

Ismail Hussein Amzat  
Nena P. Valdez *Editors*

# Teacher Empowerment Toward Professional Development and Practices

Perspectives Across Borders

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# Preface

In this era of accountability, schools are being made more and more answerable for the achievement and performance of students. Furthermore, in line with the needs of the global knowledge economy, schools are being pushed to raise standards and improve the quality of teaching and teachers to prepare students for the current and future workplace. Consequently, teacher education is a key issue being debated in the world of education today. This book “Teacher Empowerment Toward Professional Development and Practices: Perspectives Across Borders” is a timely response to the need for continuous teacher development around world especially in developing countries. Teacher professional development (TPD) or continuous professional development (CPD) involves the empowerment of teachers through autonomy, accountability and continuous learning. Continuous teacher development is the core concern of all educational organizations and is the means by which teacher improvement can be attained.

Effective student learning does not happen in a vacuum. First of all, schools needs to be transformed into learning communities, for both students and teachers, and this is facilitated by the school leadership which implements the policies for teacher training and teacher development. By fostering a spirit of shared leadership and collaboration, school management can create a culture of learning where teachers share their ideas and learning experiences and review their classroom practices to upgrade their teaching skills for the betterment of the school and student achievement. Such practices can be further enhanced by the integration of technology into the classroom that uses instructional tools and online activities to engage students in their learning. The integration of technology into the classroom also boosts students’ creativity. However, it requires professional training and teacher competence in computer-based instruction (CBI).

From the above points, it is clear that teacher education and development is a matter of critical importance for all schools. Students require quality teachers and teachers need to continually upgrade their knowledge in order to meet the needs of the twenty-first century and the changes in student diversity and learning styles. Teachers are responsible for preparing and delivering high-quality lessons that maximize learning. Pedagogy therefore needs to keep pace with developments in

education, moving from a more traditional, teacher-centred approach, such as memorization or lecturing to more learner-centred methods that engender comprehension and application of knowledge. Teachers and students both need to grow as individuals. The road to good teaching is an arduous one, requiring a wealth of experience and a variety of techniques.

As the majority of the chapters of this book relate to developing countries, it draws attention to the fact that there is a serious call for educational reform and an indication that teacher empowerment as well as professional development is needed. There is a public outcry over the state of the educational system in Africa and other developing countries. The decline in educational standards of some developing countries has adversely impacted teacher education and the quality of their teaching. Thus, it is clear that the lack of proper educational resources has taken its toll on teacher's professional development as well as their teaching practices. It is also important to note that, even in some developing countries where the educational system is well structured, there continues to be a struggle to provide quality education and to offer continuous education and professional development for teachers.

Therefore, this book addresses the problems and issues related to teacher training and teacher development in developing countries as well as the educational policies relating to them. It draws on studies written by authors from a variety of international backgrounds, mostly from developing countries and shares their research and findings. Their research therefore looks at teacher empowerment, professional development and teaching practices from different perspectives.

The combination of chapters within this book strongly affirms that teacher professional development is an art of self-empowerment. Teacher autonomy, leadership and efficacy are set to grow over the coming decades as precursors for professional development. This book believes that, as demonstrated by the empirical findings, reports and theories provided by various authors in their chapters, there is a strong relationship between teacher's empowerment and their professional development. An example to illustrate this relationship could be when teachers are autonomous in designing school curriculum. Here they select their own teaching materials for instruction and lead their classrooms, and they participate in the decision-making process. Ultimately it creates a sense of belonging, empowerment and accountability. It motivates them to engage in lifelong learning activities and paves the way for further improvement in their area of expertise whilst also becoming practitioners.

Empowering teachers is a type of mechanism to boost trust amongst teachers. It instills a sense of autonomy in teachers to pursue their personal and professional growth in order to remain relevant in their fields whilst also improving teaching and learning. It can be argued that, less empowered or motivated teachers may seek alternative careers and find refuge in other professions or careers that empower and better motivate them. To further support this argument, the authors in this book are active researchers in their respective fields related to teacher professional development.

The chapters within this book provide insights, findings, theories, concepts and methods for teachers seeking to improve their repertoire of instructional strategies or their other professional practices.

Part I of this book shows how shared leadership, autonomy and accountability are prerequisites for effective leaders and managers and their multifaceted roles. It also offers self-development approaches for empowering teachers and motivating them to improve their professional practices.

Chapter 1: ‘Evolution of Teacher Leadership as a Challenging Paradigm in Rethinking and Restructuring Educational Settings’ by Adnan Boyac and Yakup Oz reveals teacher leadership to be a changing concept involving transformational leadership, distributed leadership and organizational structures that guide the management of schools, as well as promoting constructivist and collaborative professional learning for teachers.

Chapter 2: ‘Promoting Teachers’ Leadership Through Autonomy and Accountability’ by Nabi Bux Jumani and Samina Malik looks at teachers as the cornerstone of schools. Teacher quality and competency are a central issue for school improvement. Hence, developing teachers’ capacity to engage in self-directed learning transforms them from being mere administrators and record keepers to become accountable, autonomous and productive leaders who engage in decision-making.

Chapter 3: ‘Sharing School Leadership: Teacher Empowerment or Principal Relegation?’ by Ismail Hussein Amzat looks at school power-sharing and leadership from a new angle. The author questions that power should be shared, arguing that total autonomy for teachers renders the principal redundant and powerless. However, he concurs that shared leadership and partial power-sharing help to improve school performance and student achievement due to the participation of teachers in the decision-making process and the development of school programs.

Chapter 4: ‘Changing Definition of Teacher Professionalism: Autonomy and Accountability’ by Joseph Wu, Hoi-Yan Cheung and Raymond M.C. Chan considers teacher professionalism and how it benefits society from the perspectives of the different stakeholders of schools (teachers, students, and parents) in Hong Kong.

Chapter 5: ‘Teachers’ Autonomy and Accountability in Assessing Students’ Physical Education in School-Based Assessment’ by Ruzlan bin Md. Ali and Arsaythamby Veloo recognizes that school-based assessment (SBA) is one methods for supporting teacher autonomy and developing their sense of accountability. The chapter discusses assessment in physical education (PE) and covers both the theoretical and practical aspects of this. It also discusses the impact of PE assessment on the teachers’ orchestration and design of assessment activities as well as their responses to ensuring fairness in the eyes of stakeholders when determining the level of students’ performance.

Part II sheds light upon professional training and the role of lifelong learning for the improving teaching and promoting continuous development of teachers’ knowledge, skills and performance.

Chapter 6 presents ‘Transforming Education through Teacher Empowerment and Development in Namibia: Possibilities and Challenges’ by Cornelia Ndahambelesa Shimwooshili Shaimemanya. In this chapter, the author advocates teacher empowerment as a vehicle for transforming world education, particularly in developing countries. The chapter also discusses the issue of teacher training, development and empowerment for the improvement of teacher quality in Namibia and the achievement of Vision 2030 in a knowledge-based economy.

Chapter 7: ‘Mathematics Continuous Professional Development and Its Relevance to the New Era in South Africa’ by Zingiswa MM Jojo addresses the perceived incompetence of mathematics teachers in South Africa. As a solution, the introduction of sustained professional development, lifelong learning and peer-learning is presented as well as teachers are encouraged to engage in critical self-reflection and innovation in the mathematics classroom.

Chapter 8: ‘Professional Training and Lifelong Learning for School Heads of Departments: A Gateway for Headship Continuous Improvement’ by Sharon Thabo Mampane focuses on the training of heads of department (HoDs) to promote lifelong learning through mentoring and coaching, as well as exploring innovative ways of supporting lifelong learning through school middle-management training and professional development.

Chapter 9: ‘Engaging Teachers in Lifelong Learning in Oman for Knowledge Growth and Development: Government Roles and Higher Institutions’ by Ismail Hussein Amzat, Salim Hamed Al-Mahruqi, Muhajir Teslikhan and Turkiya Al Omairi presents teachers’ perceptions and engagement in lifelong learning (LLL) in Oman, and the role played by the government and higher education institutions in engaging and encouraging teachers in LLL activities. The authors affirm that in spite of significant efforts on the part of the government to improve the Oman education system, there are still areas of weaknesses and room for improvement.

Chapter 10: ‘Counseling Ethics Education for Enhanced Professional Identity and Development: Guidance and Counseling Teachers Lifelong Learning Acquisition Empowered’ by Noor Syamilah Zakaria, Jane Warren and Ab. Rahim Bakar presents an in-depth case study exploring and interpreting how guidance and counseling teachers will help them to learn, understand, experience, and apply counseling ethics to evolve their professional identity and develop a counselor education training program. The chapter calls for substantial changes in the instructional approaches used at higher educational institutions in Malaysia, for the promotion of lifelong learning of guidance and counseling teachers and the enhancement of their identity as counseling professionals.

Chapter 11: ‘An Approach to Motivation and Empowerment: The Application of Positive Psychology’ by Christine W.Y. Mak, Samuel M.Y. Ho, Rita Ching and Edmund T.T. Lo explains how positive psychology empowers teachers and students by giving them hope. The authors attempted to make a theoretical link between teacher motivation and student motivation using positive psychology. At the end of the chapter they formulate their ‘SHINE’ intervention for improving positive psychology among teachers.

Part III explores the thinking abilities required of teachers in the twenty-first century teaching, learning as well as the pedagogical shortcomings of conventional teaching practices.

Chapter 12: ‘Teacher Responsive Teaching and Learning Initiatives Through Action Research’ by Mary Koutselini introduces action research as a form of teacher empowerment. Teaching is presented as a cyclical process whereby teachers plan, act and respond to students’ needs, evaluate their actions and then replan new actions based on students’ responses and participation. The author suggests that in this way, teachers and students learn new skills, strategies and communicative attitudes.

Chapter 13: ‘Teaching and Learning for Real-life: The Application of Real-life Moral Dilemma Discussion (Re-LiMDD) for Classroom Interaction’ by Vishalache Balakrishnan explores the application of real-life moral-dilemma discussion (Re-LiMDD) in the teaching and learning of the social studies classroom and non-social studies classroom. The author argues that linking content to students’ real lives encourages deep learning and equips them with higher order thinking skills (HOTS) as a natural and authentic process.

Chapter 14: ‘Infusing Thinking-Based-Learning in the Twenty-First Century Classroom: The Role of Teacher Skillful Thinking Skills Training’ by Muhammed Yusuf explores and reviews TBL related theories, applications and practices in teaching and learning. It also emphasizes the importance of professional training in TBL for boosting students’ ‘skillful thinking’. The author claims that promoting skillful thinking will enable teachers to infuse TBL into classroom activities and enhance students’ skillful thinking across the globe.

Chapter 15: ‘Theory into Practice: The Content of Pre-service Teachers’ Reflections in North Cyprus’ by Anas Musa Ismail and Çise Çavuşoğlu focuses on the reflections of pre-service English language teachers in Northern Cyprus. The author states that there is a need to develop and incorporate reflective dialogue between pre-service teachers and their supervisors, and between pre-service teachers themselves during teaching practicums.

Part IV contains chapters dealing with the influence of professional learning communities (PLCs) and the use of information and computer technology (ICT) in education for teacher empowerment and professional development and how technology enhances discussion and interaction between teachers and learners both inside and outside the classroom.

Chapter 16: ‘Fostering Teachers’ Professional Development Through Collaboration in Professional Learning Communities’ by Steyn Trudie presents a case study about how a school succeeded in developing a PLC. The author asserts that PLCs play a big role in teacher empowerment and that the principal’s leadership role is instrumental in driving the professional learning process.

Chapter 17: ‘School-Based Professional Learning Community: Empowering Teachers as Assessment Leaders in the Change Context’ by Garima Bansal presents a case study about the influence of a school-based PLC on teachers’ class-based,

formative assessment practices. The author suggests ways of establishing successful school-based PLCs that enhance teacher empowerment and professional development.

Chapter 18: ‘Professional Learning Communities in a Web 2.0 World: Rethinking the Warrants for Professional Development’ by Yvonne Liljekvist, Jorryt van Bommel and Christina Olin-Sheller explores the potential of using technology to develop PLCs for in-service mathematics teachers in Botswana. The authors believe that these emerging technologies will improve classroom experiences and professional development not only for mathematics teachers but for also teachers of other disciplines as well.

Chapter 19: ‘Emerging Technologies as Tools for Enhancing Professional Learning Communities of Mathematics Teacher Development in Botswana’ by M.J. Motswiri, E. Zimudzi, K.G. Garegae and A.A. Nkhwalume shows how theoretical reflections of PLCs in a Web 2.0-world enhance teachers’ professional development. The authors discuss how Swedish teachers use social media to expand their PLC beyond the school environment, representing a new behaviour among teachers that changes the opportunities and framework for professional development and growth.

Chapter 20: ‘Using an e-Portfolio for Teaching and Teacher Continuous Learning: A Process for Professional Development Enhancement’ by Byabazaire Yusuf focuses on the experiences and written reflections of postgraduate and in-service teachers using e-portfolios to teach English language. The author maintains that the use of e-portfolios in the teaching will facilitate the sharing of content knowledge, the improvement of pedagogical skills and the promotion of collaborative activities. It will also help teachers to engage in lifelong learning and professional development.

Due to the international backgrounds of its authors, this book spans a range of areas that are of crucial importance to teacher education and professional development, such as teacher empowerment, professional training, teacher knowledge and skills development and the improvement of pedagogical practices. As such, it enables teachers to keep ahead of changes in the field of education and stay relevant in a rapidly changing world. For these reasons, this book will be of interest to teachers, researchers, practitioners and policy-makers who work in international settings. It should also be read by academic planners and educationists engaged in teacher training, teacher development, educational innovation and school improvement.

# Acknowledgements

As editor, I am indebted to the contributions of many individuals without whom this book would not have come to fruition. I would therefore like to extend my sincere thanks to the authors for their dedication in finding time from their busy schedules to write the chapters that make up this book. Thanks to their effort and academic expertise that this book has become a reality. I am also indebted to Springer, my co-editor, for his trust in me. Had it not been for his support, my team and I could never have accomplished the task of publishing our first book and due to his continuous support, this present book was also published. Allow me to thank my second co-editor, Prof. Nena P. Valdez for her immense contribution and spirit of teamwork. My appreciation also goes to Dr. Byabazaire Yusuf for his contribution at the proposal stage and for serving as an internal reviewer. My co-editor and I would like to thank the School of Education and Modern Languages, Universiti Utara Malaysia, for their academic support, especially our new Dean, Associate Professor Dr. Yahya Don for his kind support and acknowledging the visiting scholars' academic contributions.

Ismail Hussein Amzat (Ph.D.)

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**Part I**  
**Teacher Empowerment: Leadership,  
Autonomy and Accountability**

# Chapter 1

## Evolution of Teacher Leadership as a Challenging Paradigm in Rethinking and Restructuring Educational Settings

Adnan Boyaci and Yakup Oz

**Abstract** This chapter will examine teacher leadership as a challenging concept associated with school effectiveness and improving student success. From a historical perspective, roles and functions of teacher leadership have evolved over time depending on the system paradigm employed in school settings. The shift from the paradigm of machine bureaucracy to the redefinition of the school as a professional learning community has underlined a wide range of critical concepts explaining both formal and informal roles of teacher leadership via teacher autonomy, transformational and distributed leadership, and school improvement. Teacher leadership roles have been accepted as teachers acting as catalysts for disseminating their skills, knowledge, and the best practices to their colleagues, albeit the boundaries of formal structures of school organizations even if they do not have any administrative titles or formal responsibilities in the school processes.

### 1.1 Introduction

In today's world, education systems play a more vital role in the development of countries than ever before. As knowledge provides more added value than any other resource, the importance of education becomes both more prominent and salient. In this context, projects aimed at increasing schooling rates, student outcomes, and school effectiveness at each level of the education system are high on governments' political agendas.

In order to increase student outcomes, a lot of school improvement reforms all over the world have affected each other. These reforms have changed the roles of shareholders in the education system and given them new responsibilities. In particular, school managers and teachers have become the very basic agents of change

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not only in classrooms, but also in communities. Schools as social organizations have experienced a transformation from structurally administrated organizations into organizations led by all the stakeholders. School managers are no longer the only leaders in schools, but teachers are too. Hence, the aim of this chapter is to examine teacher leadership from a developmental and international perspective, respectively.

This chapter consists of two parts. The first part begins with a brief history of teacher leadership, the definition of the teacher leadership phenomenon, and the roles of teacher leaders. Later, a broad conceptual framework comprised of three teacher leadership-related sections are presented: (1) school structure, (2) transformational and distributed leadership, and (3) constructivist learning theory.

The second part, which is comprised of two sections, is related to policy implications and focuses on teacher leadership in the Turkish context. The former section is related to the history of teacher leadership and the professionalization of teaching in Turkey. The following section aims to shed light on how teacher leadership functions in the Turkish context.

## 1.2 A Brief History of Teacher Leadership

During the twentieth century, schools were hierarchical and bureaucratic organizations solely led by school principals, since the schools themselves were relatively small and served a limited number of people. However, over time the nature of schools has evolved, in line with social and economic changes (Sergiovanni 1996), and the distribution of roles has started to change.

Teacher leadership can be examined in three periods. In the beginning, formal administrative roles were appointed via managerial changes, when teachers obtained positions or titles as department heads or union representatives (Hart 1990). That was a top-down school leadership model (Hart 1995) and the roles of teachers were extensions of school administrations (York-Barr and Duke 2004). These formal roles maintained the existing school hierarchies in decision-making processes (Owens and Valesky 2010).

However, in the second period, based on legislation and school reform movements, teachers began to become more important for sustainable student achievement (Muijs and Harris 2007) and started to take more responsibilities in accordance with instructional goals in schools (York-Barr and Duke 2004). With the ‘No Child Left Behind’ and site-based management initiatives, schools were considered to be too complex for principals to lead by themselves (Leblanc and Shelton 1997). Moreover, school-site managerial strategies that give pedagogical control to teachers became popular, and teachers were freed from the consequences of other people’s decisions, due to being given managerial positions within the school hierarchy (Conley and Bacharach 1990). Within this framework, teacher leadership evolved into a role of instructional leader (Hart 1990; Smylie 1996). Hence, the principal’s responsibilities began to decrease and increasing student

achievement by enhancing teacher's power and autonomy became inevitable (Murphy 2005; Smylie et al. 2002). In this form of teacher leadership, teachers were encouraged by career ladder programs (Little 1988) and had roles designed to utilize their expertise, such as curriculum leaders, mentors, and staff developers (Lewis 2014, p. 10) which were a blend of bureaucratic roles with human resource development functions (Owens and Valesky 2010).

Finally, the third period of teacher leadership has emerged. According to Silva et al. (2000), it is anti-hierarchical and values collegiality and professionalism that make teachers creators and reformers of school culture. In return, teachers promote change among their colleagues by encouraging examination of instructional practices, experimentation with new methods, and curriculum reform (York-Barr and Duke 2004). This brings about a new concept known as the professional development school. According to Darling-Hammond et al. (1995, p. 91), these schools are developed around a constructivist understanding of learning for both teachers and students, and with all members of the school community, they produce new knowledge and profound understandings. In professional development schools, teachers learn by teaching, redesigning schools, and collaborating (Darling-Hammond et al. 1995). Teacher leaders now need to share decisions about the missions, goals, programs, operations, assessments, and pursue a better teaching and learning for the entire school (Spillane 2006) so that they can produce the best educational practices with effective communication and dialogue (Darling-Hammond and Richardson 2009).

### 1.3 Conceptual Definition of Teacher Leadership

Teacher leadership is a difficult phenomenon to define (Childs-Bowen et al. 2000) and it has been delineated by different researchers in different practices across time. When the implication of the clarifications is examined, it can be seen the conceptual framework of teacher leadership lies behind different explanations. For instance, Harris and Muijs (2004) mainly highlight the contributory role of teacher leadership in the development of their colleagues. Similarly, Troen and Boles (1994) propose teacher leadership as a 'collective leadership type where teachers develop professional qualifications by working in collaboration' (p. 11). Moreover, Wasley (1991) defines teacher leadership as 'the proficiency in encouraging colleagues towards change' (p. 32). According to Swanson et al. (2011, p. 153), teacher leadership is 'knowledge, skills and dispositions demonstrated by teachers who positively impact student learning by influencing adults.' Teacher leadership also proposes that teacher leaders have more influential roles within and beyond the classroom (Barth 2001; Katzenmeyer and Moller 2001; Beachum and Dentith 2004; Rutherford 2006; Watt et al. 2010). Besides, teacher leadership also requires accountability of such influential roles from teacher leaders by making teachers responsible for achieving the outcomes of their leadership (Katzenmeyer and Moller 2009, p. 6). Consequently, teacher leaders influence and change the behaviors of colleagues in

the school. When they do this, it is a collaborative action with colleagues and teacher leaders should be accountable for the results of the expected performances of their leadership.

**Roles of Teacher Leaders:** Lieberman and Miller (2004) point out three roles for teacher leaders as advocates, innovators, and stewards focusing on the teacher leaders' role in the process of change. Advocates stand up for the improvement of student learning, innovators come with new implementations to transform the school, and stewards serve for sustainable improvement. However, in defining teacher leadership, one of the critical points that needs to be taken into consideration is to evaluate the formal and informal roles of teacher leaders.

Crowther et al. (2002) emphasize formal teacher leadership roles to understand and explore the dynamics of successful school revitalization. These formal types of teacher leadership roles mostly include career ladder teachers, mentor teachers participating in district-level committees, or site-based management teams working with principals and other colleagues (Hart 1994). In this sense, the roles of teacher leaders have been articulated with formal titles and administrative positions (Harris 2005; Sherrill 1999, p. 57) which also make teacher leaders responsible for the formation of school improvement teams, instructional support groups, advisory councils, curriculum development, planning professional development, policy development and decision-making, budgeting, acquiring and allocating material resources, scheduling activities, assigning tasks and advising with regard to personnel matters in school organizations (Smylie 1992).

On the other hand, teacher leadership roles have also been considered to be a catalyst for disseminating skills of teachers beyond the boundaries of formal structures of school organizations. The teacher leaders are also required to disseminate their knowledge and best practices to colleagues although they do not have any titles or formal responsibilities in the school processes (Spillane 2006; Katzenmeyer and Moller 2001; Leithwood and Jantzi 2000a). Such teacher leaders emerge spontaneously and organically and take initiative to address a problem (Danielson 2007). Informal teacher leaders may have a wide range of roles in almost everything in school settings such as encouraging parent participation, working with colleagues in small groups and teams, modeling reflective practice, articulating a vision for improvement, resolving instructional problems (York-Barr and Duke 2004), choosing textbooks, hiring principals, determining the teacher in the next classroom, designing the new curriculum, hiring librarians, or buying computers for schools (White 1992).

However, sometimes these formal and informal roles may be obstructed or supported by different factors originated from the professional norms/culture, organizational structure, and resources of and interpersonal relationships, commitments and intellectual/psychosocial characteristics of individuals, incentives, recognition, and role clarity in school organizations (Katzenmeyer and Moller 2009; Murphy 2007; Johnson and Donaldson 2007; Lieberman and Miller 2004; York-Barr and Duke 2004, pp. 270–271; Doyle 2000; Zinn 1997).

## 1.4 Theoretical Paradigms for Reinterpretation of Teacher Leadership in Managing and Leading Schools

Teacher leadership has evolved over time based on the changing paradigms that affect the delivery of educational services in schools. These paradigm shifts are in administration, leadership styles, as well as the teaching and learning approaches applied in educational settings. During each paradigm shift teacher leadership gains new dimensions that affect the roles of teacher leaders.

**School Structure and Teacher Leadership:** Changes in the administration of schools are related to the distribution of authority in the formal organizational structure of them. For a long time, schools were seen as factories having hierarchical organizational structures. Within the scientific management and rational system theory, the emerging terms were efficiency, optimization, design and improved performance (Scott 1992), that were supposed to promote formalization and essentiality of specialization, standardization, hierarchy of authority, division of labor and a narrow span of control (Hoy and Miskel 2005). These approaches existed in the pyramid theory of a school having a top-down management style where the state and other distant authorities were the managers, whereas heads, teachers, and students were workers. The idea that lay beneath these approaches was that the way to control the work of others was to assign one person to take responsibility for direction, supervision, and inspection (Sergiovanni 2001). Hence, within this perspective, teacher leadership had formal roles based on title or credentials, and were extensions of the state and district boards or school administrations.

However, this theory had a narrow perspective on schools, due to perceiving them as formal organizations, and was not appropriate for the school's purposes, ways of working, relationships among families and students, content of work of teachers and the nature of effective teaching and learning environments (Sergiovanni 2001). Consequently, two popular approaches were developed regarding the structures of educational organizations: (a) schools as loosely coupled organizations put forth by Weick (1976) and (b) schools as professional bureaucracies by Mintzberg (1980, p. 239).

According to Weick (1982, p. 673), schools are not like other organizations because of their being more loosely joined. Additionally, since the sphere of the organization is fairly large, expecting a few teachers to keep track of all students seems rather unrealistic. Also, ties among people are loosened because very few people are permanently involved in everything that happens within a school. Moreover, loose ties between decisions and implementations occur often, because administrators need to catch up with procedural transactions. Schools are partially capable of fulfilling managerial activities compared with business organizations, in which an intervention to the processing is much more feasible (Weick 1982). As a result, the loosely coupled characteristics of schools reveal the significance of the

professional role of teachers, their interactions among students and managers, and their positions as leaders in the classrooms.

Apart from that, Mintzberg (1980) emphasizes professional autonomy within the concept of professional bureaucracy. He defines five types of structures for organizations. Educational institutions can be categorized as professional bureaucracies among these structure types. The operating core is the most essential part of a professional bureaucracy. It is where the input is transformed to output within organizations. In educational institutions, it is the classrooms where teaching and learning processes occur.

Professional bureaucracy relies on the standardization of skills in the operating core for coordination in which jobs are highly specialized but minimally formalized (Mintzberg 1980, p. 322), so that the decentralization and standardization of skills are provided at the same time (Hoy and Miskel 2005). In other terms, teachers are given considerable autonomy in their work since they are highly trained specialists in the operating core, they work relatively freely, not only of the administrative hierarchy, but also of their own colleagues, and this coordination is achieved by standard skills and predetermined behaviors. They also tend to maintain collective control of the administration of organization, so that managers share the administrative tasks with teachers (Mintzberg 1980, p. 334). Having a professional bureaucracy structure, schools depend on professionally autonomous teachers and teacher leadership can also be considered to be a new form of the professional autonomy of a teacher. Thus, opportunities for collective inquiry, scrutiny, reflection, and decision-making processes are needed for promoting teacher professionalism and school success (Tschannen-Moran 2009).

Both the approaches of Weick and Mintzberg toward organizational structures have transformed the concept of teacher leadership from an administrative responsibility to a more professional and instructional activity where teachers come forward and take responsibilities, such as curriculum leaders, mentors, and staff developers starting with the site-based management and school improvement practices until today.

Moreover, Hoy and Sweetland (2000, 2001) base their justification on the mutual interaction between the bureaucratic structures of school organizations and teacher autonomy. They claim that centralization and formalization may not hamper the dissemination of teacher autonomy. In their framework, schools are bureaucratic organizations composed of centralization and formalization. However, bureaucracy does not always play a disabling role in the autonomy of teachers. School structure may facilitate teacher's work and allows them to make professional decisions and share them among fellow teachers. Also, enabling formalization composed of flexible sets of best practices may facilitate more effectively dealing with the inevitable problems (Hoy and Miskel 2005; Hoy and Sweetland 2000, 2001). These enabling and hindering school structures have different features and different results in educational contexts and improve with different processes experienced by teachers over time as shown in Table 1.1 (Hoy and Miskel 2005).

**Table 1.1** Enabling and hindering school structure

Formalization	Enabling Structure	Hindering Structure
	Promotes flexible rules and procedures	Enforces rigid rules and procedures
	Views problems as learning opportunities	Views problems as constraints
	Values differences	Demands consensus
	Encourages initiative	Punishes mistakes
	Fosters trust	Fosters suspicion
Centralization	Facilitates problem solving	Demands compliance
	Promotes cooperation	Embraces control
	Encourages openness	Fosters mistrust
	Protects teachers	Punishes teachers
	Encourages innovation	Discourages change
	Seeks collaboration	Rules autocratically
Processes	Participative decision-making	Unilateral decision-making
	Problem solving	Enforcement
Context	Teacher trust	Teacher distrust
	Truthfulness and authenticity	Truth spinning and deception
	Cohesiveness	Conflict
	Teacher sense power	Teacher sense powerlessness

Hoy and Miskel (2005)

As seen in Table 1.1, enabling school structure promotes teacher autonomy, empowerment, and professional development. This kind of school structure may provide a more conducive environment for the development of teacher leadership. **Teacher Leadership in the Context of Transformational and Distributed Leaderships:** Changes in leadership theories related to school managers and the emergence of new leadership styles are also essential in explaining teacher leadership. Although the ‘great man’ theory of leadership that emphasizes the personal skills of leaders is still effective in schools (Murphy 2005); based on the behavioral and situational theories of leadership, professional teacher leaders can also be developed (Katzanmeyer and Moller 2009) and teacher leadership is a corner stone for educational change and school improvement (Katzenmeyer and Moller 2009; Harris and Muijs 2004). Especially in discussing the delegation of power in school organizations, the concept of teacher leadership has come to the forefront in connection with transformational and distributed leadership theories.

Leithwood and Jantzi (2000b) suggest that transformational leadership has three components, namely setting direction, developing people, and redesigning the organization. Transformational leaders motivate, inspire, and move people toward a goal or a vision (Bass 1985) and trust them with responsibilities and two way of communication (Bass and Avolio 1994). While doing that they use idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration (Boyd 2009; Bass and Bass 2009). Transformational teachers provide

teacher development opportunities and solve problems together, and help staff members to develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture (Leithwood 1992).

In this sense, teacher leaders may have similar roles as transformational leaders regarding school improvement and increasing student achievement. Similarly, teacher leaders navigate the structure of schools, nurture relationships, model professional growth, and help others with change and have a required set of skills that include understanding the policies of the school, rallying collegial support, assisting others in the change process and challenging the status quo (Silva et al. 2000). Within that context, in the late 1990s, teacher leadership was defined through transformational leadership (Ash and Persall 2000) aspiring to enhance the standards of schools with low academic achievement.

The other leadership style related to teacher leadership is distributed leadership. Distributed leadership is a leadership practice shared by many members of an organization (Harris 2003). According to Gronn (2002), it is a collective phenomenon in which members are involved in the flow of activities and also a concrete action that combines initiatives and the expertise of members in order to create a greater outcome than their individual actions. Based on Bolman and Deal's (2008) 'overbound' and 'underbound' systems that power concentration high and low, respectively, the power in distributed or shared leadership falls somewhere in between (Topolinski 2014). Therefore, distributed leadership is basically about not only the actions of a hero based on knowledge and skills, but the interactions between members and situations (Spillane 2006). All individuals contribute to leadership practice whether they are formally designated as leaders or not (Harris and Spillane 2008, p. 31).

In the context of educational institutions, distributed leadership can promote school effectiveness by building school capacity (Leithwood et al. 2011; Pont et al. 2008) and improving school and student learning (Harris 2011; Hallinger and Heck 2009; Leithwood et al. 2006; Bennett et al. 2003). Harris (2004, p. 16) found that successful heads recognizing the limitations of a singular leadership approach see their leadership role as being primarily concerned with empowering others to lead. Besides, in terms of accountability, school principals can no longer be the only decision-makers working to improve schools and student achievement (Watt et al. 2010; Beachum and Dentith 2004). Hence, teacher leaders may support the acceptance of decisions and responsibilities to successfully achieve the goals of the school (Seashore Louis et al. 2010). Accordingly, distributed leadership theory has much in common with the dimensions of teacher leadership (Aliakbari and Sadeghi 2014).

#### **Teacher Leadership in the Context of Constructive Learning Theory:**

Regarding constructivist theory, each learner individually and socially constructs meaning and knowledge which is produced by the experiences of a learner or a community of learners (Hein 1991). Teachers need to improve the quality of their teaching, expertise, the innovativeness of their teaching skills and effectiveness through continuous learning (Harris and Muijs 2004) in order to maintain student learning. According to the constructivist theory of learning, they either do this individually or collaboratively.

Starting from the 1990s, professional learning communities emerged as a way to engage teachers and staff in collaborative learning to improve student outcomes (Harris 2002). A professional community allows teachers to work collaboratively to reflect on their practice, examine evidence about the relationship between practice and student outcomes and make changes to improve both teaching and student learning (McLaughlin and Talbert 2006).

In discussions of teacher leadership, constructivist learning theory has provided a platform on which skills, knowledge, and experiences concerning teacher leadership are learned and shared in a constructive way among colleagues so as to make schools professional learning communities. In these communities teaching and learning necessitate a holistic process in which the learning of teachers accelerates the learning of students and at the core of this process is the collaboration and interaction of teacher leaders with colleagues and students (Hord 1997; McMahan et al. 2005; DuFour and Eaker 2005). Collaboration for the improvement of student learning is one of the main principals of teacher leadership, which necessitates shared vision, responsibility, and experiences of mutual trust and support.

Hence, if teachers have the chance to develop their own professional learning, they are able to provide colleagues with their expertise, skills, and information. When teachers work in schools that promote learning and collegiality, they are able to reveal their leadership skills (DuFour 2004). In such communities, teachers move from thinking individually to perceiving themselves as members of a community in which they are responsible for both their own and their colleagues' professional learning (Lieberman and Pointer-Mace 2009), which explains the roles and functions of teacher leaders.

## 1.5 Teacher Leadership Policy and Practices in Turkey

Theory and practice are constructed by the norms, beliefs, and the values of the social system in which education as a system and organization is built (Child 2003 cited in Shah 2010). Weber (1993), underlines the relationships between religious beliefs, sociocultural attitudes and the values of individuals, and social action formed by the interaction of institutions in society. In the Weberian framework of social systems, it is necessary to understand formal rationality and substantive rationality with a focus on the impact of cultural, religious and political systems (ideational system) on social institutions. Education is one of the major components of this system and a deeply cultural concept; thus, culture and the ethos of leadership vary in fundamental ways across nations (Fullan 2008).

The concept of teacher leadership and its practices also vary across societies and cultures. Different perspectives on and interpretations of viewing teacher leadership not only originated from the philosophical and theoretical assumptions behind it, but also from the different articulated components of culture such as religion, tradition, values, norms, and the emergence of the ethos of leadership throughout the history of societies. How a particular society perceives and conceptualizes

teacher leadership, depending on the dominant cultural and belief systems prevailing in that society or community, could be helpful to understand its implementations and to compare it at different sociocultural settings.

In this part of the chapter, a brief history of the teaching profession and the leadership roles of teachers in a Turkish context are explained, focusing on their perceived social, cultural religious values in Turkish society.

**A Brief History of Teacher Leadership in Turkey:** Teacher training in today's Turkey can be traced to the late Ottoman period in which the first modernization movements were initiated. Education has always been regarded as one of the most important agents of change in the reform movements for the social, economic, and cultural development of the country in both the Ottoman Empire and the modern Turkish Republic (Shaw and Shaw 1977; Somel 2001). Furthermore, political education has always been accepted as the carrier of dominant ideology of the reforms shaped by the bureaucratic elites. In this process, teachers have gained new 'modern' roles as leaders in the transformation of society. Since the teaching profession has a highly valued status originating from the social, cultural, and religious values, teachers have been placed on a status of disseminating 'modern' ideology of the reforms as the social leaders (Boyaci 1998).

With the proclamation of the Turkish Republic, Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, its founder, placed education and teachers at the core of the modernization process of the Turkish Republic as in the late Ottoman period, except that he ended the dual structure of education in society, traditional-modern, by abolishing all traditional educational institutions in accordance with the Union of Teaching Law in 1924. From that date, teachers became the central members of the state bureaucracy and were engaged with distinctive state functions within which their primary mission was to educate the masses along the lines of Kemalist principles. They were aligned with the modernization and secularization process in Turkey focusing on Western-oriented social, economic, and political transformations (Boyaci 1998).

The transformative power of teachers as leaders in society continued with the opening of village institutes in 1940. Their students were mostly from the villages. The ultimate goal was not only to train teachers to teach students in rural areas but also to train students coming from rural areas as leaders of village communities to foster the socioeconomic and sociocultural development of the country. Especially with transformational leadership roles and the skills of teachers, village institutes played huge roles in the modernization of society until they were closed in 1954. Teachers were leaders not only in schools or classrooms, but also in society, and were carriers of the mission of the young republic aiming to transform the people and the country into a contemporary civilized nation (Boyaci 1998).

In 1960s, the professional qualifications of teachers were criticized and they started to lose their missionary and transformative roles. In this context, technical and institutional skills came to forefront. There were career ladder applications as master teacher and head teacher revealing formal roles before. However, this time teachers gained new roles such as program specialists and teaching coordinators (Güven 2004).

In these days, leadership role of teachers in transforming the nation is not in the first order in the political agenda of the government, but teachers still have leadership roles in society. Today, teacher leadership roles in schools have come to forefront in order to provide school improvement by increasing professional qualifications of teachers. In this sense, in accordance with the European Qualifications Framework, professional qualifications of teachers were prepared in 2005 (MoNE 2006). Besides, teacher career ladder was redesigned the same year due to the old system being dysfunctional. Same titles are still being maintained as teacher, master teacher and head teacher. By redesigning the career ladder for teachers and creating the teacher qualifications framework, Turkey has tried to improve and support teacher leadership and the professionalization of teaching.

**Teacher Leadership in Turkish Context:** It is hard to find a definite agreement on the definition and dimensions of teacher leadership in world literature, and it is the same for teacher leadership concept in the Turkish context.

Despite the Turkish legislative framework for education mostly arranges the function of the education system centrally as an integrated part of the public administration system, education laws, and regulations recognize the autonomy of schools and teachers, especially for issues such as the improvement of teaching and learning activities, school environment interactions, and the professional development of teachers. For example, the *Board of Education and Discipline* (Talism Terbiye Kurulu) as the highest level committee at MoNE decides curriculum structures, roles, responsibilities, competencies of teachers, recognizes and encourages teacher autonomy by taking care of sociocultural and socioeconomic environmental characteristics of the schools. In this sense, in spite of the instructional curriculum being centrally structured and implemented all over the country, teachers are allowed to make the necessary changes required by the social, cultural and economic settings of their schools.

In terms of the participation of teachers in decision-making processes in schools, MoNE has tried to reform the school management system by establishing decentralized models focusing on inclusive process management since the beginning of 1995. For example, Total Quality Management (TQM), School Improvement Teams (SIT) were put into practice. The ultimate goal has been to create an autonomous school and for professionals to be much responsive to their community out of the centrally organized bureaucratic order of command. By doing so, it is assumed that the accountability of schools could be realized at local level.

Moreover, for the empowerment of teachers in Turkey, MoNE has employed a model called School Site Professional Development (SSPD). This model assumes that the professional competencies of teachers could be improved by focusing on the indigenous conditions of the schools they work for and the individual demands of the teachers. In this sense, school principals are entitled to arrange professional development activities and encouraged to motivate teachers to attend different professional development programs including M.A., M.Ed., and Ph.D. Paralleling the employment of this model, graduating from M.A., M.Ed., Ph.D. or certificate programs and attending in-service training activities organized by public, private,

or civil organizations have been credited in promotion of teachers to attainment of 'master' or 'head teacher' titles.

Despite the existence of such policies in favor of teacher leadership, as a centralized education system, most of the reforms are top-down in Turkey. Thus, teacher leaders show more formal roles. In this context, although they are not defined specifically, the Regulation of Primary Education Institutions based on Elementary Education Law, No: 222, contains some tasks and responsibilities and roles of teachers. According to Beycioglu (2009) these roles are collaborative working, producing innovative ideas, work in teams, participating in decision-making, guiding students or colleagues, acting as program specialist and educational planner, inspiring colleagues, leading in school improvement processes, budgeting, and participating in the administration of the school.

However, the practices regarding teacher leadership roles are the results of different interpretations of individuals in school settings. And these interpretations determine how degree of autonomy teachers should have and on what practices teachers should reveal leadership roles. As an example, Can (2006, 2007) emphasizes that according to both teachers and school managers, most teachers value collegial cooperation, want to join in-service or development programs, work in teams, motivate students at a high level; have problem-solving skills at middle level; are prone to change, produce projects, conduct educational researches, and produce policies at a low level. Also, teachers emphasize to take leadership roles in instructional and classroom-based activities, whereas school managers emphasize that teachers should take leadership roles in quality education, discipline, and school wide activities. Besides, Can (2015) found that according to most school managers, teacher leadership behaviors mainly focus on curriculum and content knowledge, valuing collaboration among teachers, motivating students to learn, solving conflicts, guiding new teachers or colleagues, affecting students, taking responsibilities in extracurricular activities, and completing given tasks. However according to a few school managers, teacher leadership includes leading change, having vision, identifying organizational problems and trying to solve them, joining school wide activities and taking risks, contributing to generating a powerful school culture, joining projects related to continuing learning and development, and developing independent school projects.

Additionally, there are some factors affecting teacher leadership in the Turkish case. According to Ozcetin (2013), when school managers support teacher leadership and try to improve school capacity, they experience difficulties with financial issues, passive teachers, and low family support to schools, emotional difficulties, time management and low vision. Moreover, school managers emphasize that the courage, sense of entrepreneurship, characteristics of teachers, working environment, financial capacity, and the time management skills of teachers are effective components in terms of teacher leadership behaviors. However, teachers propose that motivation and resources, attitudes of school managers toward teachers, collegial support and opportunities for professional development in school affect revealing teacher leadership behaviors (Can 2015).

Consequently, in implementing teacher leadership in school settings it is necessary for Turkey to create a positive school culture. School principals as educational leaders could create an institutional capacity for collaboration among teachers, a positive and inclusive school culture in which teachers take initiatives and roles without the mandatory formal roles of a bureaucratic system. In this sense, the educational leadership skills of principals can be developed within three main categories as leadership content knowledge, professional experience in working with teachers and data-based decision-making strategy (Bellibas 2015).

## 1.6 Conclusions

This chapter mainly examines teacher leadership from a developmental and international perspective. It identifies teacher leadership as a changing concept throughout transformational and distributed leadership, organizational structures determining the management of schools, and constructivist learning theory promoting the collaborative professional learning of teachers.

Teacher leadership has become a popular concept and process within school reform movements and site-based management applications that empowers teachers in school management practices. However, many roles and responsibilities of teachers make it very difficult to define the concept and identify a structured theory for it. So, teacher leadership is mostly discussed based on transformational, distributed and a bit of instructional leadership in the literature. These terms can never explain teacher leadership by themselves. Teacher leadership is like an umbrella covering those leadership styles and related with other terms for developing school capacity, teacher empowerment, and autonomy. Thus, this chapter presents a holistic approach that covers teacher leadership and terms related to it, by identifying the relationship between a set of theories on the management and organizational structures of schools and teacher leadership, which also forms the distinctive side of the chapter. Besides, teacher leadership has always been thought of as a culturally sensitive concept. In this regard, teacher leadership in the Turkish case has been explored with regard to the social, cultural, and religious values attributed to teachers as leaders in society throughout history.

In conclusion, teachers would be very basic change agents in every action taken for increasing student learning and success, and developing school capacity. A school manager seeking to reach the goals of the school could create a positive school culture in which teachers take initiatives by themselves without the imposition of formal authority. In other words, the convergence of both the formal and informal roles of teachers and the leadership skills of the school principals promote the expected outcomes of the changes. Creating conditions providing teacher leadership is an important problem to solve for school managers when they enhance collegiality among teachers against the bureaucratic and hierarchical nature of

schools. Understanding the organizational nature of schools as loosely coupled organizations, professional bureaucracies and centralization and formalization in the organizational structure of schools could be useful to overcome such a dilemma.

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