively involved in improving the school as a whole, (3) The principal responds to the concerns and ideas of teachers, (4) Teachers plan the content of professional learning activities at my school, (5) Teachers have opportunities to influence important decisions even if they do not hold an official leadership position, and (6) Time is provided for teachers, beyond their teaching hours, to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning.* Compared to Angelle and DeHart's (2010) .84 reliability, this scale's reliability in the present study was found to be .74.

For the third scale, Supra-Practitioner, the following three items were combined: (1) *Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work on school improvement activities, (2) Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to help other teachers who need assistance, and (3) Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work with administrators, if administrators need assistance.* The scale was found to be highly reliable (Cronbach's alpha=.81) and highly consistent with Angelle and DeHart's (2010) .85 reliability for this factor.

The three items in the fourth scale, Principal Selection, included (1) *Administrators object when teachers take on leadership responsibilities, (2) The principal consults the same small group of teachers for input on decisions, and (3) Most teachers in leadership*

positions only serve because they have been principal appointed (although they did not choose it themselves). This scale was found not to be as highly reliable as the other three scales (Cronbach's alpha=.51), consistent with Angelle and DeHart (2010) who reported an alpha of .56 for this scale.

The following part of the chapter presents the survey results for the research questions articulated in the first chapter. These research questions refer to the differences in teachers' perceptions of teacher leadership according to gender, age, degree levels attained, years of teaching experience, and type of school.

4.4 Teacher Leadership and gender

The sample of 163 respondents included 71,8% ($n=117$) female and 28,2% ($n=46$) male (see Table 1). Four independent t-tests on the four variables between the participant samples were conducted to compare teacher leadership in males and females. An alpha level of .05 for all statistical tests was used. The categorical, independent variable was gender, while the four continuous dependent variables include Sharing Expertise (SE), Sharing Leadership (SL), Supra-Practitioner (SP) and Principal Selection (PS). The descriptive statistics did not indicate a significant difference for any of the factors included in the test.

Table 4: Mean Scores for each factor according to gender

	What is your gender?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean Sharing Expertise for each participant	Male	46	3.2783	.40547	.05978
	Female	117	3.2410	.45829	.04237
Mean Sharing Leadership for each participant	Male	46	2.9638	.53623	.07906
	Female	117	2.9373	.53235	.04922
Mean Supra-Practitioner for each participant	Male	46	2.4420	.67788	.09995
	Female	117	2.5214	.72896	.06739
Mean Principal Selection for each participant	Male	46	2.3986	.67264	.09918
	Female	117	2.5385	.60939	.05634

In particular, as far as Sharing Expertise (SE) is concerned, no significant differences in score appeared for males ($M=3.278$, $SD=.405$) and females ($M=3.241$, $SD=.458$,

$t(161)=.482, p=.631$, two-tailed). The results for Sharing Leadership reveal no significant differences in score for males ($M=2.964, SD=.536$) and females ($M=2.937, SD=.532, t(161)=.285, p=.776$, two-tailed). In relation to Supra-Practitioner, there was no significant difference in scores for males ($M=2.442, SD=.678$) and females ($M=2.521, SD=.729, t(161)=-.638, p=.525$, two-tailed). Neither for the last factor of Principal Selection has there been found significant difference between males ($M=2.399, SD=.673$) and females ($M=2.539, SD=.609, t(161)=-1.281, p=.224$, two-tailed) (see Table 5).

Table 5: Independent Samples test for gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Mean Sharing Expertise for each participant	Equal variances assumed	.028	.868	.482	161	.631	.03724	.07730	-.11541	.18988
	Equal variances not assumed			.508	92.503	.613	.03724	.07327	-.10828	.18275
Mean Sharing Leadership for each participant	Equal variances assumed	.079	.779	.285	161	.776	.02645	.09283	-.15688	.20977
	Equal variances not assumed			.284	81.862	.777	.02645	.09313	-.15882	.21172
Mean Supra-Practitioner for each participant	Equal variances assumed	.583	.446	-.638	161	.525	-.07934	.12444	-.32508	.16641
	Equal variances not assumed			-.658	88.151	.512	-.07934	.12055	-.31889	.16022
Mean Principal Selection for each participant	Equal variances assumed	.383	.537	1.28	161	.202	-.13991	.10924	-.35564	.07582
	Equal variances not assumed			1.22	75.672	.224	-.13991	.11406	-.36710	.08728

A test of homogeneity of variances was run for each four dependent variables. The results of the Levene's test proved the null hypothesis of equal variances, SE: $F(1,161)=.028, p=.868$, SL: $F(1,161)=.079, p=.779$, SP: $F(1,131)=.583, p=.446$, PS: $F(1,131)=.383, p=.537$.

4.5 Teacher Leadership and age

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in teacher leadership among the participants' different age groups. The survey results for each factor are presented below

(see Table 6). In relation to the overall Teacher Leadership, all ages exhibited a mean between 2.735 and 2.944, the lowest mean ($M=2.735$) belonging to the 26-35 age group , and the highest ($M=2.944$) to the over 55 age group.

Table 6: Descriptives for TLI factors and participants' age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound				
Mean Expertise	26-35	5	3.4400	.47749	.21354	2.8471	4.0329	2.60	3.80	
	36-45	72	3.2972	.39288	.04630	3.2049	3.3895	2.00	4.00	
	Sharing	46-55	72	3.1583	.48404	.05704	3.0446	3.2721	1.60	4.00
	over 55	14	3.4286	.38316	.10240	3.2073	3.6498	2.80	4.00	
	Total	163	3.2515	.44310	.03471	3.1830	3.3201	1.60	4.00	
Mean Leadership	26-35	5	2.9667	.63901	.28577	2.1732	3.7601	2.17	3.67	
	36-45	72	2.9213	.52628	.06202	2.7976	3.0450	1.67	4.00	
	Sharing	46-55	72	2.9167	.52481	.06185	2.7933	3.0400	1.67	4.00
	over 55	14	3.2024	.55153	.14740	2.8839	3.5208	2.50	4.00	
	Total	163	2.9448	.53192	.04166	2.8625	3.0271	1.67	4.00	
Mean Practitioner	26-35	5	2.1333	.64979	.29059	1.3265	2.9401	1.33	3.00	
	36-45	72	2.5602	.65201	.07684	2.4070	2.7134	1.33	4.00	
	Supra-	46-55	72	2.4120	.75577	.08907	2.2344	2.5896	1.00	4.00
	over 55	14	2.7619	.76715	.20503	2.3190	3.2048	1.67	4.00	
	Total	163	2.4990	.71374	.05590	2.3886	2.6094	1.00	4.00	
Mean Selection	26-35	5	2.4000	.72265	.32318	1.5027	3.2973	1.67	3.33	
	36-45	72	2.4630	.61934	.07299	2.3174	2.6085	1.00	3.67	
	Principal	46-55	72	2.5648	.65156	.07679	2.4117	2.7179	1.00	4.00
	over 55	14	2.3810	.55249	.14766	2.0620	2.7000	1.67	3.33	
	Total	163	2.4990	.62895	.04926	2.4017	2.5963	1.00	4.00	
Overall Leadership	26-35	5	2.7350	.42473	.18995	2.2076	3.2624	2.28	3.12	
	36-45	72	2.8104	.33817	.03985	2.7309	2.8899	2.22	3.58	
	Teacher	46-55	72	2.7630	.34497	.04066	2.6819	2.8440	1.82	3.58
	over 55	14	2.9435	.35008	.09356	2.7413	3.1456	2.24	3.50	
	Total	163	2.7986	.34516	.02703	2.7452	2.8520	1.82	3.58	

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied SE, SL, SP, PS and overall Teacher Leadership factors based on Levene's test: $F(3,159)=.299$, $p=.826$, $F(3,159)=.153$, $p=.926$, $F(3,159)=.548$, $p=.650$, $F(3,159)=.515$, $p=.672$, and $F(3,159)=.370$, $p=.775$ respectively (see Table 7).

Table 7: Levene's test for homogeneity of variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Mean Sharing Expertise	.299	3	159	.826
Mean Sharing Leadership	.153	3	159	.928

Mean Supra-Practitioner	.548	3	159	.650
Mean Principal Selection	.515	3	159	.672
Overall Teacher Leadership	.370	3	159	.775

The one-way ANOVA does not yield any statistically significant effect in any factor of the Teacher Leadership Inventory or the Overall Teacher Leadership at the $p < .05$ level (see Table 8): SE: $F(3,159)=2.426$, $p=.068$, SL: $F(3,159)=1.216$, $p=.306$, SP: $F(3,159)=1.622$, $p=.186$, PS: $F(3,159)=.543$, $p=.654$, Overall Teacher Leadership: $F(3,159)= 1.166$, $p=.325$.

Table 8: One-way ANOVA for differences in TLI factors and age

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Mean Sharing Expertise	Between Groups	1.392	3	.464	2.426	.068
	Within Groups	30.415	159	.191		
	Total	31.807	162			
Mean Sharing Leadership	Between Groups	1.028	3	.343	1.216	.306
	Within Groups	44.808	159	.282		
	Total	45.836	162			
Mean Supra-Practitioner	Between Groups	2.450	3	.817	1.622	.186
	Within Groups	80.077	159	.504		
	Total	82.528	162			
Mean Principal Selection	Between Groups	.649	3	.216	.543	.654
	Within Groups	63.434	159	.399		
	Total	64.083	162			
Overall Teacher Leadership	Between Groups	.415	3	.138	1.166	.325
	Within Groups	18.884	159	.119		
	Total	19.299	162			

The relationship between the participants' age group and their Overall Teacher Leadership scores is illustrated in the following means plot.

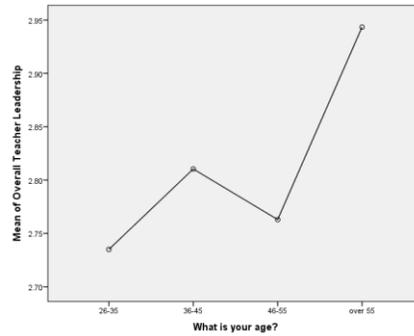


Figure 4.1: Means plot for the relationship between TLI and participants' age

4.6 Teacher Leadership and highest degree attained

Based on the participants' descriptive statistics, 40.5% ($n=66$) held a Bachelor degree, 52.1 ($n=85$) held a Master's degree and 7.4 ($n=12$) held a Doctorate and the data sample was grouped in three groups (see Table 1). A one-way ANOVA was used to test for differences in teacher leadership among the three participants' groups. The survey results for each participant's group are presented below.

Table 9: Descriptives for TLI factors and Highest Degree Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Mean Sharing Expertise	Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66	3.3000	.49021	.06034	3.1795	3.4205	1.60	4.00
	Master's	85	3.2141	.41609	.04513	3.1244	3.3039	2.00	4.00
	Ph.D/Ed.D	12	3.2500	.35291	.10188	3.0258	3.4742	2.60	3.80
	Total	163	3.2515	.44310	.03471	3.1830	3.3201	1.60	4.00
Mean Sharing Leadership	Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66	3.0328	.52070	.06409	2.9048	3.1608	1.67	4.00
	Master's	85	2.8667	.54055	.05863	2.7501	2.9833	1.67	4.00
	Ph.D/Ed.D	12	3.0139	.48439	.13983	2.7061	3.3217	2.17	3.67
	Total	163	2.9448	.53192	.04166	2.8625	3.0271	1.67	4.00
Mean Supra-Practitioner	Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66	2.4899	.83558	.10285	2.2845	2.6953	1.00	4.00
	Master's	85	2.4745	.64524	.06999	2.3353	2.6137	1.33	4.00
	Ph.D/Ed.D	12	2.7222	.37155	.10726	2.4862	2.9583	2.00	3.33
	Total	163	2.4990	.71374	.05590	2.3886	2.6094	1.00	4.00
Mean Principal Selection	Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66	2.5859	.64599	.07952	2.4271	2.7447	1.00	4.00
	Master's	85	2.4667	.60026	.06511	2.3372	2.5961	1.00	3.67
	Ph.D/Ed.D	12	2.2500	.69812	.20153	1.8064	2.6936	1.00	3.33
	Total	163	2.4990	.62895	.04926	2.4017	2.5963	1.00	4.00
Overall Teacher Leadership	Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66	2.8521	.37022	.04557	2.7611	2.9432	1.82	3.58
	Master's	85	2.7555	.33018	.03581	2.6843	2.8267	2.22	3.50
	Ph.D/Ed.D	12	2.8090	.28350	.08184	2.6289	2.9892	2.39	3.18
	Total	163	2.7986	.34516	.02703	2.7452	2.8520	1.82	3.58

In order to test the hypothesis that the participants' degree status had an effect on the survey results, a between-group ANOVA was performed. The one-way ANOVA does not yield any statistically significant effect in any factor of the Teacher Leadership Inventory or the Overall Teacher Leadership at the $p < .05$: SE: $F(3,159)=2.426, p=.068$, SL: $F(3,159)=1.216, p=.306$, SP: $F(3,159)=1.622, p=.186$, PS: $F(3,159)=.543, p=.654$, Overall Teacher Leadership: $F(3,159)= 1.166, p=.325$.

The assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested and satisfied for SE, SL, PS and overall Teacher Leadership factors based on Levene's F test: $F(2,160)=1.107, p=.333$, $F(2,160)=.157, p=.855$, $F(2,160)=.253, p=.777$, and $F(2,160)=.581, p=.560$ respectively (see Table 10). However, in the case of SP, since the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated, it is deduced that the variances are significantly different ($F(2,160)=8.496, p=.000 < .05$).

Table 10: Levene's F test for homogeneity of variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Mean Sharing Expertise	1.107	2	160	.333
Mean Sharing Leadership	.157	2	160	.855
Mean Supra-Practitioner	8.496	2	160	.000
Mean Principal Selection	.253	2	160	.777
Overall Teacher Leadership	.581	2	160	.560

For this purpose, a post hoc Tukey test was run to specify which group differed (see Table 11). The post-hoc comparisons indicated that the mean score for the Bachelors' group was $M=2.490, SD=.836$ and the Master's group was $M=2.475, SD=.07$ (The scores of this group differ significantly from the Doctorate holders' group where the mean was $M=2.722, SD=.372$)

Table 11: Results of post-hoc Tukey test for Supra Practitioner factor and Highest Degree Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
					Bachelor (AEI/TEI)	66		
Master's	85	2.4745	.64524	.06999	2.3353	2.6137	1.33	4.00

Ph.D/Ed.D	12	2.7222	.37155	.10726	2.4862	2.9583	2.00	3.33
Total	163	2.4990	.71374	.05590	2.3886	2.6094	1.00	4.00

The following plot means illustrates the relationship between overall Teacher Leadership and the three groups depending on the degree they hold.

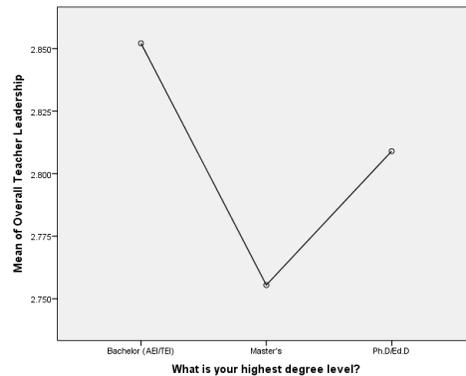


Figure 4.2: Means plot for the relationship between TLI and Highest Degree Level

4.7 Teacher Leadership and years of teaching experience

According to the participants' descriptive statistics (see Table 1), 1.2% ($n=2$) belong to the group of 1-2 years of teaching experience, 3.1% ($n=5$) have 3-8 years of teaching experience, 25.2% ($n=41$) have 9-12 years of teaching experience. The fourth group was the largest and constituted 31.9% of the participants ($n=52$), and the fifth constituted 19% ($n=31$). 12.3% ($n=20$) of the participants had 25-30 years of teaching experience, while 7.4% ($n=12$) had more than 30 years of teaching experience. For Sharing Expertise and Sharing Leadership, the highest score was $M=3500$, $SD=707$, while the score was the lowest for the Supra-Practitioner factor ($M=2167$, $SD=.707$) (see Table 12).

A one-way between groups ANOVA was used to test for differences in teacher leadership among the participants' seven groups at the $p<.05$ level. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was confirmed based on Levene's test for equality of variances. The test yielded the following results: SE: $F(6,156)=.667$, $p=.676$; SL: $F(6,156)=.268$, $p=.951$, SP: $F(6,156)=.929$, $p=.476$, PS: $F(6,156)=1.879$, $p=.088$; Overall Teacher Leadership: $F(5,156)=.5$, $p=.808$ (see Table 13).

Table 12: Descriptives for TLI factors and respondents' age

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Mean Sharing Expertise	1-2	2	3.5000	.70711	.50000	-2.8531	9.8531	3.00	4.00
	3-8	5	3.3200	.46043	.20591	2.7483	3.8917	2.60	3.80
	9-12	41	3.3366	.39100	.06106	3.2132	3.4600	2.60	4.00
	13-18	52	3.2385	.39015	.05410	3.1298	3.3471	2.00	4.00
	19-24	31	3.1355	.52507	.09431	2.9429	3.3281	1.60	4.00
	25-30	20	3.1100	.51698	.11560	2.8680	3.3520	1.60	4.00
	over 30	12	3.4833	.34597	.09987	3.2635	3.7032	3.00	4.00
Total	163	3.2515	.44310	.03471	3.1830	3.3201	1.60	4.00	
Mean Sharing Leadership	1-2	2	3.5000	.70711	.50000	-2.8531	9.8531	3.00	4.00
	3-8	5	2.9000	.54772	.24495	2.2199	3.5801	2.17	3.67
	9-12	41	3.0285	.50676	.07914	2.8685	3.1884	1.83	4.00
	13-18	52	2.8301	.49561	.06873	2.6921	2.9681	1.67	3.83
	19-24	31	2.8656	.57642	.10353	2.6542	3.0770	1.67	4.00
	25-30	20	3.0250	.52781	.11802	2.7780	3.2720	2.17	4.00
	over 30	12	3.1528	.57498	.16598	2.7875	3.5181	2.50	4.00
Total	163	2.9448	.53192	.04166	2.8625	3.0271	1.67	4.00	
Mean Supra-Practitioner	1-2	2	2.1667	.70711	.50000	-4.1864	8.5198	1.67	2.67
	3-8	5	2.4000	.76012	.33993	1.4562	3.3438	1.67	3.67
	9-12	41	2.6016	.60654	.09473	2.4102	2.7931	1.33	4.00
	13-18	52	2.5321	.64087	.08887	2.3536	2.7105	1.33	3.67
	19-24	31	2.2581	.82422	.14803	1.9557	2.5604	1.00	4.00
	25-30	20	2.4833	.82699	.18492	2.0963	2.8704	1.33	4.00
	over 30	12	2.7500	.81804	.23615	2.2302	3.2698	1.67	4.00
Total	163	2.4990	.71374	.05590	2.3886	2.6094	1.00	4.00	
Mean Principal Selection	1-2	2	3.1667	.23570	.16667	1.0490	5.2844	3.00	3.33
	3-8	5	2.6000	.14907	.06667	2.4149	2.7851	2.33	2.67
	9-12	41	2.3577	.60273	.09413	2.1675	2.5480	1.00	3.67
	13-18	52	2.5577	.61471	.08525	2.3866	2.7288	1.00	4.00
	19-24	31	2.5591	.64628	.11608	2.3221	2.7962	1.33	3.67
	25-30	20	2.3333	.73349	.16401	1.9900	2.6766	1.00	4.00
	over 30	12	2.6944	.62697	.18099	2.2961	3.0928	1.67	3.33
Total	163	2.4990	.62895	.04926	2.4017	2.5963	1.00	4.00	
Overall Teacher Leadership	1-2	2	3.0833	.58926	.41667	-2.2109	8.3776	2.67	3.50
	3-8	5	2.8050	.38575	.17251	2.3260	3.2840	2.28	3.18
	9-12	41	2.8311	.31600	.04935	2.7314	2.9308	2.28	3.58
	13-18	52	2.7896	.32740	.04540	2.6984	2.8807	2.25	3.50
	19-24	31	2.7046	.38397	.06896	2.5637	2.8454	1.82	3.58
	25-30	20	2.7379	.36072	.08066	2.5691	2.9067	2.11	3.50
	over 30	12	3.0201	.27869	.08045	2.8431	3.1972	2.67	3.50
Total	163	2.7986	.34516	.02703	2.7452	2.8520	1.82	3.58	

Table 13: Levene's F test for homogeneity of variances

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Mean Sharing Expertise	.667	6	156	.676
Mean Sharing Leadership	.268	6	156	.951
Mean Supra-Practitioner	.929	6	156	.476

Mean Principal Selection	1.879	6	156	.088
Overall Teacher Leadership	.500	6	156	.808

The one-way ANOVA does not yield any statistically significant effect in any factor of the Teacher Leadership Inventory or the Overall Teacher Leadership: SE: $F(6,156)=1.925, p=.133$, SL: $F(6,156)=2.439, p=.195$, SP: $F(6,156)=3.319, p=.371$, PS: $F(6,156)=3.059, p=.259$, Overall Teacher Leadership: $F(6,156)= 1.147, p=.139$. The results of the one-way ANOVA test are illustrated in the table below.

Table 14: One-way ANOVA for differences in TLI factors and respondents' teaching experience

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Mean Sharing Expertise	Between Groups	1.915	6	.319	1.666	.133
	Within Groups	29.892	156	.192		
	Total	31.807	162			
Mean Sharing Leadership	Between Groups	2.439	6	.407	1.462	.195
	Within Groups	43.397	156	.278		
	Total	45.836	162			
Mean Supra-Practitioner	Between Groups	3.319	6	.553	1.089	.371
	Within Groups	79.209	156	.508		
	Total	82.528	162			
Mean Principal Selection	Between Groups	3.059	6	.510	1.304	.259
	Within Groups	61.024	156	.391		
	Total	64.083	162			
Overall Teacher Leadership	Between Groups	1.147	6	.191	1.642	.139
	Within Groups	18.153	156	.116		
	Total	19.299	162			

The following plot means illustrates the relationship between overall Teacher Leadership and the groups depending on the years of their teaching experience.

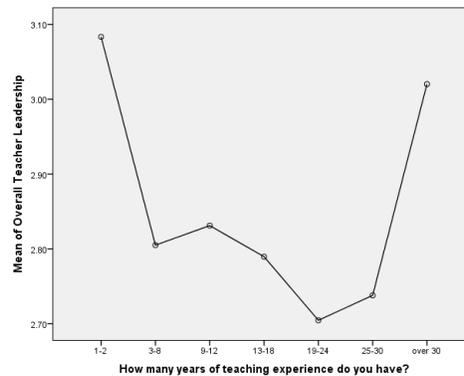


Figure 4.3: Means plot showing the relationship between TLI and Years of Teaching Experience

4.8 Teacher Leadership and type of school

The sample of 163 respondents included 94 Junior High School (Gymnasio) teachers (57.7%) and 69 Senior High School (Lykeio) teachers (42.3%) (see Table 1). Four independent t-tests on the four variables between the participant samples were conducted to compare teacher leadership in Gymnasio and Lykeio teachers. The categorical, independent variable was the type of school respondents worked for, while the four continuous dependent variables include Sharing Expertise (SE), Sharing Leadership (SL), Supra-Practitioner (SP) and Principal Selection (PS). The descriptive statistics did not indicate a significant difference for any of the factors included in the test (see Table 15).

Table 15: Descriptive Statistics for TLI factors and Type of School

	Which type of school do you work for?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Mean Sharing Expertise	Gymnasio	94	3.2745	.46558	.04802
	Lyceio	69	3.2203	.41180	.04958
Mean Sharing Leadership	Gymnasio	94	3.0195	.53204	.05488
	Lyceio	69	2.8430	.51836	.06240
Mean Supra-Practitioner	Gymnasio	94	2.5780	.72368	.07464
	Lyceio	69	2.3913	.69064	.08314
Mean Principal Selection	Gymnasio	94	2.5035	.65536	.06760
	Lyceio	69	2.4928	.59576	.07172
Overall Teacher Leadership	Gymnasio	94	2.8439	.36323	.03746
	Lyceio	69	2.7368	.31091	.03743

A test of homogeneity of variances was run for each four dependent variables. The results of Levene's test proved the null hypothesis of equal variances, SE: $F(1,161)=.028$, $p=.868$, SL: $F(1,161)=.079$, $p=.779$, SP: $F(1,131)=.583$, $p=.446$, PS: $F(1,131)=.383$, $p=.537$. Additionally, the assumption of homogeneity of variables was tested and satisfied via Levene's F test for equality of variables (see Table 16).

Table 16: Independent Samples Test for TLI factors and Type of School

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Mean Sharing Expertise	Equal variances assumed	2.848	.093	.770	161	.442	.05418	.07033	-.08471	.19307
	Equal variances not assumed			.785	155.423	.434	.05418	.06902	-.08216	.19052
Mean Sharing Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.094	.760	2.116	161	.036	.17651	.08343	.01174	.34127

	Equal variances not assumed			2.124	148.780	.035	.17651	.08310	.01230	.34072
Mean	Supra-Practitioner	.319	.573	1.659	161	.099	.18671	.11254	-.03554	.40896
	Equal variances not assumed			1.671	150.365	.097	.18671	.11173	-.03406	.40748
Mean	Principal Selection	1.367	.244	.108	161	.914	.01079	.10001	-.18671	.20830
	Equal variances not assumed			.110	153.754	.913	.01079	.09855	-.18390	.20549
Overall	Teacher Leadership	2.089	.150	1.974	161	.050	.10705	.05423	-.00005	.21415
	Equal variances not assumed			2.021	157.164	.045	.10705	.05296	.00245	.21165

The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically significant effect only in the case of Sharing Leadership (see Table 16). In particular, as far as Sharing Expertise (SE) is concerned, no significant differences in score appeared for Gymnasio teachers ($M=3.275$, $SD=.466$) and Lykeio teachers ($M=3.22$, $SD=.412$, $t(161)=.770$, $p=.442$, two-tailed). The results for Sharing Leadership reveal statistically significant differences in score for Gymnasio teachers ($M=3.02$, $SD=.532$,) and Lykeio teachers ($M=2.843$, $SD=.518$, $t(161)=2.116$, $p=.036<.05$, two-tailed). In relation to Supra-Practitioner, there was no significant difference in scores for Gymnasio teachers ($M=2.578$, $SD=.724$,) and Lykeio teachers ($M=2.391$, $SD=.691$, $t(161)=1.659$, $p=.099$, two-tailed). Neither for the last factor of Principal Selection has there been found significant difference between Gymnasio teachers ($M=2.503$, $SD=.655$) and Lykeio teachers ($M=2.492$, $SD=.596$, $t(161)=.108$, $p=.914$, two-tailed). A graphical representation of the means and the 95% confidence intervals is displayed in the table above (see Table 16).

4.9 Open-ended questions

As has been mentioned earlier in the study the Teacher Leadership Inventory (Angelle & DeHart, 2010) was slightly modified to better correspond to the Greek educational context. Apart from the rephrasals, six open-ended questions were added, for item 2 concerning teachers offering assistance to one another (*Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?*), item 5 about teachers being involved in decision making about activities regarding their school unit (*Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?*), item 8 in relation to teachers staying willingly at school to work on school improvement activities (*Do you remember when the*

last time it happened was and what it was about?). Moreover, open ended questions were added for item 9 about teachers willingly say at school to help other teachers (*Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?*), item 10 regarding teachers staying at school to work with administrators (*Do you remember when the last time was and what it was about?*) and item 12 in relation to principals' response to teachers' concerns (*Do you remember what exactly concerned you and how the principal responded?*). Answering the open-ended questions was optional and the percentage of participants who answered them ranges from 19.6% the lowest for item 9 and 39.9% the highest for item 2 open-ended question.

A descriptive analysis of the data was conducted which yielded the following results. The majority of the respondents to item 2 open-ended question (40%) answered that they offered assistance to one of their colleague in relation to teaching matters (teaching a new subject to the school curriculum, teaching specific area of a school subject, etc). The results to this question are shown in the following table.

Table 17: Descriptives for TLI response to Item 2 Open-ended Question

What was the assistance you offered to another teacher about?				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Teaching matters	26	16.0	40.0	40.0
Students' behaviour/performance	10	6.1	15.4	55.4
Students' evaluation	8	4.9	12.3	67.7
Valid Teaching to refugees	1	.6	1.5	69.2
Project implementation	14	8.6	21.5	90.8
Thematic week	6	3.7	9.2	100.0
Total	65	39.9	100.0	
Missing System	98	60.1		
Total	163	100.0		

As far as item 5 open-ended question is concerned, the descriptive analysis shows that the majority of the respondents (33.3%) were involved in making decisions about the thematic week, followed by decisions about teacher training (21.6%).

Table 18: Descriptives for TLI response to Item 5 Open-ended Question

What were the decisions about activities regarding your school unit about?		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Student evaluation	2	1.2	3.9	3.9
	Thematic week	17	10.4	33.3	37.3
	Teacher training	11	6.7	21.6	58.8
	Activities (sports, school, cross-thematic)	4	2.5	7.8	66.7
	Creative works	4	2.5	7.8	74.5
	Erasmus+ projects	7	4.3	13.7	88.2
	Project implementation	6	3.7	11.8	100.0
Total	51	31.3	100.0		
Missing	System	112	68.7		
Total		163	100.0		

In relation to the next three open-ended questions, most of the respondents stayed at school after they had finished their teaching duties to work on the organization and implementation of school activities or projects (29.6%), to help their colleagues with administrative tasks (31.3%) and to help their school administrators with the organization of school events (25%). Finally, their answer to item 12 open-ended question about teachers sharing their concerns with their principals reveals that the majority of teachers (18.4%) consult their principals about the problem of misbehaved students or about issues related to the organization of school events (18.4%). The following table illustrates all respondents' issues they consulted their principals about.

Table 19: Descriptives for TLI response to Item 12 Open-ended Question

What concerned you?		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	School visit	6	3.7	15.8	15.8
	Foreign teachers' wish to visit the school	1	.6	2.6	18.4
	Sports activities	1	.6	2.6	21.1
	Project dissemination	1	.6	2.6	23.7
	Letter exchange with foreign schools	1	.6	2.6	26.3
	Misbehaved students	7	4.3	18.4	44.7
	Timetable issues	1	.6	2.6	47.4
	Erasmus+ application	1	.6	2.6	50.0
	School event organization	7	4.3	18.4	68.4
	Finding resources for laboratory equipment	4	2.5	10.5	78.9

	Personal problems	1	.6	2.6	81.6
	Teacher training	2	1.2	5.3	86.8
	Supplementary teaching	1	.6	2.6	89.5
	Pedagogical matters	4	2.5	10.5	100.0
	Total	38	23.3	100.0	
Missing	System	125	76.7		
Total		163	100.0		

4.10 Summary

This chapter presents the results of the survey in detail, as they result from running the IBM® SPSS® Statistics 20© software. In the beginning, the frequencies of the categorical variables (demographic information) were presented. Next, the descriptive statistics of all 17 items separately, in factors and the overall TLI are provided along with Cronbach's alpha for each factor. As far as the relationship between TLI and the independent variables, independent samples t-tests were conducted for the gender of the participants and the type of school they work for. Moreover, one-way analyses of variances (ANOVA) were conducted to compare perceptions of Teacher Leadership across the variables of age, highest degree attained, and years of teaching experience. In all these cases the assumption of homogeneity of variances was tested on Levene's test for equality of variances, and wherever it was violated, a Tukey test was conducted to specify which group differed.

The results of the survey are discussed and future prospects are explored in the following chapter.

5 Chapter 5 Discussion – recommendations

5.1 Introduction

Much more is required than one single individual linking the large bureaucratic system and the everyday teachers' and students' experiences (Riordan, 2003). The burden of school principals is enormous inside and outside their schools. As Elmore explains the leadership on principalship suggests that 'principals should embody all the traits and skills that remedy all the defects of the schools in which they work' (Elmore, 2000, p.4) and this demand could not possibly be achieved by a single person. Teachers are required to take a pivotal role in structuring the educational practices of schools, and teacher leaders are expected to emerge so that they 'can make a substantial contribution to a school's mission of educating all students' (Danielson, 2006, p.125). When teachers 'are given opportunities to lead, teachers can influence school reform efforts. Waking this sleeping giant of teacher leadership has unlimited potential in making a real difference in the pace and depth of school change' (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, p. 102).

The present study sought to examine the construct of teacher leadership through the perceptions of secondary Greek educators completing the Teacher Leadership Inventory. These perceptions were also viewed through the lens of demographic characteristics of teacher respondents (gender, age, degree level, years of teaching experience, and type of school). The chapter begins with presenting the descriptive profile of the survey participants. Next, the study's findings are presented and discussed. The third section of the chapter examines the implications for school leaders and policy makers and makes recommendations for future research.

5.2 Descriptive profile of survey participants

Based on the descriptive profile of survey respondents, the majority of them (71.8%) were female compared to the male respondents (28.2%). The percentages of respondents based on their gender are in accord with the statistical data about male and female teachers in Greek secondary education (www.statistics.gr). As reported by the Hellenic Statistical Authority, the

percentage of female teachers in secondary education in Greece is 60.1%, while that of male teachers is 39.9% (school year 2005/2006). Apart from this arithmetic predominance of female teachers, the greater number of female participants could also be explained in terms of female teachers' availability at the time of the survey, or their greater willingness to participate in the survey.

In relation to the respondents' age, only 3.1% were 26-35 years old and only 1.2% of them had 1-2 years of teaching experience. Young teachers are indeed very few in Greek educational system – only 5.4% of teachers are up to 30 years old (Eurydice, 2011). This can be explained by the fact that the Ministry of Education has hired a restricted number of teaching personnel for the last 10 years, due to a period of financial austerity in all fields of national life. As far as the teachers' highest degree attained is concerned, the majority of respondents possess a Master's degree (52.1%). Having had the same experience themselves, teachers holding a master degree might feel more willing to assist other colleagues facing similar challenges. In relation to the type of school participants work for, teachers from both junior high schools (gymnasio) corresponded to 57.7% of the sample, and teachers from senior high schools (lykeio) account for 42.3%. Both groups of respondents rated the factors almost in the same way and there were no significant differences between them.

The results of the survey reveal that teachers' perceptions about teacher leadership are not influenced by their gender. The findings of another research in the Greek educational context relating to teachers' and principals' engagement in distributed leadership reveals that the respondents' gender does not play an important role and both men and women are engaged in the same way (Vlachadi & Ferla, 2013). Similarly, teachers' performance of leadership functions is unrelated to their gender (Camburn et al, 2003), although in Greece female population is under-represented due to several institutional, personal and socio-cultural barriers (Athanasoula-Reppa & Koutouzis, 2002).

Below follows an analysis of the findings for each factor separately followed by a discussion on the findings concerning the overall teacher leadership resulting from respondents' answers on the Teacher Leadership Inventory.

5.3 Discussion of the findings

a. Sharing Expertise

The factor the survey participants provided the highest score for was Sharing Expertise ($M=3.251$, $SD=.443$) (see Table 1). Angelle and Dehart (2011) clarify that when teacher leaders share expertise they share professional pedagogical knowledge with their colleagues through collaboration and shared practice. Teachers ask one another for assistance when they have a problem with student behavior in the classroom (Item 1, $M=3.632$, $SD=.544$), or when they have questions about how to teach a new topic or skill (Item 2, $M=3.485$, $SD=.612$). Moreover, teachers share new ideas with other teachers for teaching (Item 3, $M=2.969$, $SD=.757$), discuss ways to improve student learning (Item 4, $M=3.172$, $SD=.813$), and stay current on education research in their grade level, subject area or department (Item 7, $M=3.000$, $SD=.667$). Even the youngest participants in the survey have yielded a high score in the factor.

The participants' answers to the above items do not provide adequate evidence that would verify the process aspect of teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p.287-288), through which teachers, either individually or collectively, influence their colleagues to enhance their teaching and learning practices. Moreover, it would be interesting to note that the participants with the lowest teaching experience have given the highest score in the factor. This could be explained on the grounds that less experienced teachers ask for the professional assistance of more experienced teachers on a regular basis.

This factor score provides evidence that the culture of collaborative relationships in the respondents' schools is not sufficient, especially when questions about the teaching of new topics or skills arise. This finding agrees with the OECD/CERI's work (2000, 2004), which suggests that generally teachers at schools do not form strong networks to either share their knowledge or make their work explicit and shared with their colleagues. The teachers who replied (39.9% of the sample) to this question answered that they offered assistance to their colleagues on issues of teaching, student behavior and performance, or project implementation. However, it cannot be

possibly inferred from the participants' answers whether this exchange of information is successful or whether teachers also share their experience with other schools in their area or beyond by forming broader teacher networks. A study referring to Greek educational practices remarks that the formation of networks is a rather uncommon practice, and even when they are formed, they are not adequately organized neither well functioning, thus network practices hardly contribute to effective school leadership (Karagiannis, 2016).

b. Sharing Leadership

Sharing Leadership denotes the mutuality of leadership in a school, encompassing the willingness of principals to share leadership as well as the willingness of teachers to engage in leadership challenges (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Teachers are involved in making decisions about activities regarding their school unit (Item 5, $M=2.945$, $SD=.848$), are actively involved in improving the school as a whole (Item 6, $M=3.141$, $SD=.769$). The principal responds to the concerns and ideas of teachers (Item 12, $M=3.472$, $SD=.723$), teachers plan the content of professional learning activities in school (Item 13, $M=2.749$, $SD=.884$). Furthermore, teachers have opportunities to influence important decisions even if they do not hold an official leadership position (Item 14, $M=2.939$, $SD=.717$), and time is provided for teachers, beyond their teaching hours, to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning (Item 16, $M=2.423$, $Std=.860$). A contradiction lies in the answers. If teachers are not provided enough time to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning, it sounds strange how they are actively involved in improving the school as a whole or how they are able to exchange information and share knowledge (see previous paragraph). The mean for Sharing Expertise is higher than that of Sharing Leadership, implying that the wealth of knowledge is kept away and teachers appear to be excluded from areas of leadership. This is an area where the education profession must improve (Zehr, 2001), and teachers' knowledge and competence should be utilized for teacher's involvement in decision making.

As far as the relationship between the factor and the participants' age is concerned, it is worth noting that the eldest participants yielded the highest mean for this factor. This could be possibly explained by the fact that more experienced teachers have developed strong relationships with

the school administration and realize that leadership could be fostered in various ways by their school culture and exercised in multiple ways within their school contexts. On the other hand, their younger colleagues have not acquired a comprehensive understanding of the various leadership roles that might be fulfilled in their school contexts. Smith (2007) explains that veteran teachers fill most of the leadership roles, while new teachers have only occasional chances in teacher leadership. There are several suggestions for addressing the issue. Angelle & DeHart (2011, p.156) suggest that novice teachers should be supported 'as they attempt to socialize into the school community through professional development and training in polishing leadership skills is essential', and principals should provide 'structure and proximity to other teacher leaders' so that new teachers are supported in collaboration, sharing expertise, and mutual use of resources. Johnson and Kardos (2005) recommend that principals engage veteran and new teachers in common programming, commenting and offering feedback tasks in an effort to safeguard instructional continuity in schools. In many European countries (Greece is excepted) it is mandatory for teachers to engage in structured induction programmes for additional training and personalized help and advice (Eurydice, 2013).

For teachers to be able to lead and guide organizational improvement they should be given opportunities to lead development and change (Harris, 2003). The situation in Greek secondary schools sets a barrier to teacher leadership. Contrary to what Harris (2003) suggests in relation to involvement in decision-making, principals in Greek schools do not insure the conditions that would involve teachers in substantial decision-making concerning school improvement issues, or multiple groups of individuals guiding and mobilizing staff towards 'the instructional change process' (Spillane et al., 2001, p.20). This insufficient participation of teachers in decision-making shows that the leader-plus aspect (Spillane, 2006), fundamental in distributed leadership practices, is not realized, since informal leaders are not involved in leading and managing schools along with formal leaders.

One of the reasons why this is the case could be related to principals' self-confidence (Barth, 2001); principals with weak personalities are not willing to share leadership, while principals with strong personality traits, feel more secure to share leadership, and do not feel intimidated when the distinctions between followers and leaders tend to blur (Gronn, 2000). It is evident that

the leadership of the principal has a strong influence on teacher leadership. Whether teacher leaders are successful depends on the disempowerment of the working context (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Therefore, teachers should be provided with leadership opportunities and be willing to accept the challenges, while principals are eager to release power by creating chances for teachers to lead (Acker-Hocevar & Touchton, 1999).

c. Supra practitioner

The Supra Practitioner factor measures teachers' perceptions that willingly assume responsibilities beyond their prescribed roles (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Angelle and DeHart (2011) explain that supra-practitioners arrive early or stay after school for the benefit of administrators, colleagues, and students, go above and beyond their classroom duties, undertake additional duties, and perform tasks their colleagues are not willing to perform.

The results in the present study show that teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work on school improvement activities (Item 8, $M=2.454$, $Std=795$), to help other teachers who need assistance (Item 9, $M=2.337$, $Std=.818$), or to work with administrators, if administrators need assistance (Item 10, $M=2.334$, $Std=2.706$) only at some extent. The mean scores in the above items reveal that teachers are not accustomed to going above and beyond their regular classroom duties or assuming extra duties beyond their school days. Surprisingly enough, the youngest teachers rated this factor with the lowest score compared to the other age groups, while the eldest teachers rated this factor with the highest score. This could be explained by the fact that elder teachers might feel part of the school culture and responsible for the school organization, having earned the trust of formal leaders, or they might even hold informal leadership positions.

Following Harris's (2002) discernible dimensions of teacher leadership, the low score of respondents' answers in this factor indicate that teachers do not have a participative role in their organizations; neither do they feel part of their schools' course towards change or improvement. The scores in this factor should be viewed in relation to school culture, which is one critical condition that determines teacher leadership practices (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Moreover,

school culture determines the degree of collaboration among teachers as well as their willingness to act as change agents and substantial contributing factors to school improvement and change (Fullan, 2001). As Talbert and McLaughlin (1994) highlight the degree of professionalism and teacher participation is determined by school practices, which shape the numerical-concertive model put forward by Gronn (2002a, 2003), according to which multiple individuals exercise leadership through synergies achieved by joint actions.

In particular, it is surprising that the Supra-Practitioner factor mean is so low, given the fact that activities such as coming in early, staying late, and taking on extra responsibilities are associated with secondary schools, where several events and organizations place an extra demand on the schools. Angelle and Dehart (2011) conducted a survey in 43 schools in seven US states using the Teacher Leadership Inventory (2011). Their survey yielded significantly different results between elementary school teachers and middle and high school teachers, the former rating the factor Supra-Practitioner significantly higher than the latter.

The scores of the three teachers' groups in relation to their higher degree level presented no significant variance for all the factors except for the Supra-Practitioner factor, where the Ph.D/Ed.D holders rated the factor much higher than the other two participant groups (Bachelor and Master's holders). Therefore, one could infer that teachers' professional development through their doctorate education considerably affects the way they view themselves as agents of school improvement and development. On the contrary, Angelle and Dehart's (2011) findings reveal that teachers holding a bachelor reported significantly higher scores in this factor than those belonging in the master's or master's+ degree group, which might imply that bachelor education in the USA effectively instills qualities of teacher leadership in university students, or that bachelor group teachers are more willing to assume responsibilities beyond their prescribed roles in an attempt to compensate for their lack of higher degrees.

The Supra practitioner factor could be paralleled to what Organ (1988, p.4) defines as Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB), in particular the 'individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization'. Individual initiative has been

identified as a form of citizenship behavior and could be associated with the Supra Practitioner factor. This form of OCB is extra-role and includes behaviors such as ‘voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one’s task or the organization’s performance, persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one’s job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organization to do the same’ (Podsakoff et al., 2000, p.524). Furthermore, supra practitioners have been found to suffer from burnout since they lead both in the classroom and in the school and it is due to this fact that burn-out is considered to be a major detractor to maintaining a high number of teacher leaders (DiRanna & Loucks-Horsley, 2001).

d. Principal Selection

With reference to the Principal Selection Factor, administrators object when teachers take on leadership responsibilities (Item 11, $M=2.160$, $SD=.846$), the principal consults the same small group of teachers for input in decisions (Item 15, $M=2.896$, $SD=.860$), and most teachers in leadership positions only serve because they have been principal selected (Item 17, $M=2.442$, $SD=.917$). The score in the Principal Selection Factor is indicative of principals’ low willingness to share leadership with larger groups of teachers.

The results on the Principal Selection factor absolutely depend on principals’ behaviors. As underlined, Teacher Leadership in a school is determined by whether top-level leadership actors are eager to yield power to teacher leaders (Little, 2002), and top-down leadership practices threaten the development of teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Principals make use of top-down leading approaches to deal with their accountability responsibilities, and in this way they undermine effective partnerships between administrators and teachers (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001).

Futhermore, principals should be careful with in-groups and out-groups, so that they do not impair the climate of collaboration and trust caused by allocating leadership responsibilities to larger groups of teachers (Angelle & DeHart, 2011). Although it is convenient and safe for principals to turn to the same small group of teachers, they should continually search for teacher

leaders throughout the whole school environment. In this way, they can effectively promote teacher leadership and enhance school improvement and learning outcomes (Hopkins, 2001). Furthermore, principals who do not rely on the same group of people help establish and maintain a culture of respect towards all the teaching staff, collaboration and confidence in all teachers' potential, and offer the chance to latent teacher leaders to emerge. Therefore, it is very important for principals to create the right conditions that cause united cultures and collaboration (Harris, 2001), on the grounds that such conditions are bound to encourage teachers to become teacher leaders.

e. Overall Teacher Leadership

The Overall Teacher Leadership score ($M=2.799$, $SD=.345$) does not provide evidence whether there are emerging patterns of teacher leadership in the secondary Greek educational setting. When Angelle & DeHart (2011) used the Teacher Leadership Inventory, they examined teacher leadership in relation to certain independent variables, such as grade level, degree level and leadership status of the respondents. Also, in another study (Bradley-Levine et. al., 2014) where TLI was used to examine teacher leadership within the framework of a specific school reform model in New Tech schools in Indiana, the researchers used a 5-point Likert-type scale instead of a 4-point one and the mean score was $M=3.82$, $SD=.57$. This corresponding mean score in a 4-point Likert-type scale was substantially higher than the mean score of the present study.

The Eurydice report (2016, p.7) on teachers and school leaders in Europe concludes that leadership is often shared among formal leadership teams, while there are only rare cases of 'innovative approaches to school leadership, such as the distribution of leadership tasks among teachers or through the creation of informal ad-hoc leadership groups, are rather rare'. The Greek educational system remains highly traditional encompassing features of bureaucratic and vertical management (Athanasoula-Reppa & Lazaridou, 2008) and does not foster the development of teacher leadership. The idea of teacher leadership is novel in the Greek educational scene, and there have not been any researches on this study field so far. Therefore, it is impossible to compare and contrast research findings. However, a recent research on distributed leadership focusing on teachers' commitment to four dimensions of distributed leadership (Αλτιντζής,

2014), concluded that the principal exclusively exercises leadership through rigid hierarchical structures.

At this point it would be useful to review respondents' answers to the open-ended questions of the questionnaire. The factor of Sharing Leadership included two open-ended questions following items 5 and 12 in the Teacher Leadership Inventory. In relation to question 5, most of the participants who responded to this question mentioned that they were engaged in making decisions concerning the thematic week¹ and teacher training issues. The answers for question 12 reveal that most teachers are concerned with school visits, misbehaved students and the organization of school events. Moreover, in relation to the Supra Practitioner factor, when teachers stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties, according to their responses to the open-ended questions, they usually help with the organization and implementation of school events and projects, or with administrative tasks. It appears as if teachers' extra time is absorbed by ordinary bureaucratic issues. This, in turn, raises the question of whether it would be more conducive to school improvement if teachers offered their help with other activities (for example, building networks with other school, local community factors, universities, organizations, updating the school website to disseminate an event, forming department teams to address several school improvement matters, starting new school initiatives, etc).

One might speculate on whether these instances constitute instances where teachers' participation in authentic leadership activities is encouraged, as would be the case of a group of teachers actively engaging in creative activities, such as taking the responsibility of organizing a voluntary service event with the local community or conducting a survey among the student body to draw conclusions on students' attitudes on school practices. Little (2002) underlines that the possibility of teacher leadership in any school depends on whether formal leaders relinquish real power to teachers as well as on the extent to which teachers are accepted as leaders by their

¹ Thematic weeks are organized at the end of each year in junior high schools (gymnasio). Their purpose is to engage students in a set of activities, projects and experiences that have a predetermined topic decided by the school teachers.

colleagues. The respondents' answers to the open-ended questions also raise the issue of whether the 'topdown' leadership model that dominates in many schools set a structural barrier in the implementation of teacher leadership (Harris & Muijs, 2003) and the extent they do in specific school contexts. Actually, top-down approaches to leadership constitute important barriers for distributed leadership development (Harris 2003) that do not allow power to detach from the current hierarchy of leadership.

Since teacher leadership is viewed in relation to distributed leadership, the participants' answers to the open-ended questions shed light on the insufficient practices of distributed leadership in secondary Greek schools. The incorporation of activities of multiple groups of individuals in a school who work at guiding and mobilizing staff in the instructional change process and the interaction of multiple leaders are both inherent features in a distributed view of leadership (Spillane cited in Harris, 2003, p.319). Frost (2012, p.214) highlights that a key feature of the distributed leadership approach to teacher leadership is that teachers are enabled to lead developmental projects initiated by individual teachers with enthusiasm and a sense of moral purpose.

Distributed leadership involves the active collaboration between principals and teachers on the main fields of educational practice, such as in the relationship among the members of the school community, the connection between the school and the local community, in the organization of events, educational activities and initiatives, as well as in issues regulated by the central ministerial administration, such as the curriculum, teaching and evaluation (Παπαβασιλείου-Πυργιωτάκη & Πυργιωτάκης, 2015). In the present study case, an element of networking appears to be missing. This is because there is no evidence that a net of individuals beyond those in formal leadership roles is involved in managing and leading schools (Frost, 2005; Elmore, 2000). Furthermore, it is quite clear that teachers are mainly concerned with non-authentic leadership activities and, thus, school administration does not fulfill the demands of modern schools, since formal leaders are preoccupied more with routine issues at the expense of creative initiatives, such as the school networking with external environment (Σαΐτης, κ.ά., 1997). Although the responsibilities are commonly allocated in schools of other countries (Κασουλίδης & Πασιαρδής, 2005), Greek schools have not adopted this practice. However, it is imperative that they create a

culture of group work by abandoning the traditional culture of isolation (Ιορδανίδης & Τσαγκαλίδου, 2002).

5.4 Discussion and implications

School leadership is critical for the improvement of public education in Greece and relevant literature suggests that principals could not possibly induce school change and improvement alone. Instead, the help of several factors is required, especially the important contribution of teachers to school improvement (Barth, 2001, Frost & Durrant, 2003, Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2009). The present study sought to explore the extent to which teacher leadership is practiced in the Greek secondary educational context. The research findings yielded a rather low Overall Teacher Leadership score ($M=2.799$, $SD=.345$), implying that teacher leadership is not a common practice in the Greek public secondary educational setting. The research results affirmed the original assumptions of inadequate teacher leadership practices and its negative influence on learning outcomes in the Greek public secondary education. The low score of teacher leadership clearly illustrates the lack of conditions – outlined in Chapter 2 – critical to teacher leadership practices. The research results are discussed in relation to the theoretical framework and review of relevant literature and at the same time suggestions for effective teacher leadership practices in the Greek context are made.

The most important condition for teacher leadership to flourish is the context of Distributed Leadership. Distributed Leadership ‘incorporates the activities of multiple groups of individuals’, who interact in an interdependent way and determine leadership task accomplishment’ (Harris, 2003, p.317). The inadequate practice of teacher leadership leads to the conclusion that Distributed Leadership is not a common practice in the Greek public secondary educational context. The lack of researches on the topic could not possibly confirm or refute the alleged implication. However, a research on distributed leadership practices in primary education (Παπαευαγγέλου, 2014) reports that, although there are some noticeable elements of distributed leadership in Greek primary education, a systematic adoption of widespread participatory processes is required for distributed leadership to occur.

Greece's educational system is one of the most centrally governed systems in Europe, and leaves no scope for increasing the flexibility and responsiveness of schools to their students' needs (OECD, 2011). Since 2011 there have been a number of changes involving comprehensive reforms of compulsory education within the overarching framework 'The Student First – New School' (Νέο Σχολείο). Distributing leadership can both reduce the burden of school principals as well as improve school effectiveness by 'building capacity for continuous improvement, for addressing within-school variation and for succession planning' (OECD, 2009). For distributed leadership to occur, the practice of school leadership has to be realized within the context of leadership tasks and interactions (Gronn, 2002a, Spillane et al., 2009), thus creating increased involvement of professional learning culture in the tasks and interactions in leadership. In Greece, as in most European countries, school leadership is shared among formal leadership teams (deputy principal, administrative assistants, etc.). However, innovative approaches to distributed approach demand the distribution of leadership tasks among teachers or other informal leadership groups (Eurydice, 2013).

Teacher leadership might seem incompatible with the hierarchical and bureaucratic structures of the Greek education. However, even established hierarchical structures could not prevent principals or other leaders from applying a distributed approach in their schools. The inadequate teacher leadership practices suggested by the research findings are closely related to principal leadership. Principals do not involve teachers in decision making and do not offer them the chance to contribute to the future development of schools, either because they are afraid of becoming vulnerable and unable to control directly certain activities (Harris, 2003) or because they are completely unaware of the potential of teacher leadership. In both cases, principals can better fulfill their leadership roles if they participate in professional development programs aiming at changing the knowledge, skills, and competencies at every level of the system.

Professional development can be defined as 'the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives' (Day, 1999, p.4). A comprehensive professional development program for education

administrators and school principals in Greece is expected to motivate the large core of teachers in public schools (OECD 2011). Leadership development is necessary, since leadership practice can be built through gaining knowledge and skills (DiRanna & Loucks-Horsley, 2001).

This is an important point for educational policy makers, who should address the issue of establishing a context conducive to teacher leadership. Policy makers should be able to support the development of principalship, 'which is a matter both of structure and of professional development in the form of preparation and ongoing support' (Frost, 2012, p.222). Furthermore, they should ensure that university students receive pre-service teacher development that equips them with the appropriate features so that they are able to assume teacher leadership roles in the future. Policy makers should also focus on the importance of allowing young teachers work in schools. Young teachers, having received university education that is shaped by the latest research findings and modern educational trends, they are more willing to and capable of adopting themselves to modern leadership practices. However, in Greece, due to the economic crisis, hardly any young teacher has been appointed and this insufficient representation of younger teachers is overt in the extremely low percentage of young participants in the research.

The research findings revealed the insufficiency of school culture and structures favorable for teacher leadership. Teachers' substantial participation in decision making, school structures that encourage collaboration among the teaching personnel, foster trust among teachers, as well as between teachers and principals are paramount in supporting teachers become teacher leaders. This is illustrated by Frost and Durrant (2003, p.179) who suggest that principals can support teacher leadership by creating 'the internal structures and conditions that are conducive to teacher leadership'. In this way, principals become leaders of leaders trying to establish a relationship of trust with the staff and strengthening autonomy and leadership throughout the school (Ash & Persall, 2000). Moreover, principals could support teacher leaders by providing them with external support to 'enter into and build partnerships with other agencies' 'based on mutual respect for different values, missions, expertise and experience' (Frost & Durrant, 2003, p.179). Whenever principals are equipped with an understanding of the important role of context in teachers' eagerness to exhibit schoolwide leadership, they can prepare better networks of support for teacher leaders. (Angelle & DeHart, 2011).

It is not only the development of principals that should be addressed, but also the professional development of teachers. The fact that teacher leadership in the Greek public secondary educational context is not sufficiently practiced could also be attributed to teachers' unwillingness to assume teacher leadership roles. In a recent research carried out to determine the degree of teachers' readiness to engage in the dimensions of distributed leadership in primary and secondary education in Western Thessaloniki (Αλτιντζής, 2014), teachers' degrees of commitment to the principles of distributed leadership are low.

A systematic attempt towards school culture change along with teachers' continuing professional development (CPD) are expected to encourage teachers assume teacher leadership roles. Again this is an issue policy makers should effectively address. While the majority of European countries consider CPD a professional duty for teachers, in Greece CPD is considered optional (Eurydice, 2016). Harris and Muijs (2003) suggest that teacher leadership is inseparably connected with teacher learning and professional development, engaging teachers in issues of professionalism and positively affecting school and classroom change. It is necessary for effective teacher leaders to be first accomplished teachers (Odell, 1997, p. 122). In recent years, CPD has been detached from government initiatives and schools have been assigned to engage in school-based learning which is more collaborative and takes advantage of teachers' existing knowledge (Mylles & Frost, 2006).

The provision of opportunities for professional development, the issue of time, as well as the encouragement of teachers to achieve self-efficacy should be paid careful attention in Greek education (Παπαβασιλείου, 2015). The issue of time is a very important condition that determines the extent of teacher leadership in all educational settings, Greece included, and time should be set aside for teachers to meet, discuss, develop plans, lead groups, organize visits, and collaborate (Harris, 2003). Bubb and Early (2010) note that teacher leadership demands a lot of time and advise principals to find creative ways to support their staff development. In some cases the issue of time constitutes an important obstacle in teacher leadership, since teachers' time has been restricted due to the wealth of administrative tasks they have to process, the high number of

teaching hours per week, as well as transportation issues to different schools throughout the same day.

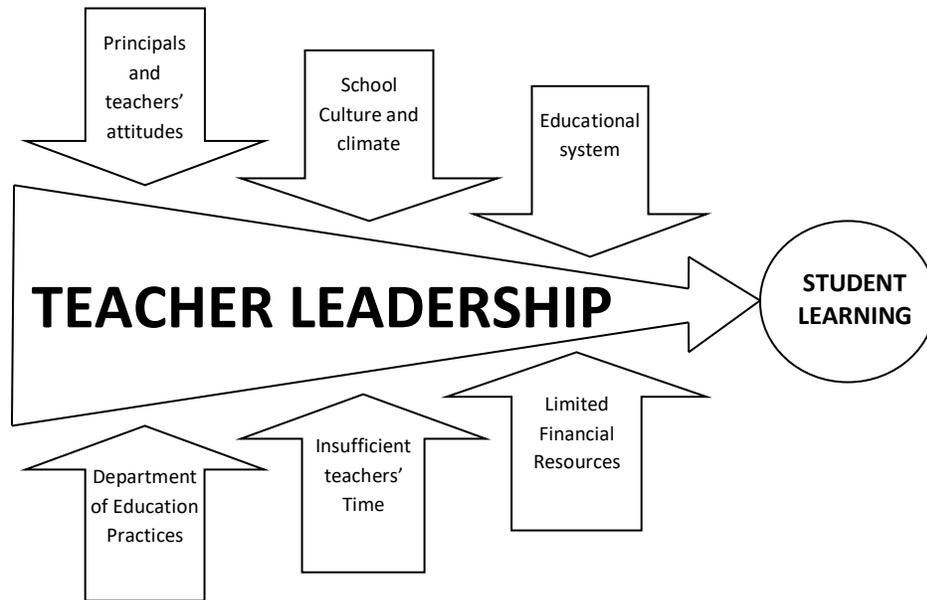


Figure 5.1 Teacher leadership in the Greek context

All things considered, teacher leadership has been viewed ‘as a key dimension of a strategy for innovation in which non-positional teacher leadership is pivotal’ if educational systems are to be transformed (Frost, 2012, p.223). In relation to the Greek public secondary educational context, teacher leadership is impeded by several conditions that either restrict or prevent teacher leadership practices altogether (Figure 5.1). Principals’ and teachers’ attitudes, the structure of the educational system, the Department of Education policies, insufficient financial resources, lack of time and unfavorable school structures pose important barriers in the implementation of teacher leadership practices. Moreover, the establishment of a way of thinking that rewards and praises teacher excellence might encourage teachers to assume teacher leadership roles in the future.

5.5 Recommendations for further research

In spite of the abundance of theoretical claims on the beneficial effects of teacher leadership upon students and schools, there is not enough empirical evidence about the actual tactic of teacher leadership. The present study constitutes a small-scale research that obviously restricts the extent to which the study findings could be possibly generalized to a national level. The number of teachers who participated in the study is little compared to the total number of teachers working in Greek secondary education. Larger scale studies with the participation of more teachers from all regions of Greece will be required if findings are to be generalized to a broader extent. Despite this limitation, the study offers useful insight into the emerging concept of teacher leadership practice and offers rich data for anyone involved in the education field. Moreover, it would be interesting if the research was repeated after a certain period of time, so that the findings would reveal the tendency of teacher leadership in Greek secondary educational context. If elementary schools were also involved in the study or if a combination instrumentation involving both quantitative and qualitative research methods was employed, the survey would yield even more useful data.

It would be very interesting for a future survey to focus on schools which implement teacher leadership and study the impact of teacher leadership on student outcomes during a longitudinal study, how teacher leadership is enacted, and what complicates or enables teachers' leadership activity. Finally, the parameters of the Greek educational context are likely to pose barriers in the implementation of teacher leadership, and it would be enlightening for everyone involved in education to know the reasons why teachers possibly object to or support teacher leadership.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter to research participants



Ονομάζομαι Ευαγγελία Τριανταφύλλου και είμαι μεταπτυχιακή φοιτήτρια στο Πρόγραμμα Μεταπτυχιακών Σπουδών “Οργάνωση και Διοίκηση της Εκπαίδευσης – Εκπαιδευτική Ηγεσία” του Τμήματος Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης του Πανεπιστημίου Δυτικής Μακεδονίας. Στο πλαίσιο της Διπλωματικής μου εργασίας διεξάγω έρευνα με θέμα “Η ηγεσία του εκπαιδευτικού ως μορφή της κατανομημένης ηγεσίας: στοιχεία, πρακτικές και προοπτικές στα σχολεία Δευτεροβάθμιας Εκπαίδευσης στην Ελλάδα.”

Σκοπός της διπλωματικής εργασίας είναι να διερευνήσει τις αντιλήψεις των εκπαιδευτικών πάνω στο θέμα της ηγεσίας των εκπαιδευτικών στις σχολικές μονάδες δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης στην Ελλάδα. Για τον σκοπό αυτό χρησιμοποιήθηκε το εργαλείο απογραφής της ηγεσίας του εκπαιδευτικού (Teacher Leadership Inventory), όπως σχεδιάστηκε και διατυπώθηκε από τους Angelle και Dehart (2010) μεταφρασμένο στην ελληνική γλώσσα.

Η συμμετοχή σας στην έρευνα είναι εθελοντική και ανώνυμη. Παρακαλείστε να απαντήσετε σε κάποιες προσωπικές ερωτήσεις και στη συνέχεια στα 17 ερωτήματα που αποτελούν το μέσο απογραφής της ηγεσίας του εκπαιδευτικού. Για την συμμετοχή σας θα απαιτηθούν 8-10 περίπου λεπτά για να απαντήσετε στα ερωτήματα.

Διευκρινίζεται ότι όλες οι πληροφορίες συλλέγονται μέσω ηλεκτρονικής έρευνας, που εγγυάται την ανωνυμία των απαντήσεων και την μη ταύτιση των απαντήσεων με τα προσωπικά στοιχεία των συμμετεχόντων. Μετά την συλλογή και ανάλυση των απαντήσεων, τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας θα είναι προσβάσιμα μέσω της διπλωματικής μου εργασίας.

Σας ευχαριστώ πολύ εκ των προτέρων για την συμμετοχή σας στην έρευνα. Είμαι στη διάθεσή σας για οποιαδήποτε πληροφορία.

e-mail: evangeliatriantafyllou@gmail.com

Η έρευνα αυτή διεξάγεται στα πλαίσια εκπόνησης διπλωματικής εργασίας για την απόκτηση μεταπτυχιακού τίτλου σπουδών στη «Οργάνωση και Διοίκηση της Εκπαίδευσης – Εκπαιδευτική Ηγεσία» του Τμήματος Δημοτικής Εκπαίδευσης του Πανεπιστημίου Δυτικής Μακεδονίας.

Σκοπός της διπλωματικής εργασίας είναι να διερευνήσει τις αντιλήψεις των εκπαιδευτικών πάνω στο θέμα της ηγεσίας των εκπαιδευτικών ως μορφή άσκησης κατανεμημένης ηγεσίας στις σχολικές μονάδες δευτεροβάθμιας εκπαίδευσης στην Ελλάδα.

Η συμβολή σας στην επιτυχή διεξαγωγή της έρευνας είναι ιδιαίτερα σημαντική. Το ερωτηματολόγιο είναι ανώνυμο, εμπιστευτικό και τα αποτελέσματα θα χρησιμοποιηθούν αυστηρά και μόνο στα πλαίσια της στατιστικής ανάλυσης της έρευνας. Ο χρόνος που θα χρειαστείτε για την συμπλήρωση του ερωτηματολογίου είναι περίπου πέντε λεπτά.

Σας ευχαριστώ πολύ εκ των προτέρων για τη συμβολή και το χρόνο σας.

Με εκτίμηση,

Ευαγγελία Τριανταφύλλου

Appendix B: Teacher Leadership Inventory (adjusted)

Teacher Leadership Inventory

For each statement below, indicate how often this occurs in your school. Mark only one response per item.

Items	Routinely	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Item 1: Teachers ask one another for assistance when they have a problem with student behavior in the classroom.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Item 2: Teachers willingly offer assistance to one another when they have questions about how to teach a new topic or skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?				
Item 3: Teachers share new ideas for teaching with other teachers such as through grade level/department meetings, school wide meetings, professional development, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Item 4: Teachers discuss ways to improve student learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Item 5: Teachers are involved in making decisions about activities regarding their school unit, such as professional development, cross curricular projects, etc.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?				
Item 6: Teachers are actively involved in improving the school as a whole.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Item 7: Teachers stay current on education research in our grade level/subject area/department.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Item 8: Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work on school improvement activities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?				
Item 9: Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to help other teachers who need assistance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?				

<p>Item 10: Teachers willingly stay at school after they have finished their teaching duties to work with administrators, if administrators need assistance.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Do you remember when the last time it happened was and what it was about?</p>				
<p>Item 11: Administrators object when teachers take on leadership responsibilities.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Item 12: The principal responds to the concerns and ideas of teachers.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Do you remember what exactly concerned you and how the principal responded?</p>				
<p>Item 13: Teachers plan the content of professional learning activities at my school.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Item 14: Teachers have opportunities to influence important decisions even if they do not hold an official leadership position.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Item 15: The principal consults the same small group of teachers for input on decisions.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Item 16: Time is provided for teachers, beyond their teaching hours, to collaborate about matters relevant to teaching and learning.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>Item 17: Most teachers in leadership positions only serve because they have been principal appointed (although they did not choose it themselves).</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix C: Teacher Leadership Inventory (adjusted) in Greek

Teacher Leadership Inventory

Για κάθε μια από τις παρακάτω προτάσεις, δηλώστε πόσο συχνά αυτό που περιγράφεται συμβαίνει στο σχολείο σας. Σημειώστε μια μόνο επιλογή για κάθε πρόταση.

Προτάσεις	Συνήθως	Μερικές Φορές	Σπάνια	Ποτέ
1. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί συμβουλευόνται ο ένας τον άλλον, όταν αντιμετωπίζουν κάποιο πρόβλημα με τη συμπεριφορά των μαθητών στην τάξη.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί πρόθυμα προσφέρουν βοήθεια ο ένας στον άλλον, όταν υπάρχουν ερωτήσεις σχετικά με τη διδασκαλία ενός νέου θέματος ή δεξιότητας.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Θυμάστε πότε ήταν η τελευταία φορά που έγινε κάτι τέτοιο και ποιο ήταν το ζήτημα;				
3. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί μοιράζονται νέες ιδέες για τη διδασκαλία με τους υπόλοιπους εκπαιδευτικούς, π.χ. κατά τη διάρκεια συναντήσεων ανά τάξη/τομέα, ευρύτερων συνελεύσεων όλου του προσωπικού, δράσεις επαγγελματικής ανάπτυξης των εκπαιδευτικών, κ.ά.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί συζητούν τρόπους να βελτιώσουν τις μαθησιακές επιδόσεις των μαθητών.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί εμπλέκονται στη λήψη αποφάσεων σχετικά με δραστηριότητες που σχετίζονται με τη σχολική μονάδα, όπως η επαγγελματική ανάπτυξη των εκπαιδευτικών, οι διαθεματικές εργασίες, κ.ά.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Θυμάστε πότε ήταν η τελευταία φορά που έγινε κάτι τέτοιο και ποιο ήταν το θέμα της συζήτησης;				
6. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί εμπλέκονται ενεργά στη βελτίωση του σχολείου συνολικά.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί παρακολουθούν συνεχώς την επιστημονική εξέλιξη και έρευνα σχετικά με την βαθμίδα εκπαίδευσης τους/διδασκόμενα μαθήματα/τομείς σπουδών.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί μένουν πρόθυμα στο σχολείο μετά το διδακτικό τους ωράριο, για να εργαστούν σε δραστηριότητες βελτίωσης του σχολείου.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Θυμάστε πότε ήταν η τελευταία φορά που έγινε κάτι τέτοιο και με τι ασχοληθήκατε;				

<p>9. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί μένουν πρόθυμα στο σχολείο μετά το διδακτικό τους ωράριο, για να βοηθήσουν άλλους εκπαιδευτικούς που χρειάζονται βοήθεια.</p> <p>Θυμάστε πότε ήταν η τελευταία φορά που έγινε κάτι τέτοιο και με τι ασχοληθήκατε;</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>10. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί μένουν πρόθυμα στο σχολείο μετά το διδακτικό τους ωράριο, για να εργαστούν με τον/την (υπο)διευθυντή/ρια του σχολείου, αν οι τελευταίοι χρειάζονται βοήθεια.</p> <p>Θυμάστε πότε ήταν η τελευταία φορά που έγινε κάτι τέτοιο και με τι ασχοληθήκατε;</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>11. Τα διευθυντικά στελέχη του σχολείου αντιτίθενται όταν οι εκπαιδευτικοί αναλαμβάνουν πρωτοβουλίες.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>12. Ο/Η διευθυντής/ρια του σχολείου ανταποκρίνεται στις ανησυχίες και τις ιδέες των εκπαιδευτικών.</p> <p>Θυμάστε τι ακριβώς σας απασχόλησε και πώς ο/η διευθυντής/ρια ανταποκρίθηκε;</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>13. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί σχεδιάζουν το περιεχόμενο των δράσεων για την επαγγελματική τους ανάπτυξη στο σχολείο.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>14. Οι εκπαιδευτικοί έχουν τη δυνατότητα να ασκήσουν επιρροή στη λήψη σημαντικών αποφάσεων για το σχολείο, ακόμα κι αν δεν κατέχουν επίσημα μια θέση ευθύνης.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>15. Ο/Η διευθυντής/ρια συμβουλευεται πάντα την ίδια μικρή ομάδα των εκπαιδευτικών για την εκτίμηση στοιχείων πριν τη λήψη αποφάσεων.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>16. Εξασφαλίζεται χρόνος πέραν του ωραρίου διδασκαλίας στους εκπαιδευτικούς να συνεργάζονται πάνω σε θέματα σχετικά με τη διδασκαλία και τη μάθηση.</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<p>17. Οι περισσότεροι εκπαιδευτικοί υπηρετούν σε θέσεις ευθύνης, μόνο επειδή έχουν οριστεί από τον/την διευθυντή/ρια (χωρίς να το έχουν επιλέξει οι ίδιοι).</p>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>