The challenges of teacher leadership in the Philippines as experienced and perceived by teachers

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Abstract

This research employed a qualitative method based on focus group discussions and individual interviews of teachers from different jurisdictions in the Philippines and supplemented with a critical analysis of the educational reform in the country. Based on the findings, the concept of teacher leadership still struggles to thrive in school organizations. This paper has highlighted two phenomena that make it a challenge for teacher leadership to blossom: one is the traditional ‘principal-oriented’ nature of leadership that is heavily entrenched to its system and second, the lack of leadership training and the teacher classification that they follow. These conditions critically limit the role that teachers play in the school. With the recent educational reform, wherein K-12 curriculum was adopted, this paper suggests that the application of teacher leadership in the local context can potentially make a significant contribution in shaping the culture of their schools, advancing student learning, and influencing practice among their peers.

Keywords: teachers; teacher leadership; principal; K-12 curriculum; educational reform
1. Introduction

The role of education in the alleviation of poverty in the Philippines has been more palpable and urgent than ever. Hargreaves (2005) and Harris (2009) both considered education as still the most valuable gatekeeper of opportunity and a formidable distributor of life chances. In the Philippines, 90% of school children attend public schools in the hopes of improving their lives in the future. This is especially true for those who experience various consequences of poverty where good education is the only hope out of it.

Similarly, the Philippine government holds a strong stance that K-12 curriculum will be the key solution to the enduring crises faced by the country’s basic education. This program aims to produce highly competitive graduates in terms of literacy, numeracy, and problem solving skills (Department of Education, 2011). However, this educational reform has received criticisms especially by families of poor socio-economic backgrounds who perceived this as time and financial burden. Some others doubted the capacity of this reform to bring forth change. Similar undertakings of the government have proven disappointment to make a difference mainly those directed to structural or program modifications.

Filipino scholars in the past have identified problems in the K-12 curriculum implementation in the country which includes teacher shortage, curriculum unsustainability, lack of resources and infrastructure, and incoordination of different bureaucratic bodies (Alegado, 2018; Calderon, 2014; Combalicer, 2016; Sergio, 2012). They also have similar recommendations to intensify teacher’s role in the reform, to which the international scholarships have also determined (Puryear, 2015; Yasuyuki, 2015). In the past 30 years, teachers have been identified as the ‘problem in education’ (Gunter, 2003, p.119). However, changing literatures seem to support more the crucial role of teachers in educational transformations.Muijs and Reynolds (2011) believed that teachers and teaching were seen to ‘matter’. Similarly, Harris and Muijs (2006) described that higher degrees of commitment and association by teachers resulted to more significant effect. Considering teacher’s roles and responsibilities are huge and multi-faceted, this paper will focus only on teacher leadership in particular. International studies and research are increasingly becoming more captivated with teacher leaderships in school to promote teaching and learning both for the teachers and the students (Berry, Daughtrey & Weider, 2010; Danielson, 2006; Evers, 2007; Hammond & Rothman, 2001; Galland, 2008).

2. The K-12 Educational Reform

The Philippine public school system has gone through a dramatic revamp when Republic Act No. 10533, also known as ‘The Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013’, was conclusively implemented in the year 2016. This abandons the previous 10-year basic educational curriculum and will be extended for two more years to make it twelve in total. Thus, more colloquially referred to as the K-12 Basic Education Program. The old system, which ran from 1945 to 2011, was comprised of six year-mandatory elementary education and four years of high school for children ages six to fifteen. The ratified educational program now suggests that the basic education system in the country will take 13 years to complete. The basic education over public and private schools in the country is regulated and supervised by the Department of Education (hereafter DepEd). Whilst higher education affairs are being managed by two other agencies—Commission of Higher Education (CHED) and Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA). The former regulates academic oriented universities and colleges while the latter controls the technical and vocational training in the country.

The public-school system in the country is consist of more than 38,000 public elementary schools and more than 7,000 public high schools making it one of the largest in Asia. All public schools are under administrative management by DepEd which organized them into three jurisdictions; districts, divisions and regional. DepEd is highly centralized with its central office constantly monitoring policy implementation at the local or lower levels. De Guzman (2006) characterized it as historically hierarchal which still dominates until the present. He stressed that while current reform efforts in the country are focused on school-based management, the overall organization of the education system follows
the de-concentration form of decentralization. This means that the central office remains highly in control even if management responsibilities move from central to local levels.

Moreover, the students’ academic learning outcomes are still measured by a test named as National Achievement Test (hereafter NAT). These are sets of standardized examinations taken by students on their 6th, 10th and 12th year designed to assess the academic learning level which includes their knowledge in five different categories; English, Filipino, Mathematics, Sciences and Social Studies. NAT exams are imperative because they provide empirical evidence on the attainment level of students in specific grade period which guides policy makers, principals and school teachers in their respective courses of action. It also measures the rate of improvement of the students and schools which reflect the overall strength and weaknesses of the country’s basic education systems. Department of Education published in 2011-2012 that the average NAT score for the country was 67% for the elementary level and 49% for the secondary level. This score was particularly low considering also that the test itself is a weak universal measure for the development of critical thinking skills and other learning factors (Bautista, Bernardo & Ocampo, 2008). This is disappointing despite the hard work and untiring efforts of principals, department heads, teachers, parents, and other stakeholders to tackle the problems faced by public schools. Delos Reyes (2010) reflected that this is a deficiency on the Philippines commitment as signatories of the United Nations (UN) Millennial Development Goals for 2015 to alleviate educational inequality and poverty. According to the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) in 2015, there is still a huge contrast between the attainment of tertiary education by families belonging to the highest 70% and the lowest 30%.

The accustomed answer to student poor performance in public schools has been always been teacher training based on the students’ scores from annual NAT. Teacher training on a new educational paradigm is perceived by policy makers to ‘turn-around’ poor student performance. In 2010, the DepEd introduced a new tool for educational planning called Understanding by Design (UbD). This is based on the premise that poor student learning outcomes are due to poor quality of teachers and the inadequacy of their tools (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005). Although it can be argued that this program can improve student learning, more proactive use of curriculum which practices teacher leadership may hold greater promise for teachers.

3. Theoretical Background

The concept of teacher leadership is still disputed and highly contested, with different researchers proposing different meanings or adopting different approach (Cosenza, 2015; Lowery-Moore, Latimer & Villate, 2016; Jackson, Burras, Basset, & Roberts, 2010; Warren, 2015). Evers (2007) simply put teacher leadership as the ‘exercise of influence’ on others in teaching and learning contexts. However, Danielson (2006) has eloquently encapsulated more nuances and distinctions to his conceptualization of teacher leadership. Thus, will be deeply utilized on this paper. He defines teacher leadership 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 own school and elsewhere. It involves influencing others by mobilizing and energizing; with the aim of improving the school’s performance of its critical responsibilities; related to teaching, student learning or even policy making. It goes beyond following an order from an authority or a principal. A teacher becomes an influencer because he or she is well-informed and persuasive. Consequently, a teacher leader should possess essential characteristics such as expertise and skill in engaging others in their respective work environments. It requires a steadfast passion for the fundamental mission and vision of the school. It also instills courage to confront obstacles to achieving such. When teachers are put equally in the center of these missions and visions, a different approach might be in need to achieve school improvement. This can involve adopting different measures as part of the change process. For example, improvement can happen when teacher leaders try to motivate their teammates to become more skilled and thoughtful about their work by doing things differently or doing them better. From time to time, teacher leaders recognize a chance to initiate a practice to improve a program. In such situations, teacher leadership can show others how to use the new approach and encourage to emulate. Fullan (2001)
regarded ‘mobility’ as the litmus test of teacher leadership. If it mobilizes teacher’s commitment to putting their energy into actions designed to improve things. It is individual commitment, but most importantly, it is collective mobilization.

Another prominent study regarding teacher leadership was from Crowther (2009), he articulately described the dynamics and association of teacher leadership initiatives in four different countries and established a substantial relationship between teacher leadership and enhanced school improvement. However, Crowther concluded that the potential of teacher leadership has not been “fully actualized.” Thus, more researchers called for the use and practice of teacher leadership in schools. For example, Collay (2006) believed that faculty should accept this concept in educational leadership pedagogy and to become partners in preparing teacher leaders. Louis et al. (2010) studied that high student achievement was exceptionally notable in schools where inputs from all stakeholders, especially teachers, were highly regarded and valued.

4. Research Questions

This paper aims to understand and elucidate two important questions:

1. How is teacher leadership practiced in schools as perceived and experienced by teachers?
2. What are the challenges that make it difficult for teachers to thrive as leaders in their respective schools and organizations?

5. Significance of the Study

There is a legitimately common pattern across countries in the school structure regarding leadership positions. Each school is often headed by a single individual known as principal or sometimes referred to as head teacher. He bears the responsibility for the school operation, which depends on country governance structures usually Department or Ministry of Education. Traditionally, school leaders have been described as head teacher who has more responsibilities than their colleagues. The rise of teachers who demonstrated leadership capabilities and taught well at the same time has steered to the formulation of ‘teacher leadership’ as a concept believed to be as equally critical behind transformations in schools (Berry, Daughtrey & Weider, 2010; Danielson, 2006; Hammond & Rothman, 2001; Galland, 2008).

Given this context, it is of great significance and of importance to examine the existence of teacher leadership in the Philippine public school system and identify the challenges that the teachers face. Harris and Muijs (2003) supported the positive effects of teacher leadership in highly mature educational systems like USA, Canada and Australia. Whereas this concept still struggles in the Philippine context. This paper aims to contribute to this literature and shed light to the different experience and deliberations from local teachers and ultimately benefit policy-makers and administrators for more inclusion of teachers through leadership trainings and assumption of leadership roles. Teacher leadership, when fully practiced by educators and valued by their colleagues, will make a significant contribution to ‘de-privatizing practice’ which is currently focused on the principal-ship or administrator-ship in the Philippine context.

The concept is so critical for collective learning when everyone is given the opportunity to exercise it on their own classroom or school settings and contribute using their own expertise, knowledge and other personal assets. Teacher leadership is not a new phenomenon; something that did not just spring into existence in the early years of the 21st century. This concept has a deeply rooted history, reaching back for more than 100 years. In the light of broader school reforms, the concept of teacher leadership has been notably being used and acknowledged for school reform and improvement.

6. Methodology and Data Collection

This study employed a qualitative analysis based on focus group discussions of 12 teachers from different public school jurisdictions in the Philippines. It is an appropriate way of data collection because it supplies information about how people, in this case teachers, think, feel, or act regarding a specific topic (Breen, 2006; Nyumba, Wilson, Derrick, &
Mukherjee, 2018). To test the reliability and validity of the data gathered after gaining a collective insight from group discussions, a follow-up individual semi-constructed interview from 8 teachers was also done. This was also to capture individual differences, perceptions and experiences, and to further illuminate issues that were brought up from the discussion without the consensus of the group. Moreover, I am fully aware that experiences are exclusive to each person and their interpretation of the events and topics are highly influenced by their personal experience. Thus, the combination of both focus group and individual interviews were employed to enhance data richness (Gaskell, 2000; Lambert & Loiselle, 2008).

6.1 Sampling Technique and Participants

I employed a maximum variation or heterogeneous purposive sampling technique to capture diverse range of cases relevant to a particular phenomenon or issue. Purposive sampling is a non-probability method of selection and its objective is to sample participants in a deliberately tactical way so those selected as samples are guaranteed to be relevant to the research topics and questions that will be formulated and investigated (Bryman, 2008). This is also the most practical type of sampling in situations where targets are to be reached rapidly. The participants in this research exhibit different attributes, perceptions and experiences. Thus, purposive sampling technique will facilitate greater insights into the researched topic by looking at it from different positionalities (Etikan et al., 2016; Palinkas et al., 2015; Palyš, 2008). Consequently, common themes that are apparent and constantly repetitive across the samples are simply identified.

6.2 Ethics

This paper adheres and safeguards the sanctity of ethics for the conduct of research, thus all measures to protect the participants’ identity and the ways that govern confidentiality, integrity and objectivity were strictly observed all throughout the research process. This paper will use pseudonyms and each of the participant’s pseudonyms are also assigned with a corresponding number (T1 and so forth).

7. Findings and Discussion

Through focus group discussion and interviews, the following issues and challenges have been identified regarding the practice of teacher leadership in schools as experienced and perceived by teachers. I divided the discussion in three main parts. The first follows an analysis of the principal-oriented nature of leadership in the country. Second, a discussion about the difficulties teachers face. And lastly, a future direction of teacher leadership based on teachers’ response was also included.

7.1 Principal-oriented leadership

First, teacher leadership is not entirely practiced in the school settings. In rare cases, teachers who become leaders only have more responsibilities but the leadership is still highly centered to principals. For instance, when asked to describe the leaders in the school, participants noted:

“I think in every school, the only leader that we automatically think of is the principal. Sometimes, maybe our head teachers.” (T3)

“Head teachers lead some team or departments, but only as hierarchical positions, but even head teachers have to report and follow the principals’ orders.” (T6)

Evidently in the Philippines, leadership remains traditionally interpreted as principal-centered. This is partly because of the recruitment of principals and how the pool of candidates is ‘privatized’. Meaning to say it is only exclusive to those former teachers with extensive years of teaching experience and educational qualifications can become principals. Henceforth, the principal role is the peak step in a teaching career rather than a separate occupation. At the primary level,
the principal is usually the only person in a formal leadership role. In smaller jurisdictions or schools also lean to combine leadership and management functions to a principal. These were most evident in the following responses:

“Here in our district, teachers who assume leadership roles should have educational qualifications like MA or doctorate degrees.” (T5)

“You can become a leader at the school if you have been a teacher here for a very long time and if you have at least a master’s degree in educational administration or related field.” (T1)

Another expressed that,

“The job of a principal is very difficult in the sense that they do managerial, administrative and leadership roles.” (T12)

In the Philippines where traditional practices transpire, the only ways in which teachers with a predisposition for leadership is to either become administrator or principal. Both career paths can be challenging and yet these are the only ways to provide leadership opportunities outside the classroom. Moreover, teachers feel hesitant about leadership roles because of the nature of the work and most of them don’t want to abandon teaching their classes. For example,

“I love my class and I like teaching them. But being a leader in our school means I have to focus more on administrative work.” (T2)

“Leadership roles in my school are purely administrative and supervisory in nature. They are usually the principals and head teachers.” (T4)

It is still difficult for teachers to pursue both teaching and some leadership roles for those who want to practice greater influence while continuing their work. Danielson (2006) explicated that more teachers feel an urge to exercise leadership as ‘teachers’ rather than administrators or principals. They see themselves as teachers fore mostly; and might not be genuinely interested in becoming administrators but are looking to extend their reach. In most settings, it would mean that teachers have to leave teaching their students and exercise influence in a more of an organizational archetype. While it is arguable that the teaching profession is never fully mastered nor teachers never completely make use of the potential of their work with students, some teachers seek extra challenges and opportunities to extend their influence. Some of them desire to influence more individuals other than that of they teach in the class. Their vision outspreads outside classrooms and beyond even their own organization or departments. This is manifested through the following responses:

“In our society, teachers are very respected. Parents and students know us even outside the school settings. So, I think being a teacher is not only teaching per se, you should also be a leader. I would like to become a leader on my own but I don’t want to be stuck in the office.” (T3)

One teacher responded by:

“I want to lead in other ways, like school projects or mentoring activities without the burden of formalities and paper works”. (T8)

Indeed, teachers show the desire to experience leadership or hone their leadership potential.

7.2 Teacher Classification and Lack of Leadership Training

In public school, teachers are classified into different teaching positions such as teacher, master teacher, head teachers, and special education teachers. All of which are equally involved in classroom teaching. However, there is no clear distinction between the duties of one teaching position to another. They are based on personal qualifications rather than
the duties, responsibilities and qualification requirements of the positions. This classification scheme was implemented to support and compensate initiatives for teachers pursuing professional growth but not to enhance leadership potential.

“I am on my second year of my M.A.Ed. It’s mainly to raise my rank as a teacher and get more benefits.” (T11)

Moreover, the promotion to a higher teaching position does not require an increase in duties and responsibilities. It is merely based on higher degrees like post graduate qualifications and participation in continuing professional enrichment programs.

“I took my MA degree on weekends for three years to get an increase in salary, but my duties are the same.” (T5)

Another teacher stated,

“The teachers who already get promoted from Teacher I to II have basically the same duties, the only difference is the salary.” (T10)

Bringing back Danielson (2006), he believed that bureaucratic conceptualization of teaching is deeply embedded in the fact that teaching is a flat profession in most settings. That is to mean that the first day on the job for a teacher with 10 years of experience is practically the same as for a novice just entering the profession. It entails that both are the teacher of record with responsibility for a class they oversee on equal grounds. He gave an interesting paradigm using a comparison with other professions. For example, in architectural firms, no supervisor would ask a newly licensed architect to handle a major project on the first week of his job. Rather, they would let him work on a team with more experienced architects. Likewise, a newly certified accountant would not be appointed to a major client on his own. At the very least, the firm would give him an experienced colleague to mentor him and would gradually assume greater autonomy in the future. Thus, we can say that the work of an experienced teacher is not the essentially same as that of a novice. Experience is of great importance, especially in the teaching profession which confers many benefits to both educators and their students. It includes strong familiarity with the curriculum, better understanding of students, wide repertoire of instructional methods and strategies, and also the ins and outs of the school and the district. Meaning to say, experience is oftentimes accompanied by ‘expertise’. Such expertise is a product of professional experience with the constant desire to reach out beyond their own classrooms. However, the teacher classification, unclear duties and lack of incentives are problematic in the country’s system.

DepEd compensates its teachers using a tool called Teachers’ Preparation Pay Schedule (TPPS). It is a classification and compensation scheme for teaching positions in elementary and secondary schools based on a combination of competencies which include academic or educational preparation, work experience and extracurricular professional training and certificates. For leadership assignments and roles, TPPS does not provide a clear provision to more compensation or reduced teaching load. Generally, teachers who perform additional assigned tasks or leadership roles are not provided with benefits. It is evident when one respondent stated,

“Teachers also lack incentives for wanting to advance as leaders.” (T12)

Meanwhile, teachers can be promoted to principal through two different career tracks, one is the school administration track or second is the master teacher career under the classroom teaching track with the criteria which include educational background, training, experience and performance. This can serve as a hindrance to teacher leadership because these policies do not encourage teacher leadership and these policies discourage those with leadership potential but without further academic qualifications or teachers who can lead but no incentives. Also, teachers do not enjoy ample support from such policies. The lack of opportunities for professional growth is a source of frustration and burden to teacher leadership. No training programs are facilitated that could expose teachers to new knowledge and teaching approaches for them to grow professionally.
“I have been teaching only for 3 years, but most of seminars I attended were about teaching modules. I have never been requested or chosen to attend leadership workshops or seminars.” (T1)

One added that,

“The only seminars I have attended recently were about Gender and Development. But this is because I am teaching social science classes. Most leadership seminars are only for principals or older teachers.” (T9)

Professional development should be prioritized if teachers were to lead the improvement of school and student learning in their instantaneous roles as teachers and leaders. The inadequacy of professional development trainings and programs across the system could also be the root of the displeasure and may be part of the reason behind some teachers’ lack of confidence that made them shy away from practicing leadership duties. As one teacher said,

“Teachers are taught and trained to be leaders of their own classroom, but we need to stimulate their leadership potential in and out of the class through more seminars and trainings.” (T5)

7.3 On the direction of teacher leadership

Another interesting finding is that most teachers see and think of themselves as rightful leaders in school. It is because teacher tenure-ship is longer than principals. Teacher leadership in the Philippine context is closely related to the teachers’ tenure-ship in the school. Theoretically, teachers normally have longer ‘residence’ and experience in the school than any principal. One teacher noted,

“I think teacher-leaders can lead the school better because principals come and go, but we stay.” (T11)

Principals are routinely rotated to different jurisdictions. They can be assigned to a school for a short period of time for about six months or a year. Luistro (2010) suggested that the constant and fast turn-over of principals or school heads resulted in the failure to fully implement and evaluate team efforts and changes to the institution. Henceforth, school improvement cannot be left alone in the hands of the principals no matter how great they are. Spillane (2006) expressed that even if principals were mandated to stay longer, one leader does not have all the time, and expertise to lead educational reform. Even the most promising initiatives, in this case K-12 curriculum, are most probable to fail if it’s only dependent on one person. Sutherland and Brooks (2013) also acknowledged the complicated and interconnected historical, political and cultural climate that come with the role of principal in the Philippines. For example, the turn-over of principals can be very unpredictable. They can be promoted to larger jurisdictions anytime during the academic year and immediately leave their posts as soon as they are promoted. Such is manifested by one respondent,

“I myself have experience it in high school when we had three principals in one year. Also, politics in the regional to district can affect the principal’s rotation or promotion.” (T2)

In a nutshell, the principal-oriented nature of the Philippine educational system requires only the principal to be both an instructional and administrative leader. The Governance of Basic Education Act of 2001 specifies the following as responsibilities of principals as instructional leaders “creating an environment within the school that is conducive to teaching and learning; implementing the school curriculum and being accountable for higher learning outcomes; introducing new and innovative modes of instruction to achieve higher learning outcomes; and encouraging staff development” (Republic Act 9155, 2001). Collins (2001) referred to principal-centered nature of teacher leadership as “genius with a thousand helpers”. This model is very limiting to a single person which cannot be helpful in securing systemic change in educational practices across organizations. One teacher noted,

“Some teachers become merely assistants of principals or teachers, the never really ‘lead’ or make decisions.” (T9)

One participant mentioned,
“We are expected to help with the implementation, but deciding on those projects or changes usually happen from the top to bottom, (regional to district office to the schools).” (T8)

Teacher leadership can also be effective if leaders recognize leaders and leadership at different levels of a system and for schools, giving teacher leadership an opportunity to develop. The concept of teacher leadership is not focused on the traditional hierarchical structure of bureaucratic management. The principal can make teacher leadership viable if they would be willing to distribute leadership including ‘relinquishing’ some of their power to the teacher leaders. Harris (2003) emphasized that a good foundation of mutual trust is key to the successful distribution of leadership and those in formal leadership positions like the principal have an integral role to play to make this transpire.

8. Conclusions and Implications

This paper emphasized the ‘principal-oriented’ nature of the system and the classification of teacher limit the role they play in the organization and these conditions make teacher leadership fail to thrive especially in a context where hierarchical set-up is palpable. Moreover, the system also lacks incentives and motivation to teachers who perform leadership roles which prohibits them on stepping up as leaders. It is therefore critical to create schools where teacher leaders emerge as influencers and every student can realize their potentials and have a chance of an improved life. The K-12 reform is a good start but the improvements in student performance are highly dependent on the teachers and teacher leaders we cultivate on the process. Thus, the important contribution of teachers to school improvement should be recognized.

Teacher leadership can be powerful when and if teachers are allowed make a significant contribution to ‘de-privatizing practice’ which is currently focused on the principals in the context of the Philippines. This concept can be logical and methodical for mutual learning. Teachers who are given the opportunity to exercise his or her influence, in and out of the classroom, can contribute using their own expertise, knowledge and other personal assets. In the light of K-12 reform in the country, the concept of teacher leadership can be of great support to other teachers, the students and the school. For instance, the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, cited from Danielson (2006), agreed that teachers should have more control over their work environments. Thus, the concept of teacher leadership in school decision making has a long history, with teachers being involved in school governance, pedagogical practice, leadership etc. Teachers should not only take initiative for what occurs in the school but rather are encouraged to participate in making decisions. We can recall much in the US when Dewey (1903) advocated for democratic schools in a democratic society. His vision foresees a partnership between students and teachers in a democratic venture. The changing dynamics nowadays, should involve teachers not only as a ‘follower’ of the school’s policy and structure, but rather a part of the process which include decision-making, creating ideas and implementation. John Dewey (1903) reflected that it is fundamental that

“every teacher had some regular and representative way to register judgment upon matters of educational importance, with assurance that this judgment would somehow affect the school system” (p. 195).

Indeed, true teacher leadership encompasses extemporaneous and organic teacher initiative and facilitation. Moreover, teacher leaders can assume a wide range of leadership roles to support school and student success. Whether these appointments are bestowed formally or shared informally, they construct the entire school's capacity to improve. Because teachers can lead in a variety of ways, many teachers can serve as leaders among their peers. Teachers can exhibit leadership prospective in manifold, sometimes intersecting, ways. Some leadership roles are formal with clear designated responsibilities whilst other more informal roles materialize as teachers interact with their peers. The variety of roles ensures that teachers can find ways to lead that fit their talents and interests. Regardless of the roles they accept, teacher leaders have the potential to shape the culture of their schools, advance student learning, and influence practice among their peers. Moreover, because teachers normally have longer tenure-ship than any principal, teachers deserve to lead amidst the formal structures the bureaucracy formed for them. In the country where principals are rotated frequently,
the school that has been turned around by a great will mostly to change or reverted to its previous state when that principal moves to another jurisdiction. Therefore, the cultivation of teacher leadership may well be a sensible investment for a school fully committed to refining practice over the long term. It may also prove decisive in uplifting teachers who have leadership potentials to stay with education rather than leave the profession for one that offers better chances for ongoing professional development and advancement. Moreover, in most schools, traditional societal norms about teacher and leadership in the sense of autonomy and individuality hinder the development of professional learning communities which are quite important for meaningful school improvement. Teachers are prevented to rise from their normal teaching roles because of too much focus on principal archetype of leadership where teachers traditionally follow.

9. References:


