FACULTY HEADS: THEIR ROLES AND LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN NEW ZEALAND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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ABSTRACT

In secondary schools, the role of curriculum middle manager is a complex one, by virtue of its position within a management structure, and more needs to be understood about the demands of the role within particular organisational contexts. The rise of a neo-liberal philosophy during the 1990s has seen the need to implement mandated curricula in schools along with extra demands to measure outputs, account for performance and report to external agencies. Educational restructuring at a national level and the shift to school self-management has placed greater emphasis on the improvement of schools through the efficient management of systems at a local level. For some schools, this has meant a restructuring of curriculum management, involving a shift from a traditional subject department organisation towards faculties. The addition of a further management layer has positioned the faculty head as the line manager of a group of heads of departments. This case study reports on research conducted in three large New Zealand secondary schools which have restructured using a faculty model. It examines faculty heads' work within the framework of an organisational structure to describe their formal roles, responsibilities and leadership practices within the context of each school. The structural positioning of faculty heads can be problematic. The role shifts them away from their usual dispositions and identities as subject leaders and requires leadership across a range of subject departments within a broad learning area. Results from this research indicate that faculty heads identify their work first and foremost as social practice but that there are tensions between competing managerial and professional demands. This raises questions about whether their primary responsibility is a managerial one where they act as conduits for senior management or whether it is a professional one linked to leading teams of teachers in the pursuit of improved pedagogical practice.

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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The faculty head role in secondary schools is a complex one, for it is both positioned and defined within a management hierarchy, but has evolved out of the more traditional curriculum leadership role of head of department. Furthermore, little is known about the demands and tensions of the role from the perspectives of the people working inside particular organisational contexts (Fitzgerald, 2000). Faculties and faculty groupings have long been the norm in tertiary education. However, more recently they have become part of a subject team organisational structure in both large and small secondary schools, in New Zealand and overseas.

Traditionally, schools have utilised an organisational structure using departmental subject groupings where heads of departments' positions derive partly from a value placed on the importance of curriculum leadership and subject expertise and partly from an assumption that those in such roles have the leadership and management skills (Gold, 1998; Turner, 1996). However, some New Zealand schools have now regrouped their subject departments to incorporate them into faculties (Cardno, 1998a) and this organisational structure can be found both in large and small secondary schools. The focus of this research is on the role of the faculty head within these redefined groups. In these schools, faculty heads have in most instances retained their head of department (HoD) role. However, they have been given additional curriculum responsibility for a range of subject departments reorganised into an administrative unit within a more highly defined hierarchical structure (Fitzgerald, 2000).

The middle management role

The term 'middle manager' has been increasingly used in New Zealand secondary schools since the administrative reforms of *Tomorrow's Schools* (Government of New Zealand, 1988). This term reflects a greater focus on the management role and is used to

describe those who sit within a second management tier between senior managers and other teachers (Fitzgerald, 2000). However, the term 'middle manager' is ill-defined (Bennett, 1995; Fitzgerald, 2000) with theorists varying in their interpretation. Bennett (1995) noted in a review of the literature that the term 'middle manager' is often used interchangeably with the term head of department or any other holder of a position of responsibility. In New Zealand, the conflation of the various middle management roles under one heading can be seen in the language of the *Education Gazette: New Zealand.* An analysis of advertised positions within the 'middle management' category (Ministry of Education, 2006) reveals positions ranging from faculty leader to teacher-in-charge of a small single subject area. Other titles include faculty co-ordinator, co-ordinator of special needs, various pastoral positions including year level deans and assistants, and assistant head of department. Salary management units attached to these positions range from one management unit (MU) to four. Additional salary benefits known as middle management allowances (MMAs) are also attached to some of these positions.

The faculty head role

A faculty structure moves beyond the two-tiered structure of senior manager and middle manager. Here the management structure is elongated into a three-tiered one, with the faculty head forming the tier closest to senior management. The faculty head has overall responsibility for a broad range of subject departments which have been subsumed within a faculty. In this way faculty heads are positioned as the line manager of a group of HoDs and form the bridging middle management role between HoDs and senior management. Faculty heads can then be defined as curriculum leaders with a designated management role who command more positional authority than heads of departments within a three-tier management structure (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989).

The background to the development of faculties

The identification of seven "essential learning areas" in *The New Zealand Curriculum Framework* (NZCF) (Ministry of Education, 1993) is a way of representing seven broad categories of knowledge and showing the possible relationships within and between them. The seven areas are identified as Language and Languages, Mathematics, Science,

Technology, Social Sciences, The Arts, and Physical and Well-Being. This model would "provide a coherent framework for learning and assessment in New Zealand schools" (p. 1). However, in some cases the relationships suggested between subjects within each of the "essential learning areas" challenge traditional associations. For example, international languages are grouped with English and Maori to form the "essential learning area" of Language and Languages. Within the Technology area, relationships are suggested between subjects such as food technology, information and communications technology (ICT) and graphics and design.

The release of this curriculum document and its espoused coherence informs Wilson's (1998) account of a restructuring process in one school where subject departments were reorganised and subsumed within broader faculty groupings. Other schools have subsequently adopted the faculty model. These faculty groupings were developed to reflect the seven "essential learning areas." However, there is as yet no evidence linking the development of faculties with a reduction in subject isolation and specialisation (Fitzgerald, 2000). Furthermore, the translation of suggested subject associations into fixed units within an organisational structure has meant the "essential learning areas" have been used for a management purpose outside of their original intention. Moreover, these units or faculty groupings have been cemented in place as part of a school's management structure. Thus, the associated management functions including the roles, structures and processes used to organise work (Mintzberg, 1989) may be seen as having precedence over descriptions of how teaching and learning might occur. Consequently, the process of faculty restructuring in schools has not always been straightforward, with divisions developing amongst staff as to where particular subjects might fit within a faculty management model (Wilson, 1998). Busher and Harris (1999) claim that such groupings may be seen more as an administrative convenience rather than one derived from common alliances.

The National Certificate of Educational Achievement (NCEA) is New Zealand's main qualification for secondary school students and is administered by the New Zealand Qualifications Authority (NZQA). A standards-based assessment model is used which

includes internal and external 'unit' and 'achievement' standards and the need for moderation systems in schools to ensure validity, fairness, and reliability of assessed tasks. So the creation of knowledge domains for use in the assessment of unit and achievement standards for the NCEA has also had a bearing on shaping a faculty structure because of the wide array of subject areas being grouped together under apparently distinct knowledge domains. Hence, faculty heads are often charged with the responsibility for managing the formalised systems and procedures of assessment including moderation.

Leadership implications for the faculty head role

Links have been made between the widespread reforms in education which have occurred in the UK, USA and New Zealand over the past fifteen years and the restructuring of schools in order to monitor, control and manage aspects of teacher's work (Bottery, 2004; Brown, Boyle & Boyle, 1999). Within the context of a school management structure, the faculty head role is located between senior management and other middle managers. Seen within this formal role positioning, the responsibility of the faculty head role may be seen as acting as a "conduit" for senior management (Gold, 1998). Thus, the faculty head plays a greater role in monitoring, co-ordinating and auditing across a broader sweep of subjects enabling a school to effect greater control in an environment where external accountability measures are required (Wilson, 1998).

It has also been shown that some large schools have developed faculty structures to streamline decision-making processes, because the process of allowing representation across all subject department groupings had become cumbersome (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989). In such contexts it is incumbent upon faculty heads to represent the needs of HoDs and other faculty members within a more highly defined hierarchical structure, in turn placing greater emphasis on efficiency and management processes (Wilson, 1998). Furthermore, in these contexts, faculty heads are required to work with larger teams making the collaborative process more difficult (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989).

Teachers' work centres on forming judgments drawn from understandings of their disciplines, educational theories, pedagogies and experiences and in holding to the altruistic value of providing a service. This lies at the heart of what it means to be a teacher and a professional (Gunter, 2001). Thus, the leadership task of exercising influence in order to provide direction for their colleagues (Bottery, 2004) emerges from this professional context. The challenge for faculty heads, then, is to find ways of leading large and often diverse groups of people in order to work towards sustaining a team who will work collaboratively towards improving teaching and learning across a faculty. Furthermore, the formal positioning of faculty heads as having overall responsibility for a broad range of subject departments seeks to shift their gaze beyond their subject leader role and departmental collegial networks. However, it is from their knowledge and experience as teachers and subject leaders that faculty heads' professional identities have been formed.

The leadership challenge for faculty heads lies in the positioning of their role closer to the senior management team which in turn refocuses their role on administrative tasks and management processes (Busher & Harris, 1999). According to Busher and Harris, most faculty heads retain the curriculum leadership of the HoD role, but also face the additional role of recognising and supporting the needs of often very diverse subject departments within a faculty. This creates greater leadership demands and may contain tensions and lack of role clarity. These tensions have been demonstrated in one New Zealand study (Cooney, 2002) to be particularly pronounced in faculty heads leading diverse subject department faculties where the faculty head is responsible for representing the disparate needs and interests of a wide range of subjects. Furthermore, these tensions arise out of managing a dual role within an intensified work environment (Gronn, 2003). These tensions may be further exacerbated by difficulties which are inherent in a highly defined hierarchical faculty structure, with some theorists questioning the efficacy of such models to develop stimulating learning communities (Bottery, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 1997).

Research aims, questions and settings

The central aim of the study is to examine perceptions of the faculty head role in restructured schools. It also explores the leadership implications of restructuring, including the potential for role intensification and role dualism in these middle management positions. A faculty head's professional identity derives from their experience and expertise as teacher and subject leader (Busher & Harris, 1999; Busher & McKeown, 2005; Gunter, 2001). From this perspective, their primary curriculum responsibility is to their subject area. However, faculty heads also have responsibility for a broad group of subject departments which have been reorganised into an administrative unit. This has the potential to shift the focus of the role by reframing it as one located beyond the social networks of the subject department to one which is more management driven. It is important to understand how faculty heads' perceptions of their role within such organisational structures influence their leadership practices. Therefore, the study seeks to examine the relationship between organisational structures and faculty heads' sense of agency within those structures. It also seeks to understand the ways collaborative practice occurs, both within departments and across wider faculty groupings. The questions which inform this research are as follows:

1. How has the faculty structure informed the roles, responsibilities and work of curriculum middle managers?

2. How do faculty heads' perceptions of their role and work influence their decisions and actions?

3. What tensions are evident in faculty heads' endeavours to work collaboratively, both within and across faculty structures and why have these tensions emerged?

Research settings

In seeking to contextualise the problem and to understand it from the perspectives and experience of the people in the faculty head role, I have adopted a case study approach using three large urban secondary schools.

Thesis organisation

This size of this thesis is more substantial than I had initially anticipated. However my aim has been to include and discuss those aspects which were seen by the participants in this study as axiomatic to the faculty head role. The chapters are organised as follows:

Chapter One

This first chapter has provided an overview of the research problem and a rationale on which this thesis is built. The background to the development of faculties and the faculty head role has been outlined.

Chapter Two

Here the literature is reviewed. It begins by contextualising the faculty head role within the wider framework of widespread reforms in education and the development of the middle management role in schools. By drawing on organisational theory, the role is defined by its positioning within a rational organisational structure. The review then turns to the social practice of leadership, by examining some leadership tensions and dilemmas articulated by various researchers and theorists.

Chapter Three

This chapter outlines the research problem and justifies a research methodology by contextualising the case study design within the broader framework of research paradigms and trends. The methods used for data gathering are outlined and ethical considerations explained.

Chapter Four

Chapter Four presents the findings from the principals and faculty heads to establish organisational contexts and backgrounds to faculty restructuring in each of the schools. With some reference to the literature, the formal positioning of a faculty head role within organisational structures is represented, as are the principals' expectations of the role.

Chapter Five

Here the faculty heads' perceptions of their roles, responsibilities and work are presented and analysed within the framework provided by the data in Chapter Four. Where appropriate, links are made to the literature and integrated within the analysis.

Chapter Six

Chapter Six contains an in-depth critical analysis with an integration of the relevant literature reviewed in Chapter Two. The themes emerging from the data analysis are linked to show that a faculty head role traverses the realms of both managed and social practice. The various perspectives, values and tensions of a faculty head role are also shown.

Chapter Seven

The thesis concludes by showing that the faculty head role is contextualised within wider policy contexts and school cultures and can be interpreted in a number of ways by principals and faculty heads. Recommendations for faculty heads and principals and for further research are also made.

Conclusion

This chapter has begun the thesis by providing some background to the development of faculty heads' middle management roles, both within a New Zealand context and at a local school level. The research aims and questions have been outlined and an introduction to the case study schools was made. The thesis now turns in the following chapter towards exploration of the literature to provide a context for understanding the nature of the faculty head role.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The faculty head role is framed within a wider educational policy context and the work of middle managers in schools. This review begins by examining that broad policy context. In particular, the neo-liberal education reforms of the late 1980s are outlined, as are the reasons for the development and subsequent intensification of middle managers' roles. However, key aspects of the faculty head role differentiate it from the work of HoDs and other middle managers. The formal positioning of the faculty head role is significant, as a faculty structure is by definition more hierarchical than the traditional departmental model. Thus, the literature suggests it is through the formal positioning of faculty heads that a mandate for leadership is established. However, teachers have traditionally viewed themselves as belonging to a professional culture where the intellectual work of educating young people is based on professional knowledge and training (Gunter, 2001; Robertson, 1996). Professional cultures reject the systems and procedures of a formalised positional role culture associated with more hierarchical organisational models. Therefore, this review examines the inherent tensions within the faculty head role to suggest that school restructuring has the potential to influence the work practices of these middle managers. A common thread throughout the literature is the central importance of a leader's ability to develop and sustain collaborative practice (Ingvarson, Kleinhenz, Beavis, Barwick, Carthy & Wilkinson, 2005). This, along with the current focus on leadership practices, and the dilemmas and barriers to shared work practices will be the final focus of the review.

The external policy framework: contextualising the management problem

The *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms (Government of New Zealand, 1988) required devolution of operational responsibility to the local site and the restructuring of schools as self-governing. This was seen as a process of modernisation where schools would be run like small businesses requiring the development of associated financial and personnel management practices and the need to meet external accountability and

auditing demands (Codd, 2005). The emphasis was on management roles and managerialist solutions drawn from business models rather than those derived from education (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). A determinist approach to school organisation was adopted, which in its focus on management roles and processes relied on an organisational theory which sought to define and control outcomes through the application of a scientific objective model (Greenfield, 1975).

The next phase of reform involved the release of a national curriculum document, the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) which specified outcomes linked to specific achievement objectives which were to be recorded and monitored. The separation of learning processes from learning outcomes led to a "narrowing of content to focus on product rather than the processes of learning and thinking" (Codd, 2005). In relation to teacher's work, the "aggressive restructuring that took place in New Zealand" (Robertson, 1996, p. 39) meant that there was little teacher ownership of processes to establish policy and enact procedures bounded by nationally prescribed guidelines. Furthermore, there was a shift away from the notion of education serving the public good within the context of a social democracy to a neo-liberal philosophy where education came to be seen a product needing to be marketed (Codd, 2005). In schools, with the principal acting more as a manager or chief executive than a head teacher, and the emphasis on efficiency, the reorganisation of systems and reconfiguration of roles was needed in order to survive in the education market (Bottery & Wright, 2000). Within this context, strategic planning assumed a greater significance requiring schools to develop objectives, monitor progress and report externally. These aspects were managed through quality assurance mechanisms such as internal review (Codd, 2005).

A widespread phenomenon seen across most 'western' education systems was that principals' work and roles intensified (Gronn, 2003). As a consequence, a greater number of associated management tasks were delegated downwards to middle managers (Adey, 2000; Brown & Rutherford, 1999; Fitzgerald, 2000; Glover, Gleeson, Gough & Johnson, 1998). Driven by market imperatives, the recording of observable and measurable outputs assumed greater priority, within a culture of performativity requiring

greater control and surveillance (Codd, 2005). Performativity demanded more than performance. It has been described as a self-reinforcing culture centred on the measurement of outputs and productivity (Ball, 2004). Consequently authenticity was lost, as energy for the real work of teaching or "first order activities" was depleted (p. 146) and teachers' work as social practice was replaced with management systems (Ball, 2004). Increasingly, bureaucratic systems were used to meet the growing demands of standardisation and control. This led to greater fragmentation and less emphasis on the relational in the way work was managed (Bottery, 2004).

Role intensification

Middle managers have assumed a more complex and significant role over the past fifteen years or so, yet the literature suggests that compensatory time is insufficient (Ingvarson et al., 2005; Wright, 2002). Within the context of the intensification of principals' roles (Gronn, 2003) middle managers have, as a consequence, been delegated additional management tasks. The HoD role traditionally encompassed tasks such as managing budgets and resources, curriculum planning, and working with people and teams (Blandford, 1997; Gold, 1998; Kemp & Nathan, 1989). This has now expanded to include developing school policy (Brown, & Rutherford, 1999; Fitzgerald, 2000), and managing staff development and appraisal (Brown, Rutherford, & Boyle, 2000; Busher & Harris, 1999; Fitzgerald, 2000; Wise, 2001). Furthermore, involvement by subject leaders in strategic direction and planning was seen as important by fourteen of the twenty-five senior managers interviewed by Glover, Miller, Gambling, Gough and Johnson (1999).

Busyness and the speedy response to administrative tasks have come to characterise a middle managers' work, which has been described as fragmented and complex (Wright, 2002). This aspect of a manager's job was also noted by Mintzberg (1989). He observed that managers' work, in a range of contexts, occurred at an unrelenting pace and that their activities were characterised by "brevity, variety and discontinuity" (p. 10). The demands might be so pressing that it could be tempting to retreat into ticking off managerial tasks (Ingvarson et al., 2005; Wright, 2002). Although pedagogically

unproductive, this may come to be seen as a vicious cycle of necessary activity to get the job done. With little designated time for management tasks (Fitzgerald, Youngs, & Grootenboer, 2003; Wright, 2002) the consequence has been that there has been little time for developing relationships within a role described as emotionally demanding (Sachs, 2003; Wright, 2002). Concurrent with the intensification of middle managers' work has been the intensification of teaching. In particular, since 2002, New Zealand secondary schools have implemented the standards-based assessment requirements associated with the NCEA. Hence, demands for reviewing and reporting, moderation, paper work and administration have increased, leading researchers to conclude that these tasks have had the biggest impact on teacher stress and workload (Kane & Mallon, 2006).

The faculty head role is located in schools within a wider policy environment where teaching is perceived more as a technical skill or labour which requires direct monitoring, supervision and control (Goodson, 1997; Gunter, 2001; Robertson, 1996). So in England and New Zealand over a period of fifteen years, mandated curricula requiring little discretionary judgement have reduced teachers to functionaries through the process of emphasising the technical over the professional (Bascia & Hargreaves, 2000; Codd, 2005; Gunter, 2001; Kane & Mallon, 2006). Teachers have a more instrumentalist role in implementing policies and programmes which have been developed by powerful experts at a distance (Bottery, & Wright, 2000; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996; Gunter; 2005). Thus, there was less need for trust in teachers' professional abilities and knowledge in forming judgements about teaching and learning (Codd, 2005). This separation of curriculum design from its implementation has required increased surveillance from external agencies and meant schools must focus on more internal monitoring and reporting. This in turn has distracted curriculum leaders and teachers from core educational matters (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). Some have seen the development of the faculty head role in schools as lessening the effects of some of the external accountability demands, particularly through faculty heads' tasks of co-ordinating and monitoring across a broader range of subjects (Wilson, 1998).

The faculty head role as seen within a formal organisational model

Role cultures, where responsibilities are defined around a set of positional roles within formal hierarchical structures, are dominant in secondary schools and this more bureaucratic model tends to be associated with larger schools (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). Large secondary schools have been pushed towards this form, by a range of forces, including the need for increased subject specialisation, large student and staff numbers, economies of scale, and union employment agreements (Darling-Hammond, 1997). Bureaucracies can be efficient models of organisation. Efficiency is emphasised in Weber's (1964) rational, technical model, where the rights, rules and obligations of office, within strictly defined boundaries and hierarchical structures are outlined. Hierarchical structures require adherence to policies and standards where work is highly controlled, prescribed and formally reported on, in a system of line management. Furthermore, hierarchical models have particular utility where the organisation of work requires high levels of stability, efficiency and predictability (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). However, organisational structures and decision-making processes assume a range of forms within the bureaucratic model, leading researchers and theorists to conclude that there may be a various effects as discussed in the following section.

Decision-making processes

Brown, Boyle and Boyle, (2000) in a UK study of 21 schools, used interviews with principals and heads of department to ascertain levels of involvement of middle managers in wider-school decision making. In more hierarchical schools, authority was concentrated in a few senior leaders, with less opportunity for heads of department to contribute to whole school decision making. The authors' findings raised questions about an over-reliance on the senior management team in the decision-making process and the lack of distribution of leadership and the "facilitation of other's knowledge, talents and expertise" (p. 43).

Earley and Fletcher-Campbell's (1989) research in another UK study led them to conclude that a faculty system had developed because of inefficient decision-making

processes. The large number of heads of department each representing themselves at meetings had led to a cumbersome, unwieldy process. However, the development of faculties led to HoDs questioning the right and ability of faculty heads to represent their positions. Furthermore, in Glover et al.'s (1999) UK study of 24 secondary schools, five of the seven faculty-based schools included in the study experienced problems. The researchers found some HoDs were disaffected and this was particularly notable in faculties of ill-matched and disparate members. Through the creation of an additional middle management tier, HoD's sphere of influence had moved one step further away from senior management. Some perceived that within the newly created management environment the faculty head would act as the gate keeper of information and, in so doing, limit the involvement and leadership roles of the wider staff.

Claims have been made that there are links between high levels of commitment and enthusiasm amongst staff where models of participatory decision making are in use (Cardno, 1990). Cardno goes on to say that while time-consuming, the involvement of staff during the early stages of decision making may mean greater levels of understanding, leading to fewer problems later on. These claims have been supported by research which has shown that faculty structures were more likely to be successful where teachers participated in decision making, both during the implementation process and beyond (Glover et al., 1999).

Key aspects of the faculty head role

Definitions of the faculty head role can be found in the literature on middle management in schools, with some writers drawing distinctions between the HoD role and faculty head roles (Busher & Harris, 2000; Earley & Fletcher Campbell, 1989; Gold, 1998; Wise, 2000). In addition, Minztberg's organisational models (1989) and his systematic analyses of formal roles and structures provide the foundation for a highly technical rational organisational theory. Thus, Minzberg's theorising (1989) also provides some useful insights into the faculty head role, through an understanding of the way work is managed and co-ordinated. Furthermore, an understanding of the wider New Zealand policy environment may provide some insights relating to the development of the faculty

head role in schools since the *Tomorrow's Schools* reforms (Government of New Zealand, 1988). The following analysis seeks to understand the formal positioning and roles of the faculty head by drawing on the work of middle management literature, Mintzberg's organisational theory and Codd's (2005) analysis of the wider policy context. This suggests that a neo-liberal policy context has played a part in shaping the development of faculties in schools.

In relation to understanding a faculty structure, a comparison between Mintzberg's model of the "machine organisation" and his "professional organisation" offers an insight into the ways in which work is managed and co-ordinated. Mintzberg's "machine organisation" (1989) is a stable, rational structure with the advantage of high levels of efficiency but which is hierarchical and heavily reliant on mechanisms of control and the standardisation of work. In contrast, Mintzberg's "professional organisation" is less hierarchical, with reliance on professional expertise to manage and co-ordinate work through shared understandings. An important concept in the shift to the more hierarchical form is in strengthening the authority of the middle management role through its formal positioning. Thus, the faculty head role can be seen as having more positional authority within a developed management hierarchy (Figure 2.1). In the case of faculty heads it involves establishing their authority through formal positioning, rather than through subject expertise (Busher & Harris, 2000; Wise, 2000).

	Middle management in schools (Busher & Harris, 2000; Wise, 2000)	**Organisational theory** Mintzberg (1989)	**Wider policy environment** Codd, (2005)
HoD	Little middle management hierarchy. Heads of department display expertise in their curriculum area.	"Professional Organisation." Power of professional expertise and judgement.	Control of teachers' work. Teaching is seen as technical and instrumental. Less reliance on professional autonomy, initiative, and self-knowledge.
Faculty Head	Faculty head role adds extra tier to the middle management structure. Faculty head role incumbent not necessarily expert in a curriculum area for which they are responsible. Emphasis on positional power.	"Machine Organisation." Power of positional authority and administrative office.	

Figure 2.1 The formal positioning of the faculty head role

Definitions of the faculty head role identify three key discrete aspects of the role to differentiate it from the HoD role. The key aspects of faculty heads' work are shown in Figures 2.2 to 2.4. The formal requirements of their role mean that they must:

- Manage other managers (role 1)
- Co-ordinate the work of others (role 2)
- Represent others through the conduit role (role 3)

Firstly, within Mintzberg's model of the "machine organisation' there is greater need for more formal management of others' work. As Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989) state, and seen in Figure 2.2, an important aspect of the faculty head role is to "manage other managers" (p. 89).

	Middle management in schools (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989)	**Organisational theory** Mintzberg (1989)	**Wider policy environment** Codd, (2005)
HoD	Emphasis on collegial and professional relationships to regulate work.	"Professional Organisation." Standards are internalised through the process of professional training and the development of shared understandings. Important role of self-governing professional associations.	Input and output systems. Central control of curriculum, assessment and teaching. Performance standards. Achievement outcomes and performance indicators. Less emphasis on professional accountability through a concept of moral agency.
Faculty Head	Accountability through line management. Need for greater level of direct supervision. Faculty heads manage managers.	"Machine Organisation." Formalisation of standards by which work is formally measured and reported on. Imposition of an intermediate level of supervision.	

Figure 2.2 Faculty heads manage managers (Role 1)

Definitions of the faculty head role also stress the need for those in the role to co-ordinate the work of other people (Figure 2.3) (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989; Wise, 2000). The demands of the co-ordinating role intensify in large faculties, particularly when these contain disparate subject departments (Wise, 2000). This

diversity makes it more difficult to create a faculty identity (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989). In a "professional organisation" standards are internalised through the processes of developing expertise and shared understandings through prior training (Mintzberg, 1989). In contrast, standardisation is achieved through measuring outcomes in the "machine organisation" and work is co-ordinated across the sub-units using formal mechanisms.

	Middle management in schools (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989; Wise, 2000)	**Organisational theory** Mintzberg (1989)	**Wider policy environment** Codd (2005)
HoD	Heads of department have equal positional authority irrespective of department size. Little co-ordination needed across departments.	"Professional Organisation" Little development of a middle line hierarchy, with emphasis on autonomy and independence. Little co-ordination or supervision of professional work.	Formal roles and functions. Emphasis on technical aspects of co-ordinating work. Less trust in teachers' professional judgement and expertise.
Faculty Head	Faculty heads have greater positional authority and co-ordinate the work across the departments within the faculty.	"Machine Organisation" Greater middle management structure with fully developed middle-line hierarchy. Co-ordinating management role is through the application of formal rules and regulations.	

Figure 2.3 Co-ordination (Role 2)

Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989) suggest that by positioning the faculty head role closer to senior management faculty heads are charged with both maintaining a whole-school perspective while simultaneously representing the needs of subject departments. Thus, Gold (1998) posits that a faculty head's role may be to act as a "conduit" between other HoDs and senior management (Figure 2.4). However, Mintzberg suggests that the process where organisational structures move from a "professional" to a "machine" organisation arises from placing too much emphasis on the control of professional work (1979). Hierarchical and overly bureaucratic models increase the degree of control over the work of those at the operating level and create greater distance between those managing the work and those doing the work (Mintzberg, 1989; Smyth, 2001).

	Middle management in schools (Earley & Fletcher Campbell, 1989; Gold, 1998)	**Organisational theory** Mintzberg (1989)	**Wider policy environment** Codd, (2005)
HoD	Formal communication occurs with a broad group of heads of department through heads of department meetings. Curriculum committees discuss and manage the co-ordination and management of the curriculum across the school.	'Professional Organisation" Use of committees and task forces for the coordination and mutual adjustment of work.	Principal as Chief Executive. Schools are small businesses. Utilisation of reporting systems and managerial procedures rather than collective responsibility.
Faculty Head	Formal communication processes are emphasised. Senior management communicate with a small group of faculty heads who communicate with heads of department who then pass on information to teaching staff. Staff concerns are mediated through the faculty head.	"Machine organisation" Formal communication is favoured. Decision-making favours formal chain of authority. Communication of information up and down the line.	

Figure 2.4 The conduit role (Role 3)

So school structures should not be viewed in isolation but within a context of the wider policy environment (Bottery, 2004). Furthermore, school structures may become a vehicle for shaping school culture, and again the wider policy environment has an influence (Busher & McKeown, 2005). In the current education policy environment, both in England and New Zealand, where efficiency and measurement of outcomes dominate, the climate of standardisation and control prevails (Bottery, 2004; Codd, 2005). However, faculty heads also have professional identities. Their fields of knowledge and experiences as subject leaders inform their practice (Gunter, 2005). Moreover, "complex work cannot be formalized by rules, regulations or measures of performance" (Mintzberg, 1989). This may create role conflict in a faculty head required to meet the demands of both the bureaucratic and professional cultures. In their role as HoD their sense of agency lies within the value of building a collaborative department, but the faculty head role locates them within the management roles and systems of a faculty structure. Wise and Bush's study (1999) showed middle managers favouring the influence of the subject department, as opposed to senior management and this aligns with Bennett's (1995) assertion that collaborative cultures at department level can nevertheless be found in organisations with a role culture. The relevance of these

conclusions to the faculty head role is that they suggest that the ability to establish professional relationships based on trust has more significance than structural and organisational influences.

In a climate of national policy contexts where managerial solutions are often touted as solving educational problems (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003) it may be a challenge for faculty heads to resist managerial impositions. However, Thrupp and Willmott go on to say that leaders can exercise their agency by being both critical and creative in their handling of managerial demands, in order to open up space for the more important educational values of teaching and learning. Indeed, Grint (2005) argues that choice is exercised even in the most constraining of circumstances and Bottery (2004) contends that the best practitioners are able to maintain their integrity even in challenging contexts. However, "situations and contexts both structure and mediate thinking" (Gronn, 2003, p. 323). Thus, the real challenge, as Sachs (2003) states, is for "activist teacher professionals" to resist imposed imperatives by negotiating and arguing for values and teaching practices which will enhance learning.

A mandate for leadership

Traditionally, HoDs have been appointed to their role by virtue of their subject expertise and teaching experience within a particular subject domain. The positioning of individual subjects within broader learning domains is not always clear cut, each subject having developed out of complex social, cultural and theoretical traditions which are defined and redefined (Horrocks & Hoben, 2005). However, extant is the neo-liberal cynical assumption that teachers in subject department roles and groupings are largely self-serving (Codd, 2005) and this is often coupled with a belief in the stultifying effects of departmental organisation. Critiques of subject departments have focussed on them as leading to the creation of inefficient work-creating sub-cultures isolated from the wider organisation: as closed systems which define and defend their boundaries with no wider view of the surrounding context (Hannay & Ross, 1999; Hargreaves, 1994; Timperley & Robinson, 2000). Hargreaves (1994) has argued that a department organisational structure has a tendency to reinforce an insular, competitive, conservative culture and the

development of "balkanised" groups. According to Timperley and Robinson (2000), an over-reliance on departments and compartmentalised thinking can also lead to an increase in teacher workload. However, New Zealand research has shown that teacher's motivation and tendency towards overwork was linked to perceptions of their professional role having a wider educative and collective value. This was linked to a belief in the greater social good and hence to the core purpose of schools, namely students' success (Ingvarson et al., 2005; Kane & Mallon, 2006; Wright, 2002). The link between departmental dependence and workload has not been substantiated by other New Zealand researchers, rather evidence has pointed to the important role that the subject department plays in supporting teachers in their own learning (Ingvarson et al., 2005). It is surprising, then, as Fitzgerald (2000) states that any reference to team building and collaboration is noticeably absent from the performance indicators for 'unit holders' found in the in *Professional Standards* (Ministry of Education, 1999).

Moreover, seen from a team perspective, the framework of a smaller group proves the most productive, because as the team grows more energy will be expended in maintaining a team identity (Gronn, 2003). In larger teams it becomes more difficult for individual members to contribute meaningfully, as team meetings are often dominated by the chair or more senior members (Bush & Middlewood, 2005). It has also been shown that in larger teams, team members may exhibit greater passivity and conformity and the leadership role moves towards co-ordinating and locating resources in order to support the work (Belbin, 1996). Thus, Belbin suggests that the ideal management team size should be reduced to as few as eight.

Furthermore, even where the new authority designated to faculty heads challenges the traditional departmental model, the autonomy and authority established through subject expertise and curriculum knowledge endures as a powerful leadership mandate. This was demonstrated in Little's (1995) important study of two case study schools in America where the authority of heads of department was a lasting influence, even in the face of major school restructuring.

The faculty head role carries additional status and authority by virtue of its formal positioning. Nevertheless, it also poses a number of challenges of establishing credibility, and legitimacy or "knowledge power" (Bennett, 2001, p. 113). This must be done amongst a group of professionals with different sets of subject expertise and subject cultures, where the head of faculty is "disconnected from this knowledge base" (Gunter, 2001, p. 108). This is particularly true in relation to Busher and Harris's (2000) description of "confederate departments": those made up of diffuse subjects with no unifying centre and strong sub-groupings. This lack of commonality or shared values makes it more difficult for the faculty head to be viewed as an expert teacher and leading professional across all areas. Furthermore, while the organisational structure gives tacit acknowledgement to the value of the faculty head, it calls into question the roles, expertise and leadership contributions of other HoDs (Glover et al., 1999; Gunter, 2001). This lack of professional empowerment, coupled with the new structural impediments, makes it less likely that leadership will be shared across the school. Tensions have also been faced by faculty heads in establishing an authority for leadership across subject boundaries, where curriculum leadership has traditionally been defined by professional competence within an area of subject expertise (Little, 1995). Furthermore, faculty heads are simultaneously professionally accountable to colleagues and in their formal role directly responsible to senior management and the principal (Bennett, 1995). In turn, the principal is accountable to the school's Board of Trustees. In its governance role, the board must ensure that its strategic planning and charter development is both responsive to its community and reflects government legislation (Cardno, 1998b).

Despite this structural emphasis, the evidence suggests that reliance on an administrative model may have a detrimental effect on students and the teaching and learning which occurs. Students taught within departments where the department head was pro-active in curriculum and instructional leadership performed highest on measures of problem-solving, whereas those where department heads adopted a more administrative role, performed lowest (McCartney & Schrag, 1990, cited in Little, 1995). There is also an inherent tension between fostering initiative and creativity from within a department and seeking connections across departments within a more formalised hierarchical structure.

Robinson (2004) questions the efficacy and appropriateness of prevalent leadership models for schools which have been based on the premise that there are common features of leadership and management which can be identified and applied across organisational and specialist boundaries. It is assumed under this model, that other skills particular to the sector where leadership is to be applied are either unnecessary or can be learned on the job. However, Robinson argues (2004) that the preoccupation with the managerial has led to gaps in leadership performance and calls for principals to refocus on the "new goal" (p. 40) of educational leadership which is linked to an understanding of pedagogy. Robinson argues that without subject specific specialist knowledge, principals may lack the skills needed to critique teachers' practice so as to develop and implement policies at a local level which work best to enhance students' learning. This argument can be developed in relation to the HoD where the HoD plays a vital role as subject specialist, by providing sound curriculum leadership of effective teaching and learning programmes and in knowing the right questions to ask. In contrast, faculty heads, without specialist knowledge may flounder in this leadership role.

This is supported by Harvey and Beauchamp (2005) who found that management practices were inextricably linked to subject expertise, and Spillane (2006) who found that the nature of leadership interactions varied, depending on the subject area. This is also endorsed by Turner (2005) who found that the reality of managing a subject department was heavily contextualised within the subject domain. These findings show that HoDs working collaboratively to organise their subject and to implement teaching and learning programmes, use knowledge and shared understandings linked to subject knowledge. These understandings are unlikely to be readily available to those such as faculty heads whose expertise lies outside of that specialist field.

Role strain for the HoD responsible for curriculum delivery and who is also head of faculty, arises out of juggling two very different types of role: the one evolving out of a bureaucratic model seeking compliance and direction, the other a professional one arising out of subject autonomy and a vision for their subject that includes what works best for students in the classroom. Blandford (1997) positions the solution to role

conflict as lying within the integrity of the middle-manager, rather than organisational structures, but this suggests a leader with superhuman qualities and a wealth of transformational power. Indeed, a shift has occurred in recent educational research and literature from a heroic view of leadership to a distributed one. This is because it is now recognised that leadership located solely in the formal positional role creates an impossible unsustainable burden on the one, and disempowers the many (Robinson, 2004). Such dependence on the role of a sole leader for organisational vitality is naïve, creates blunt distinctions between leaders and followers, underutilises leadership skills found elsewhere and leads to poor leadership succession (Gronn, 2003). Thus, Robinson (2004) has concluded that "the heroic model of leadership is a romantic and debilitating fiction" (p. 42). This sentiment is echoed by Hargreaves and Fink (2006), and Spillane (2006). Finding meaning and sustaining leadership, then, lies neither in the individual, nor in formal administrative roles and functions, but in collaboration with others within a culture which supports and sustains professional learning (Gunter, 2001, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Lingard, Hayes, Mills & Christie, 2003; Starratt, 2003; Wise, 2003). So leadership is then construed as "distributive practice, *stretched over* the social and situational contexts of the school (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 5, author's italics) with the interactive practice leading to outcomes which amount to "more than the sum of those leaders' practice" (p. 16). This shifts the focus to the practice of leadership within the contexts of the day-to-day working relationships.

Leadership practices

A theory of organisation constructed around a dualism where organisations are seen as systems separate to the people who inhabit them has been rejected as leading down a false path (Greenfield, 1975). Thus, as Greenfield states, people and organisations are inextricably intertwined, and social practice, or the way people behave within organisations is an essential component of understanding the way organisations are formed. In this way, structures may come to be best seen not as immutable forms but as descriptions of the social world inhabited by people. Thus, it is to the social and leadership practices of the faculty head that this literature review now turns.

Sharing the work within a broader context

The problem of principal leadership succession within intensified work environments has seen arguments put for sustainable leadership through distributed practice. Hargreaves and Fink (2006) contend that the educational leadership literature has been myopic in its conflation of "school leadership" with "principal" and that there should be a re-emphasis on building the capacity of those brought into the leadership net. With the emphasis on participatory democracy, "distributing leadership by drawing on the resourcefulness of all people within schools isn't just common sense; it is the morally responsible thing to do" (Hargreaves & Fink, p. 97). The difficulty in attracting leaders to the principal role is understood through Gronn's coinage (2003) of the phrase "greedy work." This encapsulates the notion that the personal commitment demanded of the role incumbent and the quality and quantity of work required exceeds that which would have previously been expected from one person. Furthermore, Gronn goes on to state that the context has shifted from that of the manager of the 1980s who were once "attributed with structural transformative, rather than reproductive capacities" (p. 84) to the intensified work practices of the neo-liberal context of the 2000s which has had the effect of curbing a principal's ability to influence and transform.

Framed within contexts of work intensification, the development of faculties and the delegation of tasks to faculty heads may be seen as a response by principals needing to meet a greater range of external demands. Principals experience the push and pull factors inherent in expectations that they are all things to all people where they are asked to "take control, but follow central directives; make improvements, but run a smooth ship, and so on" (Fullan, 2003, p. 22). They also face the difficult challenge of building staff trust within the wider policy context of needing to meet external accountability demands through benchmarking, meeting performance targets and applying for contestable funding. However, within "an oppressive policy climate there is not much room for deviation or dissent", (p. 353) and thus it is the principal who takes the greatest personal risk in placing trust in others (MacBeath, 2005).

Nevertheless, faculty heads have had leadership formally distributed to them and this requires both accountability and support. Thus, contextual factors can act as either enabling or constraining influences (Gunter, 2005). Cultures of trust established through openness to enquiry, recognition of worth, and placing value on initiative can encourage participation, whereas more controlling environments can have the opposite effect (Woods, Bennett, Harvey & Wise, 2004). Spillane et al. (2004) argue that in the interplay between structure and agency, individuals are influenced by structure and in turn influence the structure they work within. Therefore, the faculty structure is the means through which faculty heads work and exercise choice in meeting desired outcomes and these structures can influence those choices. Faculty heads in turn have the agency to influence those structures. However, Hannay (2003) contends that conditions conducive to collaboration or distributive leadership are less likely to be found in schools which have developed the more hierarchical, administrative structures.

The ways faculty heads position themselves, along with the way they are positioned by others also has a bearing. Gronn (2003) eschews a positional divide implicit in the simple binary division between leaders and followers which can "no longer meaningfully reflect the emerging realities of the workplace" (p. 48). On the other hand, although an argument is made for role inter-changeability, Spillane's (2006) sustained use of a leaders' and followers' positional language suggests some have more power to act than others. In a similar way, faculty heads are also positioned by others in schools which can either enhance or diminish their sense of agency within those structures.

Collaborative practice

Evidence suggests working collaboratively and building a professional culture is an important leadership role, with positive benefits extending to managing change and developing innovative pedagogical practice (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Lingard et al., 2003). In collaborative contexts teachers are more effective, particularly where there is time for shared-planning (Darling-Hammond, 1997) and perceptions of workload manageability are also more positive (Ingvarson et al., 2005). The desire for continuous improvement and change remains paramount, with importance placed on the team as a

unit working collectively towards the desired goal. The process of problem solving and decision making driven by values of pluralism, power generation, conflict resolution, participation, consensus, interdependence and accountability also underpin the collaborative process (Stewart & Pebble, 1993). Problem solving and decision making are recurring themes (Cardno, 1998b; Stewart & Prebble, 1993) with Gunter (2005) stating that teachers have a "responsibility to be in control of their practice and to engage in dialogue about other forms of that practice" (p. 23).

The faculty head role has evolved out of the HoD role, a role most faculty heads retain, and this locates their work within the context of a subject department. The culture of a subject department is formed out of the personal and professional identities of their members, their interactions, and the values associated with notions of best teaching practice (Busher & Harris, 1999; Busher & McKeown, 2005; Gunter, 2001). Such a culture values the sharing of leadership and fosters participation and teamwork within the context of a flattened management structure and this has been shown to lead to a reduction in feelings of isolation and stress in leaders, coupled with increased job satisfaction (Brookling, Collins, Court, & O'Neill, 2003). Furthermore, Brown, Rutherford and Boyle (2000) argue that the subject department with its shared values and loyalties is the key group in managing change linked to improving teaching and learning, with HoDs viewed as crucial change agents. However, the faculty head is relocated within a wider sphere of responsibility and within a broader context of the school's organisational structure. This raises questions about where the collaborative practice of faculty heads in their day-to-day interactions is located. Furthermore, it has been suggested that the physical layout of a school and whether a team has a base all impact on cohesiveness and workplace practices (Gunter, 2001; Turner, 2005). The reality of everyday practice is that teachers' identities and values are intertwined within their work practices and it is through these practices in the day-to-day struggles of teachers' work that their dispositions and values are revealed (Gunter, 2005).

One of the emphases emerging from the literature relating to effective practices of HoDs is on the role that collaboration plays in the leadership of effective departments. In their

study of six 'effective departments' Harris, Jamieson and Russ (1995) found that "one of the most striking findings" in those teams which were perceived effective, "was the great emphasis on collegiate styles of management adopted by the head of department" (p. 287). Common features of the management style of these HoDs were that they frequently engaged in professional discussion with team members, were skilled at handling relationships and had a strong vision of what teaching looked like for their area of subject responsibility. The prescription and control of teaching styles and strategies did not feature but instead there was an emphasis on the development of "detailed and agreed schemes of work that had been collectively approved" (p. 288). These findings are supported by Sammons, Thomas and Mortimore (1997) who in detailed case studies of six schools and thirty HoDs found a collegial approach and an emphasis on teamwork were significant features of departmental effectiveness. HoDs of effective departments are also leading professionals with a strong vision of the subject, working to build cultures of shared expertise as a way of building depth in professional practice (Goodson, 2003; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996; Ingvarson et al., 2005). Here educational leadership is positioned as pedagogical practice where teachers reflect on their own practice and seek to improve the practice of others (Gunter, 2005; Lingard et al., 2003). However, this suggests that if a faculty head does not share similar understandings and subject knowledge it may be difficult for them to influence teaching practice (Wise, 2000).

The recent literature on distributed leadership may offer some further insights into the faculty head role. Spillane (2006) has concluded that the determination of a leader's influence develops out of cultural capital, or a leader's interactive styles, and social capital, or the ability to form social networks underpinned by shared values such as trust and mutuality. Sergiovanni (2005) goes further by arguing that capability and human potential is supported by initially building trust in teachers' social relationships, which in turn extends outwards to support for students' social needs and academic achievement. Distributive leadership models embrace all forms of joint work from that which is formally delegated within organised contexts to the more spontaneous forms which exist in the collegiality of interdependence found in day-to-day interactions. As such,

distributed leadership can become a way of shifting understandings of leadership away from formal roles and functions such as that of the faculty head, to an analysis of leadership practices irrespective of role. Thus, questions regarding the interrelationships of the actors involved throughout the leadership process are germane (Spillane, 2006). Such distributive practice necessitates the blurring of distinctions between leaders and followers and the provision for informal or ad hoc leadership roles to exist alongside formal positional roles within a culture of trust, and mutual respect (Woods et al., 2004). So the rhetoric of distributed leadership has arisen as a way of filling a leadership gap by giving value to the espoused interdependence of more spontaneous collegial forms of leadership rather than more directed forms of collaboration (Gunter, 2005). Furthermore, "concertive action" as described by Gronn (2003, p. 35) is seen as joint work which creates synergies where the product is more than the sum of each individual's action.

Thus, those who in their analyses include models of more spontaneous forms of distribution use the language of dispersal, thus 'emergent' or 'dispersed' leadership. Here leadership is not given out or controlled but scattered and allowed to develop naturally (Gunter, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; MacBeath, 2005). Unlike "contrived collegiality" which Hargreaves (1994) describes as "administratively regulated, compulsory, implementation-orientated, fixed in time and space, predictable" (p. 195-196) real collegiality is spontaneous. However, this requires a genuine commitment on the faculty heads' behalf to power sharing. Gunter (2005) notes that such practice can be challenging yet risky and consequently some may resort to more autonomous forms of practice. It can also be "difficult to organize in a managerialist context which favours a chief executive model of leadership and where workloads are intensifying" (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003, p.181).

Within contexts of work intensification and role conflict, Wise (2003) makes some observations which are pertinent to the faculty head. Drawing on distributed leadership models and Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder's (2002) model of "communities of practice", or "social learning networks" she suggests that the ensuing potential for role conflict may be reduced through a process of dispersed leadership. Accountability would

be to the community rather than a formal hierarchical accountability system. However, Wise's (2003) solution to the problem of role conflict is in itself problematic, as is her suggestion that responsibilities for leadership tasks such as appraisal may be dispersed across the whole group. In this context, dispersing leadership becomes another form of delegation in disguise. This is exacerbated by Wise's positional language, her emphasis on compliance and "monitoring" (Wise; 2001, 2003) and the drive to amalgamate conflicting and contradictory systems, the one where professional development is central, the other formal accountability. Developmental learning lies at the heart of collaborative cultures, a value which is in tension with the measuring systems of formal monitoring. Wise (2003) has used the notion of a "social learning network" (Wenger et al., 2002) for another purpose. Furthermore, in a review of the literature, Woods et al. (2004) suggest that participation within distributed leadership cultures is more likely to thrive in high trust, collaborative and democratic cultures and struggle in those which are more hierarchical and authoritarian. Indeed "distributing leadership is premised on trust" (MacBeath, 2005, p. 353).

The dilemmas of sharing the work

The language of shared work is problematic where words like 'collaboration', 'collaborative' and 'collegiality' have adopted the high moral ground and assumed a power to co-opt workers and their energies in the pursuit of some greater good (Smyth, 2001). Moreover, the language of distribution raises the question of who is doing the distributing and to whom (Gunter, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006). Thus, collaborative models of leadership have been tainted by the legitimation ascribed to them in the development of self-managing schools, enabling the "successful implementation of centralized curricular reform, allowing central guidelines to be adapted to the context of individual schools" (Brundrett, 1998, p. 305). As Smyth (2001) states, "the dilemma seems to hinge around wanting to develop collaborative structures, but using them for essentially managerialist ends" (p. 100). This may result in those involved acquiescing to requests for involvement so as to not be thought of as unprofessional (Smyth, 2001).

If the distributed leadership model is merely construed as delegation in another guise, it is likely to be met with considerable resistance, as faculty heads reflect on the extent to which delegated responsibility has already occurred, and on perceptions that classroom teachers are already over-burdened (Wright, 2002). Therefore, distributing leadership may create further dilemmas (Gunter, 2005) where capitalising on workplace interdependencies and collegial relationships in an exploitative manner represents the darker aspect of distributed practice (Gronn, 2003). Thus, the often used justification that downwards delegation facilitates the professional development of those to whom tasks are repeatedly delegated, may come to be viewed as a dishonest way of getting the job done cheaply within contexts of financial constraint (Glover et al., 1998). So a metaphor for distributed leadership which suggests it can be "stretched over" the organisation of a school (Spillane et al., 2004) is problematic in times of work intensification and difficulties faced by schools with recruitment and retention (Gronn, 2003).

Thus, the problem is contextualised and Gunter (2001, 2005) critically addresses this issue by including an analysis of power in the relationship between agency and structure, arguing for teachers in their workplaces to develop a "politics of practice" (p. 55). This is a self-reflective political process which calls for teachers to critique the ways they work. Faculty heads may gain insight into their practice through examining the ways they exercise choice, both by positioning themselves and being positioned by others, within structures which either control or enhance. The 'how' of distributing leadership remains a thorny one, if only some agents have the power to act, or some have more power than others as the use of positional language suggests (Spillane, 2006). Furthermore, the wider political and social context plays a role in cementing structural aspects linked to particular ideology within an organisation. This can make the interplay between agency and structure extremely difficult, leading teachers and leaders to either subvert or work around the edges of intransigent structures (Thrupp, 1999; Thrupp & Willmott, 2003).

Thus, the dilemmas and multiple values inherent in the devolution of responsibility are highlighted, as it can be argued that the value of shared work practice diminishes in direct proportion to the degree of control exerted over it. So collaborative practices may be exploitative and used to get the job done (Gronn, 2003) or they may involve a genuine commitment to power sharing which involves placing a value on leadership wherever it is found (Sergiovanni, 2005). Failure to do so can undermine the efforts of those working to build professional communities based on a genuinely collaborative and democratically negotiated practice, where the objective is teacher development in support of enhanced teaching and learning (Sachs, 2003).

Implications for research and practice

Very little research has been conducted which attempts to show the relationship between the internal management structures of a school and the management practices of middle managers who work within them. This is particularly so for faculty heads. This is, in part, because groupings within a school vary as much in their cultures and practices as those across schools (Bennett, 1995; Brown, Rutherford, & Boyle, 2000; Busher & Harris, 1999; O'Neill, 2000) and those leading these groups have an important role in establishing these distinctive cultures. Within any one particular school there are departments which are more highly rated than others and HoDs who are perceived to be more effective in their role than others (Sammons et al., 1997). This makes it difficult for researchers, in that it is difficult to form generalisations about the interrelationship, if indeed one does exist, between whole school culture and the roles middle managers play in leading effective teams within the wider school structure. Harris et al. (1995) in their study of effective departments concluded that the successful departments contained some common elements in the ways they were managed, but were more equivocal in their statements relating to the influence of whole-school management, suggesting that the departments were effective by virtue of their own efforts. "The schools they worked in were broadly supportive, but this was not a major factor in their success" (p. 297).

However, in contrast to this, Little (1995) in her study of schools engaged in re-organisation into faculties argued that structural factors had an impact on the way middle

managers operate. She observed a shift, in some participants, away from a collegial model towards one which was more administrative and bureaucratic. Those appointed to the faculty head roles of more status within the newly established structure, aligned themselves more closely to the senior management team. One participant went as far as to describe her role as that of "mini-principal" and "three out of the four heads disclosed plans to enter administration" (p. 56). Clearly, questions relating to control and positional authority need to be asked in relation to whether faculty roles and organisational structures facilitate or impede collegial practice. Furthermore, little recent literature focuses on the place of teams and collegial relationships in schools. Instead, the current focus on distributed leadership suggests that this newly conceived shared work practice is the way forward. However, this focus is framed within a leadership paradigm contextualised within the difficulties that schools now face with leadership succession (Gronn, 2003). The faculty head may then be seen as having responsibility delegated to them such that distribution becomes synonymous with delegation. Moreover, Harris (2004) argues that hierarchical roles and structures act as barriers to widespread distribution of leadership.

Little is known about the impact the restructuring of secondary schools into faculties has had on the roles and management practices of faculty heads, and on their ability to develop collegial teams, and nurture emergent leadership. Further research is needed on faculty heads' perceptions of their leadership practices, including their experience of distributed leadership practice. Some of the evidence suggests that the bureaucratised, administrative nature of the faculty head role shifts the focus away from collegial interdependencies. Other evidence points to the necessity of distributing leadership within a formal delegation model as a way of easing the burden within contexts of intensified workloads.

Furthermore, there are no New Zealand studies which focus on the role strain of a faculty head who, wedded to the ideals of a pedagogical culture, is torn towards the more administrative focus demanded from the faculty head role. This is certainly an area worthy of further investigation, not only because of the possible negative impact both on

the subject department and for wider school improvement. As Fleming (2000) suggests, schools with a traditional, hierarchical role culture "are not well-equipped for coping with the rapid changes that are now a permanent feature of education" (p. 33).

Within the New Zealand context, the last decade and a half has been characterised by constant change in schools, driven by externally driven Ministry of Education policies. Much of the burden to implement this change has fallen on faculty heads and other middle managers but with little provided by way of professional development on how these changes might be managed (Fitzgerald et al., 2003). Furthermore, most importantly, another area for investigation is the effect of restructuring on students to examine the impact, if any, that the development of the faculty head role has had on teaching and learning.

Conclusion

The focus of much of the literature from the school effectiveness, school improvement and educational management fields has been on the work of educational leaders conceptualised within a rational organisational model. This locates the faculty head role within its formal positioning to examine the processes and functions of the role in order to understand how it is enacted within organisational systems. However, an alternative conception of the faculty head leadership role locates it within the field of social practice where the relational nature of the role is brought to the fore and so day-to-day interactions are emphasised. Furthermore, faculty heads as teacher-leaders are likely to have their own sense of agency and conceptions of their work which are also highly contextualised within their schools. The focus of the next chapter will be to outline a research methodology where faculty heads' perceptions of their roles can emerge. This seeks to understand both the organisational and relational aspects of their leadership practices within the contexts of their every day work.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Introduction

The central aim of the study is to examine perceptions of the faculty head role in restructured secondary schools. As has been shown in the previous chapter, faculty heads have a curriculum responsibility within a more highly defined hierarchical structure where a group of subject departments has been reorganised into an administrative unit. Thus, the study seeks to understand the leadership implications of this restructuring along with its impact on faculty heads' roles and work.

This chapter introduces and outlines research methodologies framed against a historical backdrop to explore the various approaches to gathering and analysing data. It then presents a number of reasons for using a case study design which sits within a qualitative research paradigm. The processes for selecting the three case study schools of the study will be outlined and the limitations of case study design will be examined. Finally, the data gathering methods adopted for the research will be explained and justified and consideration will be given to any ethical considerations.

Research methodology

Early social science methodologies adopted a positivist approach. This developed from the traditions of empiricist research characterised by 'scientific' notions that observable phenomena could be reduced to discrete items to be measured and tested using quantifiable data. Although attacks on the use of a quantitative research methodology can be traced back to the second half of the nineteenth century (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000), positivism flourished in educational research from the early 1930s. However, such methodological certitude gave way to a period of rising disquiet in the 1930s to late 1950s (de Landshere, 1997). This related to questions around the atomistic nature of such research and a questioning of its knowledge claims, during a period of economic crisis and war. It was at this time that questions of social disparities and

disadvantage informed the rise of humanistic socialism. However, it was not until the 1960s that the debate hardened with humanistic theorists challenging the ontological and epistemological positions of positivism which had until then largely formed the basis of what it meant to do research (de Landshere, 1997).

The challenges to the positivist paradigm questioned the reductive and mechanistic nature of such research. Moreover, positivism's failure to include notions such as choice and intention, linked to the central significance of the agency of participants in research contexts (Cohen et al., 2000), led to suggestions that positivism lacked efficacy in its understanding of human behaviour. Interpretivists argued that strict empiricist definitions did not accommodate the "multi-faceted aspects of human behaviour and all its environment-bound subtle nuances" (de Landshere, 1997, p. 9). The humanistic movement which emerged, drew on a multi-disciplinary approach (Keeves, 1997), with research methods derived from a variety of fields including anthropology, history, sociology and philosophy. There was a new focus on giving centrality to interpretation in order to understand complex interrelationships (Stake, 1995).

The ascent of practitioner research during the 1980s and 1990s and beyond has seen a paradigm shift which acknowledges the fluidity and complexity of the social transactions a researcher is seeking to describe (Pring, 2000). This has seen a softening of divisions, with most recognising that there are strengths and weaknesses in both the quantitative and qualitative approaches which are best seen as complementary (Keeves, 1997; Pring, 2000). This has led to the development of a pragmatic alternative to the traditional approaches. A holistic view is sought (Keeves, 1997) where there is no one right approach to doing research. Instead, the researcher is cognisant during the research process that each subsequent methodology has its strengths and weaknesses and with this understanding, selects the most appropriate one for a particular purpose and context (Johnson & Onweugbuzie, 2004). A pragmatic approach begins with the research questions and hence research methods are chosen which are most likely to provide useful data for each unique context.

The positivist stance positions the researcher outside of the problem where the context is nullified (Stake, 1995). Neutrality and the distance between the researcher and the researched are central tenets. The research process is deductive and consists of theory testing where findings can be generalised and applied to different contexts (Davidson & Tolich, 2003). Contrary to this, interpretivists stand within the problem, and argue that knowledge or meaning making is actively constructed by participants in the situations where they live and work (Creswell, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Nevertheless, this does not mean that interpretivists take an interventionist role and that their observations are untruthful, in as much as these observations should represent an accurate record of what would have occurred had the researchers not been there (Cohen et al., 2000; Stake, 1995). The research process is inductive and the interpretive process ongoing, which in turn provides stimulation for further reflection along with the generation of theory (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2000; Davidson & Tolich, 2003; Stake, 1995). Such knowledge is "culturally and historically contingent" (Howe, 1997, p. 14).

Howe's (1997) analysis defines the new debate within educational research as belonging to two groups within the interpretivist paradigm: the post-modernists and the transformationists, the latter sometimes referred to as critical theorists (Cohen, et al., 2000). Post-modernists hold to notions that the central philosophy drives them to deconstruct or dismantle unjust and undemocratic cultural narratives, structures and practices. Taken to its logical conclusion, deconstruction leads to a philosophy with no knowledge claims whatsoever and is critiqued for being "radically relativistic, hyperskeptical, and nihilistic" (Howe, 1997, p. 14). However this is countered by the human need to find meaning in our experiences and social interactions (Davidson & Tolich, 2003). Belonging to the other group of interpretivists are the transformationists, who in their quest for emancipatory solutions have been perceived as lacking objectivity (Cohen et al., 2000) and being overconfident and paternalistic (Howe, 1997). However, as Howe (1997) suggests the differences between the two groups have been overstated because an interpretative paradigm requires both deconstruction and transformation. The dual process of deconstructing or critiquing and constructing or theorising, relates to the researcher's purpose of identifying and critiquing social structures. This takes the

researcher beyond the quantitative cause and effect model, so rather than seeking the cause of an action, the researcher is questioning the intentions of the agents working within a particular context (Bryman, 2004). In each case, the context is bounded by systems of assumptions and norms which must be uncovered and analysed if the reasons for that practice are to be understood (Pring, 2000). In this way, the strength of an interpretivist model can be seen as emerging from its critical approach where the generation of theory raises possibilities for the transformation of social structures (Howe, 1997).

An important aspect of this research is to understand how faculty heads' perceptions of their role within faculty structures influence their leadership practices. My interest in this topic derives from my experiences in such a role and an interest in examining the espoused practice and associated social processes of these people. I was also interested to know whether the tensions and dilemmas of the role are experienced by others working in similar contexts. Although this research is about the experiences of the participants in the three case study schools, and not about my own experience, the process of reflection about a research problem emerges from my role as both faculty head and researcher. This may then be seen as a part of a process of "social self-understanding" (Husén, 1997, p. 17). So the researcher cannot free themselves entirely from the wider educational and social contexts and their values, or their own positions and convictions. However, researchers, by seeking to make their own positions clear, and opening up the selected research paradigms and processes to the reader's scrutiny, are likely to arrive at more transparency in their descriptions and hence more valid conclusions (Bryman, 2004; Husén, 1997).

An appropriate research methodology to capture the experiences of those in workplaces with the potential for conflicts, dilemmas and difficulties would need to accommodate the complex realities and messiness of such situations. Rather than reducing the problem to a discrete aspect within a cause and effect model, a research paradigm is required which examines the problem in a holistic way where the parts of the whole are perceived to be interrelated and inseparable. Furthermore, unanticipated as well as

anticipated relationships in the phenomena can be accommodated and these can be used to inform the research process (Stake, 1995).

The focus for this research is on "trying to understand human beings in their entirety and in their proper context" (Husén, 1997) within the qualitative research tradition. A qualitative research approach has been chosen because the emphasis of this research is on understanding individuals' interpretations of their social realities. A qualitative approach allows the tensions and complexities of these social worlds to emerge (Bryman, 2004). Moreover, I have used the interpretivist processes of deconstruction and construction in order to understand the ways the use of power within organisational structures impacts on those who enact their roles within these structures. The research process is inductive and the interpretive process ongoing, which in turn provides stimulation for further reflection along with the generation of theory (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2000; Stake, 1995).

Case Study Design and Data Analysis

A comparative research design using a multiple case study was used as it suited the purpose of the research in a number of ways. Case study design is appropriate when studying complex social and organisational phenomena within a real life contemporary context (Yin, 2003). It also enables the researcher to focus on an organisational context which is unique and which can be viewed as a complete entity, as a dynamic system (Cohen et al., 2000), where the boundary between the phenomena studied and the context are not evident (Yin, 2003). However, clear boundaries can be drawn around each case or 'unit of analysis' which have been defined with close reference to particular characteristics (Yin, 2003). As case study design lends itself to explanation, it is most appropriate for projects which ask "how" and "why" type questions and allows researchers to examine operational links traced over a period of time (Yin, 2003).

Case studies also allow for close examination of the roles and functions of participants within historical and social contexts. So the generation of theory from data gathered at a local school or organisational level needs to be contextualised within a wider socio-

political environment because this may have impacted on the roles and management systems at the local level (Cohen et al., 2000). Therefore, government reforms and the restructuring of education may be seen as particularly pertinent where this involves devolution of management authority to the local site as discussed in Chapter Two.

The use of more than one site in case study research has become more prevalent, and in the study of organisations has emerged as a separate research design in its own right (Bryman, 2004). The main argument, Bryman suggests, for using this design, is that the comparisons which are formed from researching more than one case, can be helpful in building concepts associated with emerging theory. Features of commonality and features of differentiation may be observed. Moreover, in multi-site case studies the validity of the findings is strengthened (Keeves, 1997).

Selecting the case study schools

I sought involvement from three Auckland secondary schools using purposive sampling from the wider Auckland secondary school population (up to a 30 km radius from Unitec in Mt Albert). A multiple case study design was selected as this would enable the building of concepts where features of commonality and differentiation may be observed and compared across the chosen cases. The gathering of data from more than one site is one of the strengths of case study research and was chosen because it allowed for the strengthening and corroboration of evidence across multiple sources. However, given the time-frame of the research and the qualitative data research methods, I limited the case-study selection to three schools. The participating schools needed to represent examples of schools using a typical faculty organisation, each containing an extra tier within their curriculum middle management structure. Another feature of these schools was that curriculum leaders comprised two groups, whereby faculty heads were positioned as line managers for HoDs, within the two-tier structure.

Using information from public documents including Education Review Office reports and school web-sites, twelve schools using a faculty based system were identified within the defined location. These were mainly large schools of over 1000 students, though

three of the schools had fewer students than that. This list excluded my usual place of work so as to minimise conflicts of role and obligation which may compromise the research (Davidson & Tolich, 2003). Letters of invitation were sent to the principals of these twelve schools inviting them to participate. Five principals responded to signal their support for the research to take place in their school. Of these five schools, one school was not included because their school's organisational structure was not close enough to a faculty model. Another of the five schools initially signalling interest later withdrew, following a change of personnel in the senior management team.

Limitations of case study design

A limitation of case study design is that generalisations cannot be developed from the findings as such studies are circumscribed by the context of that particular case (Cohen et al., 2000). However, as Stake (1995) argues, the utility of case study design lies in its emphasis on the uniqueness of the particular case, not generalisation, along with the potential for increased depth and layered description which has been gathered from a variety of evidence including systematic interviewing (Yin, 2003). Moreover, although the design is limited by its focus on a single or a few cases and as such its findings are not generalisable, the findings are generalisable to a theoretical position (Yin, 2003). Furthermore, the findings from one situation may be recognised by practitioners working in similar contexts as illuminative of their own practice (Pring, 2000). Although generalisability is not possible, external validity can be enhanced by ensuring that the data gathered are sufficiently rich so that readers can determine whether transferability is possible. This depends on the manner in which the initial descriptions of the case are outlined as they must be sufficiently clear and detailed if there can be any applicability to other contexts (Cohen et al., 2000).

The research phases

This central interest of this study lies in constructing accounts of the experiences of faculty heads and their perceptions of the complexities of middle-management. However as I wished to examine the potential conflicts of this role in relation to its positioning

within the middle tier of a management structure, I interviewed faculty heads and also collected data to reveal the perceptions of those above faculty heads in the hierarchy, namely the principals.

The practical considerations, of both needing to complete the research within a tight time-frame and of not wanting to place an unnecessary burden on people in schools, meant the choice was made to limit the number of interviewees in each school to the principal and two faculty heads. The data collection method of semi-structured interviews allowed for the triangulation of data across the principal and faculty head participants (Denzin, 1997). My choice of electing to interview principals, rather than other members of the senior management team, was made on the basis that research has shown that principals play an important role in the process of school restructuring (Hannay, Erb & Ross, 2001). They also play a key role in shaping the cultures which develop around those structures. Thus, principals' interpretations may be seen as influencing the way the roles within a faculty management structure are established and interpreted.

During phase one of the research, principals were interviewed in order to gather data relating to the organisational structures of each particular site. The early closed questions of the interview schedule sought factual information with the latter open-ended questions seeking information relating to the principal's perceptions of organisational structure, including middle managers' roles. The principals' interviews took place between the end of June and beginning of August 2006. The exploratory research stage served to provide an organisational context for each school and helped with the formulation of an initial conceptual framework (Wellington, 2000). This analysis also informed the refinement of the prompts and probes for the phase two interview questions. The second phase used semi-structured interviews to gather data related to the experiences of two faculty heads working within each faculty structure and these took place during the end of August and the beginning of September 2006.

The use of data collection methods across different phases of the fieldwork, the one to gain data relating to structures, the other to gain data on the experiences of working within these structures, has been referred to as "structural triangulation" (Fielding & Fielding, 1986, p. 34, in Denzin, 1997, p. 319). This approach provided a way of linking data which had been gathered across the phases of the research to the problem. In this way the internal validity of the research was strengthened. The principals' interviews helped me to contextualise the issues and problems particular to each site. Some of these, I had not originally considered and this data facilitated the on-going reinterpretation and reshaping of the problem (Husén, 1997).

Research Methods

Semi-structured interviews

Each of the three principals and six faculty heads were interviewed and the length of these interviews ranged between twenty-five to fifty minutes each. The choice of a semi-structured interview as a key method in this design, provided a framework with some flexibility so that the participants were able to define their own experiences (Cohen et al., 2000). I was interested in the interviewees' points-of-view and their insights and concerns. This included any tensions and difficulties they had experienced in the faculty head role. Thus, the choice of a semi-structured interview would allow for a range of divergent and detailed responses to emerge in order to best represent the expectations, experiences, and perceptions of participants. However, as a multiple-case study design was used across three different schools, some interview structure was needed. This allowed for cross-case comparisons to be made (Bryman, 2004).

The notion of 'fitness for purpose' has been considered here. During the first phase, principals were interviewed in order to gather data relating to the organisational structures of each particular site, with the early closed questions of the interview schedule seeking factual information and the later open-ended questions seeking information relating to their perceptions of the organisational structure, including faculty heads' roles within the faculty structure.

As the purpose in interviewing faculty heads was to gather rich data about participants' perceptions of their roles within the organisational context, the features of these interviews included open-ended questions within an open interview schedule. Specific questions along with issues to be discussed and prompts and probes for each topic, issue and question were devised and written down. However, participants were still able to explore matters which may not have been considered in the pre-devised interview schedule, with prompts given which may lead beyond the written questions (Cohen et al., 2000). Interviews were recorded and analysed using a coding system devised early in the process (Bryman, 2004), and this facilitated the initial management and understanding of data.

If there had been more faculty head volunteers than were needed, the aim was to develop a sampling frame to accommodate participants who in the first instance represented a spread across faculty types and subject composition. As outlined in Chapter One, some faculty heads have responsibility for faculties made up of several departments of disparate subjects which have traditionally not been linked, as has occurred within faculties such as the Arts. Other faculty heads were sought to represent faculties comprising more traditional groupings such as Mathematics and Science. A representation across gender and experience was also sought. The reason for choosing from these categories was that it was possible that patterns may have emerged within or across these groupings. This was detailed in the letter of invitation. Participation in the study was voluntary, and following the letter of invitation to faculty heads to participate, they were asked to indicate a willingness to be involved. Although I had designed a process to allow for purposive sampling, in the event it was not necessary as the faculty head participants were self-selecting, with only two participants volunteering in each school. Nevertheless, this did provide some variety of spread across gender, with two males and four females volunteering and some representative variety of faculty composition as will be detailed in Chapter Five.

Analysis of interview data

In the interests of data management, analysis occurred in tandem with data collection so that the process was recursive and dynamic (Bryman, 2004; Merriam, 1998). Following the interview transcription, each was read through a number of times to gain a sense of the interview as a whole. Following the principals' interviews during the first phase of the research, an initial list of common sub-themes emerged. The relationships and links between these allowed for them to be grouped and re-grouped within broader categories. To facilitate ease of analysis a series of codes was attached. In this way, a constant comparative method of data analysis was utilised. Concepts were reviewed and refined across the data with the refinement of early open coding leading to more abstract theoretical concepts and categories (Bryman, 2004; Merriam, 1998). This was a fluid process which required frequent revision. This coding system enabled the data from the original transcripts to be cut and pasted and grouped under headings within the broad emerging themes.

Following the first phase of the data collection and the application of the outlined coding process an initial draft of the findings representing the data from the principals' interviews was produced. However, the interpretation of the data and generation of theoretical ideas required constant examination and re-examination of the data across the faculty head and principal participants, along with on-going analysis across the thematic categories which had been developed. This was a particularly important principle which was applied following the second phase of the research, once the faculty heads' interviews had been conducted and transcribed. At this stage, while the initial themes and codes from the principals' interviews provided a framework, it also meant that relevant data from the faculty heads needed to be included within the chapter outlining the organisational contexts. Furthermore, while there was some thematic convergence across the two phases, the data determined that additional themes and codes were required once the faculty heads had been interviewed during phase two. This allowed for the data relating to the faculty heads' leadership practices to be represented in a manner which extended beyond the phase one formal organisational thematic framework as initially defined by the organisational roles, processes and structures.

Validity and Reliability

The approach to ensuring validity in qualitative research differs from that of quantitative design in that validity may be addressed though the depth and scope of the data, the use of triangulation and the objectivity of the researcher (Cohen et al., 2000). The application of 'content validity' is pertinent here as this refers to the way in which the research covers and fairly represents the wider issue being investigated (Cohen et al., 2000). The interview questions were piloted in order to highlight any difficulties with ambiguous wording, type of questions and length (Cohen et al., 2000; Hinds, 2000). This process was used to enhance reliability (Cohen et al., 2000). It was important that the interview questions clearly related to the research questions and literature in order that they fairly represented the wider issue under investigation. To allow the respondents to highlight areas of concern to them most of the questions were open-ended, with prompts attached for the follow-up of responses where necessary. The questions were ranged sequentially, with initial fact-seeking questions followed by open-ended questions critical to the study. This led to the final focus on the key questions and summary of essential points.

It was also important that there was opportunity for peer-checking and that the responses from the earlier phase of the research were used to inform the later stages. The interviews were taped and transcribed. Participants were provided with the opportunity to check the typed transcripts for accuracy and to return them to me with any necessary revisions or amendments. This process was followed to enhance the reliability or dependability of the research in that it can then be surmised that over time, similar results would be achieved (Cohen et al., 2000). One of the principals returned a transcript with an additional organisational detail he wished to have included, and one of the faculty heads returned their transcript with an amendment to ensure anonymity.

Ethical Considerations

The primacy of ethical conduct has driven the design and processes of the research. Ethical approval for the project was obtained from the Unitec Research Ethics' Committee. An important first step in the research process was to gain access (Cohen et

al., 2000). This involved gaining formal written consent to conduct the research from each of the principals of schools. The principles of informed consent, defined by Cohen et al. applied. This meant all prospective participants were given full information about the study and the adult participants freely consented to be involved. In each case formal written consent was obtained; the consent was freely given without coercion once participants were informed of the project. The principle of anonymity was also applied to the organisations and all individual participants (Cohen et al.). Any personal identifying information was kept separate from the interview material and the schools and respondents were identified using pseudonyms.

As a researcher conducting research in Aotearoa, New Zealand, I was aware that I needed to be aware of the ongoing effects of colonisation. Research agendas defined by 'western' concerns and practices have often merely reinforced the status quo and have been of little benefit to Maori (Bishop & Glynn, 1999). While the focus of this research was not on any iwi or group, it does focus on the organisational structures in schools and raises some questions for further research about the way Te Reo Maori is positioned both within curriculum documents and management structures.

Research Limitations

The literature suggests that restructuring along faculty lines has also impacted on HoDs in that they are now dependent on heads of faculty to represent their needs within a more highly defined hierarchical structure. To this end, I had intended to conduct a focus group of between five to eight participants in each of the case study schools during the second phase of the research. This would have enabled heads of department to respond to questions about the impact of a faculty structure on their roles, and to record their perceptions relating to the nature and extent of collaborative practices within the faculty. A letter of invitation was sent to HoDs in each school, but as I had difficulty attracting sufficient participants, this method of data collection had to be abandoned. Thus, the impact of a faculty structure on a wider group of middle managers remains an area for future investigation.

It is possible that my own experiences in the role of faculty head in a large secondary school may have coloured my perceptions and interpretation of the data. My own bias as a researcher is unavoidable, but an aspect I have sought to minimise. My aim has been to reduce any bias in my approach by careful framing of the interview questions, allowing the questions of the interview schedule to guide the interview process, and by adopting a methodical approach to coding and data analysis. I also sought to strengthen the validity of the findings by representing the perceptions of principals and faculty heads transparently. Thus extensive interview material has been included in the findings and analysis chapters of four and five, so that as far as possible the participants in each of the schools speak for themselves.

Conclusion

Case study research is a valuable method for gathering rich and detailed descriptions of the perceptions of those who work in particular contexts. The research proposed focuses closely on the roles, responsibilities and work of faculty heads in organisations with re-configured management structures and aims to explain the impact of restructuring on these middle managers. However before the faculty heads can tell their stories the relevant findings from the principals' and faculty heads' interviews will be used to outline and analyse the organisational contexts of the case study schools and this is the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR – FINDINGS AND DATA ANALYSIS

FRAMING THE ROLE WITHIN THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXTS

Introduction

The following two chapters present findings from the interviews with the three principals and six faculty heads. This chapter will focus on understanding the schools' organisational structures. Chapter Five will then represent and analyse the experiences of faculty heads' experiences of working within these structures. The early questions of the principals' interview schedule (Appendix A) asked participants to describe the faculty organisational structure and faculty implementation processes in their schools. These data were used to develop an organisational profile and to describe and understand the reasons for the development of faculty structures. This chapter also includes findings from the latter open-ended questions of the principals' interview schedule. These questions sought information relating to principals' perceptions of the faculty heads' roles within the organisational structures. Where data from the faculty heads' interviews (Appendix B) related to the organisational framework and faculty implementation processes, these have also been included in this chapter.

Interview analysis

Following the interviews with the principals, the interviews were transcribed. The interviews were then read through a number of times to gain some initial impressions and comparisons within and across each of the interviews (Bryman, 2004). Then through a process of open coding, eighteen initial concepts emerged from within the data. A process of selective or focused coding followed, where the codes were mapped and connections made within and across the categories. Some codes were combined to form new codes. This was a fluid process which required constant revision (Bryman, 2004). Key phrases from the interview transcripts were cut and pasted and sorted within these categories using a word-processing programme. Five general categories emerged from this process and these categories are represented by the main sub-headings of this chapter. The first category represents the schools' organisational structures followed by

the second category where a decision-making problem faced by each of the schools is outlined. The way the co-ordination of work is managed forms the third category. The fourth category represents the process of positioning the faculty head leadership role in each of the schools. Finally, in the fifth category the data are represented to show how the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) has been used as an organisational model.

The schools and organisational structures

The case study schools were large urban co-educational secondary schools in the greater Auckland area, with student rolls ranging from 1800 to 2500. The school names used here are pseudonyms.

Mahy College

A faculty structure has been in place for over ten years at Mahy College. As the principal was on leave at the time this research was undertaken, the acting principal was interviewed. Hereinafter, he is identified in this thesis as the principal. In his role as assistant principal in charge of curriculum in the mid 1990s, he was given the mandate by the senior management team to restructure. This was concurrent with the release of the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993). Thus, faculties largely mirrored the "essential learning areas" outlined in the framework with the addition of a Business Faculty, given that the popularity of business subjects made it impractical for them to sit within another faculty. The principal described the restructuring process as challenging and time-consuming. Restructuring was also linked to the school adopting the bulk-funding model of financial management. This gave the flexibility to assign additional salary increments to positions advertised as Head of Faculty (HoF).

Mahy's principal emphasised the importance of strategic direction. He stressed that faculty heads' involvement in strategic management on the Board of Studies (BoS) decision-making group was central to their role. He positioned the faculty head group as:

> *Responsible for helping the school management team on strategic decision-making in the school to do with curriculum.* (Principal, Mahy)

The faculty management structure had evolved since its inception to create a second Board of Studies. From the principal's perspective, decision-making processes had become weighed down by the external accountability demands of the NCEA. Thus, a second decision-making body had been established to deal with the "day-to-day nuts and bolts stuff," or administrative matters considered by the principal to be of less importance. This freed faculty heads to concentrate on policy and planning:

> *The second change that we've just implemented this year is we've actually created another Board of Studies. It's a Board of Studies Admin. Group, and this was to separate out the administration that the Faculty Heads have to deal with from strategic thinking.* (Principal, Mahy)

This process has broadened the number of decision-making groups and widened the faculty representation on those groups, as seen in Figures 4.1 and 4.2.
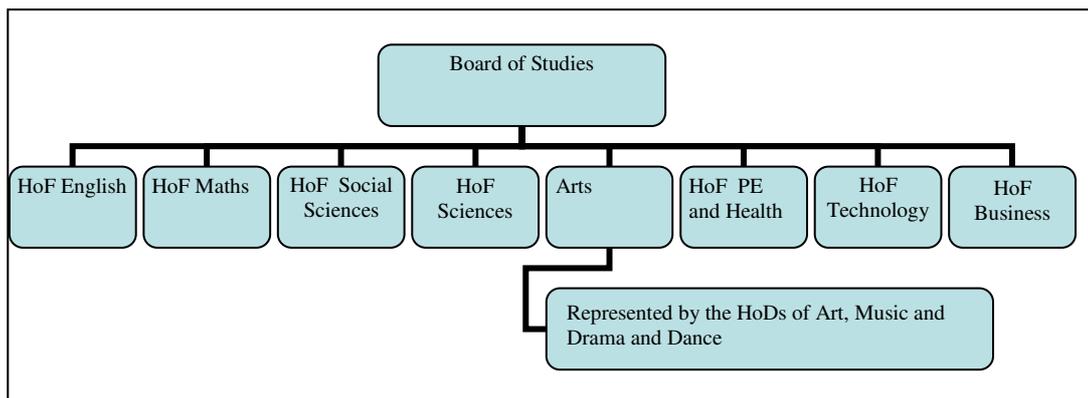

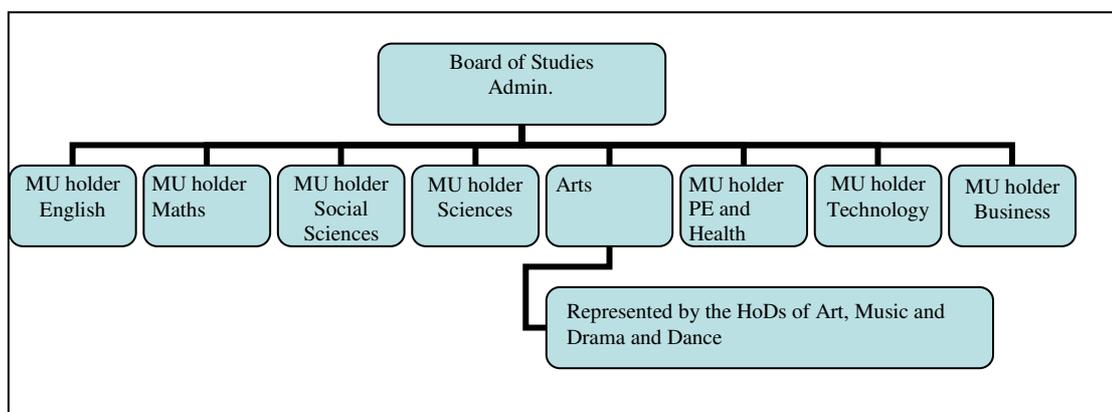Figure 4.1 Mahy College, Board of Studies

Figure 4.2 Mahy College, Board of Studies: Administration

The principal stated that the faculty structure had been a successful innovation. It was a way of organising and managing the curriculum in a large school which also had a whanau or mixed-year level pastoral care structure running parallel to the faculty structure. According to the principal, in a school of this size, co-ordination of work across the curriculum and pastoral aspects required a "complex administrative structure" where you had to have "really tight systems and meetings and processes and procedures, otherwise you end up with chaos".

Baxter College

The principal has been at the College for the past three years and he perceived restructuring to be part of re-culturing the school. Opening up boundaries across traditional subject department divisions to break down "balkanised" structures (Hargreaves, 1994) was perceived as a vital aspect of the school's plan for improvement.

> *It's all about where you're at isn't it? I'm not sure I would have necessarily set up a faculty structure if I'd gone somewhere else. Here certainly there was a balkanised focus. There was not a lot of collaboration in that area in terms of curriculum. Good teachers, I mean lots of really good teachers but working in a pretty isolated way* [*within departments*]. (Principal, Baxter)

For Baxter's principal, the key to school improvement involved challenging accepted ways of working. Although the school had strong "competent, professional" teachers, he perceived there was some complacency amongst staff in relation to the schools' direction. Thus, the faculty structure was linked to the change process. More authority was invested in faculty heads to establish a "tight leadership process" where faculty heads were positioned closer to the senior management team.

The restructuring process also required the establishment of a curriculum decision-making body known as the Curriculum and Assessment Board (CAB) where faculty heads met regularly to represent their faculties. Faculty heads were also charged with leading discussion within their faculties to build a philosophy of teaching and learning.

The philosophy of co-construction which underpinned practice in the school had been developed and included in the school's formal documentation, including its learning charter:

> *The Learning Charter is based on the concept of co-constructivism. And what we're saying about it if you like…constructivism we see as a process where you build bridges between the student and the teacher.* (Principal, Baxter)

There was also the expectation that evidence of these values should be modelled in every interaction and at every level of the school.

The faculty organisation at Baxter was underpinned by the seven "essential learning areas" of the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) as seen in Figure 4.3. There was one exception. The curriculum learning area of Language and Languages which includes Te Reo Maori, English, International Languages and English as a Second Language (ESOL) has been represented by three organisational units. This is shown by the dotted line in Figure 4.3.
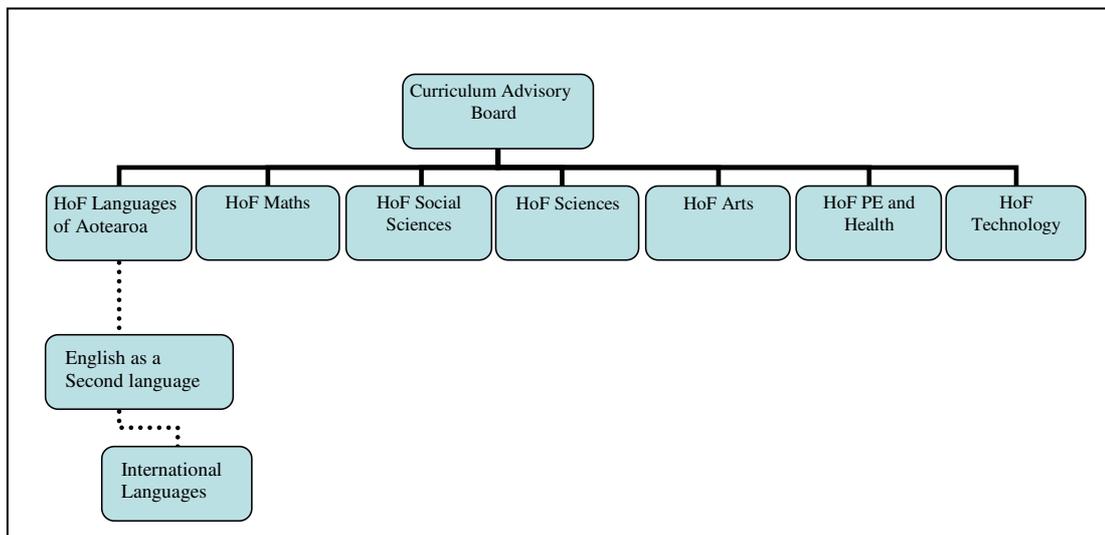

Figure 4.3 Baxter College: the Curriculum Advisory Board showing faculties and other represented groups

'Languages of Aotearoa' included both the English and Maori departments, which together were seen by the principal as a faculty. However, the ESOL and International

Languages departments, although represented on the curriculum advisory board, were seen to be sitting alongside the formal faculty structure.

In relation to whether the faculty structure had been successful, the principal stated that given the short time-frame since its implementation, "the jury's still out" but that "I don't think anybody would want to go back". Furthermore, faculty organisation now had a physical presence in the school. Part of the support for the process of establishing new ways of working by bringing departments together, involved remodelling workspaces. The principal was aware that there would be a few teachers in faculties who in struggling to make the structure work would want to dismantle it. Furthermore, it would be difficult to draw conclusions as to whether the faculty structure had "had any impact on what happens in classrooms." He also stated the faculty structure was also a pragmatic response to managing and co-ordinating work in a large school.

Sargeson College

The principal was appointed to Sargeson College from outside the school and had been in the role for two-and-a-half years but was not part of the faculty restructuring process. He was not certain of implementation process, nor of the length of time that the faculty structure had been in place, but thought it was about eighteen months prior to his arrival. The faculty structure was not something he would change. He linked its implementation to school size, stating that curriculum management worked better at Sargeson than it had done in his previous school of a similar size which did not have a faculty structure.

> *I haven't made any changes to its structure since I've been here and I haven't been tempted to either really…I mean I haven't pondered whether I ought to or not.* (Principal, Sargeson)

While it was a structure he had inherited, the principal noted that involving fewer people in the decision-making process was linked to driving changes and implementing curriculum innovation.

Leadership activity was seen as important by Sargeson's principal and entailed faculty heads keeping up with national curriculum developments, regional subject association membership and marking or moderating external examinations. However, the absolute priority for this principal was that the subject department was resourced and functioning well and that the faculty head was reflecting on student performance. Particular emphasis was placed on the analysis and use of data across the subject departments within a faculty. This was linked to the importance of ensuring a central focus on teaching and learning and that programmes were evidence-based. Thus, faculty heads will have an on-going role in deciding:

> *What sort of data we need to be collecting from junior students, new entrants year 8s, year 9s, what sort of data we should be using to show value-added in the junior school, how we should be sharing data more effectively.* (Principal, Sargeson)

Faculties largely mirrored the seven "essential learning areas" as shown in Figure 4.4, but again English has been separated from International Languages.
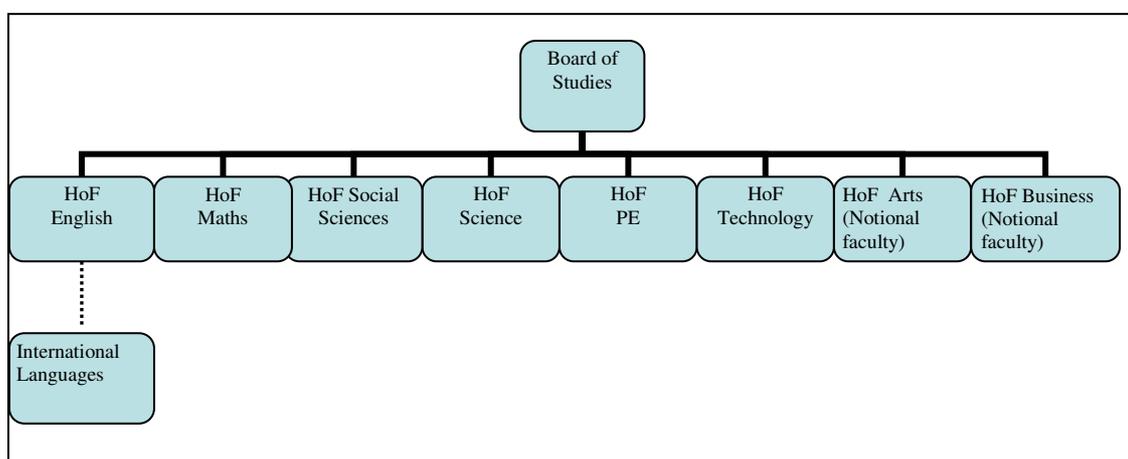

Figure 4.4 Sargeson College faculties showing the notional Arts and Business faculties

The Arts subjects are grouped together with a rotating Faculty Head. Business, Accounting and Economics form another grouping not formally recognised as a faculty

and which has a notional faculty head. The curriculum decision-making body is known as the Board of Studies (BoS) and meets weekly.

The decision-making problem

Decision-making processes

As an organisation increases in size there is often a concomitant shift towards more bureaucratic forms of management (Mintzberg, 1989). This was certainly the case in this study. School size had meant management systems had become less efficient and the principals were unanimous in citing the difficulties of curriculum decision making in a large school. Thus, the principals perceived that there was an inevitable link to the need for hierarchical structures and extra layers of management. For the schools of this study, the representative decision-making group of all heads of departments used to include up to twenty-eight people. This process has been described by Earley and Fletcher-Campbell (1989) as difficult, cumbersome, and unwieldy. Disbanding these large groups and establishing a faculty structure was seen as way of solving this decision-making problem. One of the principals described it this way:

> *We had head of department meetings [where] twenty-eight people used to turn up and it was really difficult and when I arrived, when I did the review, one of the things the teachers were saying was give this head of department meeting some sort of structure because it's too difficult, it's too big, there are too many people, it's very hard to get anything concrete coming out of it.* (Principal, Baxter)

This sentiment was supported by the three faculty heads who had had prior experience as heads of departments. One stated that the heads of departments meetings used to be:

> *Cumbersome, because (…) you've got a big group meeting and not the best of situations to try and progress with, you know issues that might have arisen. Yes, so I think this Board of Studies and this other tiered structure was introduced to improve that, and it did, in a major way.* (Faculty Head, Sargeson)

Bush and Middlewood (2005) have stated that democratic decision-making can be challenging in a large forum where it becomes more difficult for everyone to contribute meaningfully. Sargeson's principal perceived that it was also problematic when people

brought their own concerns to the table rather than those given the weight of organisational importance:

> *It was unwieldy - it had a lot of people sitting around the room and they tended to dart off into other areas of concern to them that were outside curriculum innovations.* (Principal, Sargeson)

The democratic process was often thwarted by the difficulty of decision-making within the heads of departments' forum, such that it reverted to the principals' authority to make the decision:

> *We had our heads of departments meetings which were a lot of people involved and made decision making quite difficult sometimes and often decisions were left in limbo or handed back to the principal to make.* (Faculty Head, Baxter)

Gronn (2003) has linked the intensification of principals' roles and the consequent need to distribute leadership to the wider policy environment. Here Mahy's principal has linked changing contexts and an expanding school roll to intensification. Hence the need to find more efficient mechanisms for decision making:

> *The school just exploded in size and we had to have … there had to be a different way to actually make decisions; you know the days of the principal sitting in on every meeting of his heads or his house leaders or whatever was…it's just totally impossible.* (Principal, Mahy)

For all of the principals the change impetus for setting curriculum direction and managing its implementation across the school was central to the establishment of the curriculum decision-making boards. Mahy's principal spoke of the importance of setting strategic direction and gave an example of the decision-making role of faculty heads in the move towards the Cambridge examination system. Sargeson's principal linked thinking skills and formative assessment developments to the formation of the faculty structure. For Baxter's principal it was about "balkanised" work practices and a move towards a co-constructivist learning environment. The faculty structure, then, became a mechanism for driving change in the school with faculty heads playing a pivotal role in managing that change:

It's about curriculum and assessment and it's about driving the changes in the school with that, so we set up structures whereby I mean you've got the cycle of meetings where CAB meets then the curriculum unit holders and then the faculties as a whole can meet. (Principal, Baxter)

Faculty heads deputised on behalf of senior management, and executed delegated tasks, which in the above instances related to their roles as change agents. In order to do this they assumed a mantel of additional authority which was reinforced by giving preference to formal systems and a vertical line of communication.

Developing faculty heads' status as middle managers

The solution to ineffective decision making had been to introduce an extra tier or line of authority between the senior management team and heads of subject departments. Within this hierarchical line management model, authority was concentrated within a group of middle managers who had been designated positional authority to manage other managers (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989; Mintzberg, 1989). Faculty heads were charged with:

The responsibility for making sure that [s]he consults (…) by bring[ing] their issues up through and then take[ing] it down as well, so again line management stuff, but for me particularly in a big school, I can't think of any other way of doing it. (Principal, Baxter)

This emphasis on line management was confirmed by a faculty head at Baxter, who noted we "just did our own thing as heads of department" but restructuring has meant that the greater accountability demands reflect the positioning of the role:

So it was a very different sort of structure from what it is now and I think some people have quite a bit of difficulty adjusting to the fact that we now have to report to senior managers once a week because there was nothing. There was no reporting to senior managers or anything as heads of departments and now we meet regularly with our senior manager and it's a much clearer line of responsibility. (Faculty Head, Baxter)

Principals perceived that faculty heads had a more significant contribution to make in terms of curriculum direction than other heads of department. One of the principals described the faculty heads as a "grunty group" and put it this way:

It works much better here, than in my experience in a similar sized school elsewhere which doesn't have it and where energies are dissipated over just too many people, i.e. all the HoDs, so I think having a more focused high-powered group and giving them, empowering them, is a better way to go for sure. (Principal, Sargeson)

The titles of the faculty leader's curriculum decision-making bodies also reflected the elevated status. The principals attended the meetings and these groups were identified as a 'Board:' either as a Board of Studies or a Curriculum and Assessment Board. In one of the schools, creating status related to the frequency of scheduled meetings:

They meet every Thursday, so they meet more frequently than any other group in the school actually, apart from the SMT. (Principal, Sargeson)

Topics discussed at these meetings and mentioned by faculty head participants had a curriculum focus ranging from developing curriculum policies, ICT development, timetabling, and student course selection. The forum was also seen by faculty heads as a way of finding out what was going on in other areas, especially where wider school issues might impinge on the curriculum. One faculty head referred to discussions around ICT implementation as centring on "how best we could use that within my department and throughout the school." Another faculty head suggested it was "a place where ideas can come from, or be promulgated," another stating that it was a "really important link through to the senior management team." Strategic management was emphasised by one of the principals as being an important function of the group. In explaining the role of faculty heads, two of the principals emphasised the importance of following protocols within a line management model. One of them put it this way:

This is not a real example, right, but you might have had the Head of Music who couldn't get around the fact they should consult the Faculty Head of Arts rather than the senior management person who was in charge of curriculum at the initial stage… but we've got around that now. (Principal, Mahy)

Gold (1998) suggests that faculty heads may be seen as "conduits" where they perform the administrative function of passing information from senior managers to department members and HoDs and back up again. Five of the faculty heads in this study have come

to view themselves as mediums or "conduits" and this means consulting with faculty members is a significant aspect of the role:

> *This school is very hierarchical in its arrangement, so everything feeds up, supposedly and it goes through channels. (…) So it works upward, and so the Board of Studies is kind of an advisory group. They ask…they have problems and they ask for our opinions, feedback and ideas. (…) I do think they listen and take on board a lot of what we say, so that's how I see the role, as kind of a conduit, more than advisory, but a conduit.* (Faculty Head, Mahy)

The use of the term conduit to describe the role was used by another faculty head who said:

> *I also see my role as making sure that things feed back from the department as well, especially to CAB if we have particular issues in our department. So that's… I sort of see myself, I guess, as sitting in the middle there as a conduit, in some ways.* (Faculty Head, Baxter)

Other faculty heads described the process as one which also linked to the metaphor of a conduit. One stated that information needs to "filter down" from senior management. Another stated:

> *I think it's much easier decision making, but you've got to make sure you feed back and you feed forward what is being said and what they say. And so you take back and usually they do ask us "What did your faculty say about it"?* (Faculty Head, Baxter)

The faculty head was entrusted with articulating the faculties' views rather than their own with the main focus on consulting and representing others within a democratic forum. Indeed, evidence of a push towards the democratic remains strong in two of the schools but there were no examples given at the third. For Mahy, representation on the key decision-making body has been widened from what it was in the early years to include some HoDs. Baxter's principal commented that he had fielded requests from a few staff members for issues to be discussed at open staff meetings with decisions made by ballot. The onus was on the faculty head having a broad understanding of the issues and concerns across all subject departments, so that the various interests were fairly represented in the curriculum decision-making process:

You're representing your faculty on that Board and you're the curriculum leaders of the school. And we'll go around each person and you need to know what your Geographers are doing, but also you've got to represent Media and History on that. (Faculty Head, Sargeson)

Codd (2005) has noted that in the current policy environment the ultimate decision-making authority lies with principals. Nevertheless, two of the principals perceived that robust debate had an important place in the faculty head forum, particularly in relation to curriculum development, but surprisingly this was not mentioned by any of the faculty heads. For Baxter's principal, debate was seen as a way of reaching consensus. For Mahy's principal, it was a way of generating ideas and problem solving and deciding on a strategic direction.

All the principals recognised that there had been problems with the faculty decision-making processes but stressed that faculty heads had a central role to play in consultation. In one school, the principal cited an example where the chain of communication had broken down where questions about the legitimacy of the decision were raised by HoDs:

One of the weaknesses that developed last year was that CAB was making decisions independently of the heads of department. It was never meant to be the case but they'd come to a meeting there'd be a discussion, a decision would be made and then the HoDs said "How did that come about? We weren't consulted, we didn't know about that. Where did that come from?" Mutter, mutter, mutter. And we lost it for a while because what happened it became an oligarchy of ten people making decisions for everybody. (Principal, Baxter)

In this instance the decision made by the faculty heads was one the principal did not agree with and begged the question whether the HoDs' concerns would have carried as much weight had this not been the case. The principals' perception was that faculty heads had not consulted widely enough. He reiterated the importance of working towards reaching consensus, despite the fact that this could mean a protracted process:

[They] will have to go to the curriculum unit holders and their departments and come back through again and inevitably you know you get people

objecting and people throwing in problems and so you know you might have to go through the cycle twice, three times, before you get some sort of consensus. (Principal, Baxter)

However, there was also a perception from two of the faculty heads in the study that faculty heads' contributions were constrained by a decision-making process within a hierarchical model. The perception was that meetings were directed by senior management who ultimately made the decision:

We do have we have opportunities there to say what we think and how we think things should be structured, but a lot of the time it is actually already directed to us and so we're not really contributing. I mean what we contribute is kind of considered, but then they make the overall decision, which is I suppose how it goes. (Faculty Head, Mahy)

Nevertheless, faculty heads perceived that they had a role to play in a time-consuming consultation process and that they have the support of principals in this process. Moreover, this process also required a degree of co-ordination across the subject departments in a faculty.

Managing the co-ordination of work

All of the principals stressed that in large schools, there was the need to include a wider range of formal mechanisms to manage the processes of decision making and co-ordinating work. Such mechanisms extended across all levels from the senior management team to support staff. These included opportunities for consulting staff including managed meetings where extensive minutes were taken, formal written reporting and formal reporting slots in meetings.

However, the usefulness of adjusting work practices through informal day-to-day contact and trusting individuals to undertake tasks were also emphasised by two of the principals. Mahy's principal saw faculty heads as autonomous professionals, whom he trusted to organise the work of their faculties. He stated that senior management would "not interfere with that at all." Similarly, the principal of Baxter College, while acknowledging the utility of the faculty organisational framework was careful to note the importance of the daily conversations between professionals. Information flows, the

provision of feedback loops and the mutual adjustment of work were also emphasised by Baxter's principal:

> *I don't know whether we've got enough feedback loops, but I think that providing 'overflow' is important. We don't know what we don't know. We don't know what we don't hear, that's the trouble.* (Principal, Baxter)

At Baxter and Mahy formal dedicated meetings were scheduled for faculty heads to meet with their MU holders. Faculty heads stressed the importance of these meetings. Up until last year Baxter College had dedicated meeting times which were lost because of timetabling constraints. However, the principal was keen to see these re-established. He saw the lack of dedicated meeting times and a consequent reliance on faculty heads to meet with MU holders as potentially leading to a break down in communication.

Similarly, both of the faculty heads interviewed at Baxter supported the return of dedicated weekly meeting slots with MUs following the Board of Studies meetings. These were seen as particularly important if the MUs in the department had no non-contact time in common. However, even where there had been the provision of a dedicated meeting time, this was recognised by one principal as inadequate when there was the need to meet with a number of groups within a faculty. Hence, a decision would need to be made by faculty heads with prioritisation given to the value and rotation of meetings. Even where there was a dedicated time to meet, finding the time to meet across all the various groups was seen as difficult. This was particularly so where a faculty head was responsible for a large number of different subject departments. One faculty head faced with a choice between having more time for whole faculty meetings with all teachers present, versus MU meetings, placed more value on the meetings with MU holders. Another faculty head, articulated the value of having regular meetings with MU holders with the emphasis on the subject department rather than the faculty:

> *In my department, which is English, I like to work collaboratively with my leadership team. So the meetings once a week are absolutely vital.* (Faculty Head, Baxter)

The enduring role of the subject department and HoD was also highlighted in the school where one faculty lacked cohesion. The faculty head had reverted to meeting with members of their departmental subject team rather than holding meetings with heads of department across the faculty.

The process of positioning the leadership role

The appointment process

Each of the principals recognised the sensitivities of a faculty restructuring process which entailed redefining roles and making appointments to newly created positions of increased status. At Mahy College, appointments were decided by senior management. However, they were constrained by the recognition that there were incumbents within an "essential learning area" who were already HoDs responsible for large departments who could not be over-looked for the new roles. Furthermore, additional salary and management units were to be allocated to faculty heads. The increases were seen as commensurate with faculty heads' wider responsibility for staff management, across a learning area:

> *I always say the head[s] of faculties run small schools. The Head of English has twenty-two teachers. The head of Maths is probably more and you know they have huge responsibilities in terms of leading their areas.*
> (Principal, Baxter)

Cardno (1990) suggests that collaborative decision making is both time consuming and energy intensive, but that involving staff in decisions which affect them leads to greater understanding of school goals. According to Mahy's principal, the decision to restructure came from the senior management team, whereas Baxter's principal noted the push to restructure arose from staff concerns. The time-frames also differed. At Baxter, restructuring was a gradual process so that as physical vacancies arose, positions were advertised as a HoF with an increase in salary management units. At Mahy the process occurred over a shorter period of time with the successful incumbents predetermined by senior management. The principal at Sargeson College was not able to give a timeline or a description of the restructuring process, as he was not at the school

when the shift to faculties was made. All the principals had the expectation that faculty heads appointed to leading these groups would shift their perspectives from a narrow subject leader role to that which had a wider perspective spanning across subject departments. In two of the schools, the configuration of subject departments within the faculty had been decided by the principal and senior management. In the third school there had been some negotiation about placement following faculty implementation.

A lack of participation during the implementation process has in some instances led to a mismatch between principals' and faculty heads' expectations. One faculty head stated that when faculty heads were appointed, the structure had been pre-determined and they didn't know what their role would involve. This faculty head also saw the placement of the subject Accounting within their faculty as a matter of convenience because the subject had traditionally been aligned with one of the other faculty subjects. However, it was perceived as sitting outside their curriculum area and expertise, and the value to teaching and learning was seen as tenuous:

> *Yes, they just sit there. Well Maths don't want them…. so and it sort of goes*
> *with Economics.* (Faculty Head, Baxter)

A similar experience was reported by the Maths faculty head at Sargeson who recounted that they were initially the passive recipients of the subject Accounting which had since been placed elsewhere because "it wasn't a serious attempt at sort of putting us together as a faculty." Some of the implications of subject department placement within faculties will be discussed in the next section.

The Curriculum Framework as an organisational model

The principals regarded the organisation of subjects within the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) as either central to, or underpinning, the development of a faculty management structure. Thus, each of the principals identified the "essential learning areas" of the national curriculum as providing a structure and a degree of rationality for an organisational model. There was a pragmatic emphasis in adopting the faculty model

as it was perceived as a better way of managing the decision-making process associated with effecting curriculum change in the school:

> *I think one of the reasons for establishing it was to try and get more coherence… a lot more coherent structure and a much more pragmatic structure to discuss those sorts of changes and work through, consult and work through.* (Principal, Sargeson)

However, the perception that the faculty model provided a rational framework varied, with the pragmatic emphasis of Baxter's principal emphasising the need to accept that "not everybody has to belong to a faculty [as] we don't think that works". At Sargeson, the principal had inherited the faculty system and questioned whether the current model had a complete rationality. Reasons which may have been clear in the past were less clear as time went on, and even less so when those who designed the system had left:

> *In the Business and the Economics and the Accounting area the head of, the major unit holder in that area is the notional Head of Faculty, although its not actually called a faculty, I think it probably should be actually, I'm not quite sure why it wasn't in the first place.* (Principal, Sargeson)

For one of the principals, reorganising using the "essential learning areas" of the curriculum had the effect of unsettling an embedded hierarchy of subjects. The newly appointed faculty heads would be given equal remuneration to reflect their equal status:

> *In the old curriculum you used to have English, Maths, Science and Social Studies were like an elite group and then there was the rest… but we said look we'll make them all the same, they're all going to be of equal importance in the system.* (Principal, Mahy)

However, two of the principals stressed the need for an over-arching philosophy which linked to the organisational structure. For one of these principals, structure alone was only a small part of a larger view which included organisational culture:

> *It's about alignment and the faculty structure is part of a rearranging of the way we do things in the school and it's a jigsaw that's, I think, fitting together quite nicely.* (Principal, Baxter)

Baxter's principal also noted that if faculty heads interpreted their roles in a rigid line-management manner it could lead to problems. The principal suggested that it was

important to provide opportunities for staff to communicate with him. Thus, there could be situations where it was necessary to bypass the formal hierarchical structure:

> *Some of the heads of faculties have a tendency to be very dogmatic and top down, so when you add the structural problems or potential problems to HoFs [heads of faculties] who instinctively are dogmatic and top-down, you can create…there are issues.* (Principal, Baxter)

So within each faculty organisation, there were other forces at work, including the ways people interpreted structures and the ways they interacted with one another.

The process of broadening the leadership role across disparate subjects

The principals were clear about the value of the greater management and co-ordinating role of faculty heads, each responsible for up to six subject departments. Faculty heads were also subject leaders but had a wider responsibility for co-ordinating the curriculum across an "essential learning area". This placed greater onus on them to discuss, consult and co-ordinate across the various subject departments within the faculty. The principal of Sargeson put it this way:

> *I certainly expect them to be major leaders of curriculum. I mean they have the sort of traditional HoD roles of being curriculum leaders. Where they cover more than one "learning area", then I really want them to coordinate that really well.* (Principal, Sargeson)

For a faculty made up of disparate subjects it would entail the role incumbent shifting their identity from HoD as subject specialist, to faculty head as manager. Hence the incumbent would manage the curriculum and associated resources beyond the boundaries of the subject department:

> *Art was just you know a PR2 [using pre-MU terminology], a position with two units of responsibility]and all they did was concentrate on painting and we had to get them in and say look how do you feel about being responsible for the Arts Curriculum in the school? So you're not allowed to concentrate on Art, you have to have some interest in what happens in that auditorium and that music suite. And so that was a harder process.* (Principal, Mahy)

Responsibility for an "essential learning area" was identified by Mahy's principal as central to the faculty head role. However, it has been argued that it would be difficult for a faculty head to establish a leadership mandate across subjects requiring very different knowledge and expertise (Busher & Harris 2000). At Mahy, a lack of common ground had led to the breakdown of the Arts faculty where the Head of Visual Art was perceived by the principal as a de facto faculty head. The diversity of subjects within the faculty was seen by the faculty head as a major reason for this disintegration:

> *I think the main reason is that the Arts, they're so diverse and putting them all together in one block like that, it just doesn't work. I mean just the Visual Art department is like a faculty in itself, because you've got design and photography, and painting and sculpture, and all these different…they're really really different subjects and so….and then to have Dance and Drama and Music, and it's just enormous and it just didn't work and I've heard of other schools where it doesn't work as well.* (Faculty Head, Mahy)

The faculty head stated the MU holders in the faculty saw themselves sitting more within a traditional subject department framework where the faculty existed in name only:

> *If one of us was the faculty leader because the subjects are so different… well who would it be? And obviously they wouldn't know much about the other subjects and so, you know, it wouldn't be very fair* (Faculty Head, Mahy)

In the other two schools the principals also referred to a faculty which had experienced difficulties in forging links across the subjects within an "essential learning area." In each case the faculties contained diverse subject departments. In one instance, the MU holders were not holding regular meetings, leading to what the principal described as "some dysfunction." The school's response to this had been to initiate a system where a deputy principal facilitated and supervised regular meetings with MU holders in the faculty. In another case, being a strong autonomous HoD was seen by the principal as working contrary to the faculty head leadership role which required the development of a collaborative culture across subjects. Furthermore, some curriculum documents developed to support the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) were seen as having a

rationale but lacking in practical guidelines for linking teaching and learning across the various subjects:

> *The other problem with the Arts one is the curriculum itself. I think there are…although it's written as a curriculum which is integrated I think it's really hard to bring it together for them. I don't know why… I mean because if you think about the performance side of it, it should work really well and we've had a few things like, we've had an Arts week where we've done Arts type of things, so on that performance side it's worked quite well but in terms of curriculum collaboration, it's been a bit of a failure so far.* (Principal, Baxter)

This principal saw school productions as integrated practice. However, the notion of "contrived collegiality" described by Hargreaves (1994) is one where collegial relationships are forced rather than occurring naturally. From one faculty head's perspective in this study, the collegial value of school drama productions was forced or contrived. Inevitably there was someone driving the performance, with others asked to work around other people's ideas, such that their contribution might be seen as craft rather than art:

> *With the productions, like they're directing it and so they just want a bit of set painting [stage backdrops] and so there's very little input…we try to…but because it's their thing, it's their baby you know, it's hard to kind of feel like you're really contributing in any great way.* (Faculty Head, Mahy)

Furthermore, in each of the schools, a focus on a unitary organisational model, along with the efficient running of the school, has meant that faculty heads' expertise and leadership have not been fully utilised. The response at Baxter has been to organise professional development, described by one faculty head as an opportunity to "discuss the bigger issues and leadership with our team". Baxter's principal also noted that leadership was what happens underneath the structural framework which he perceived to be just that: a framework. The conversations and social interactions which occurred within the social relationships of a leadership context were referred to as a "higher level approach" to leadership rather than one focused on analysing structures, roles and functions:

We have a tendency in schools to assume that structural changes we make independently of anything make any difference at all and they don't. (...) You know we have all these debates in schools about all these structural things.... they don't make any difference by themselves (…). It's what happens underneath that and over the top of that and how it fits together. (Principal, Baxter)

Seen from this perspective, it is not merely the organisational framework, which provides a coherent organisational analysis but also the people who work within the organisations and the relationship between the two.

Conclusion

This chapter has shown how the faculty organisational frameworks of each of the case-study schools has been developed using the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) as a model for a management structure. The faculty head role served both an organisational purpose and one linked to curriculum leadership. The expectations of principals in positioning faculty heads closer to senior management were that faculty heads would play a greater role in decision making and the co-ordination of work. To achieve this, a curriculum framework which had been developed to depict relationships between subjects located within the "essential learning areas" had been taken to be a pragmatic design for an organisational model where faculties were represented as organisational units. However, faculty heads have looked for meaning linked to teaching and learning by making links between subjects within these organisational units. This has led to some disjunction between principals' and faculty heads' perceptions, with principals placing more emphasis on a faculty structure as an organisational model and faculty heads looking for relationships within these structures linked to the every day practice of teaching and learning. Further representation and analysis of faculty heads' understandings and perceptions of their roles and leadership practices within these structures will be the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

INSIDE THE FRAME: THE ROLE FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF THOSE DOING THE WORK

Introduction

The data gathered from the faculty heads can be represented across four overlapping fields of leadership practice as shown in Figure 5.1. This chapter shows faculty heads' work within the field of performance, as the faculty heads were conscious within intensified work environments of what they did, compared to what they had once done. Secondly, their work also required them to move within the field of management where the formal roles and responsibilities defined the work they did, for their schools were highly complex organisations which required work to be administrated and co-ordinated. Thirdly, faculty heads individual identities have developed from their teaching experience, subject expertise and leadership. They described their work as initiating from those identities. Finally, workplace interdependencies developed out of their relationships with other teachers. This forms the fourth field of practice.

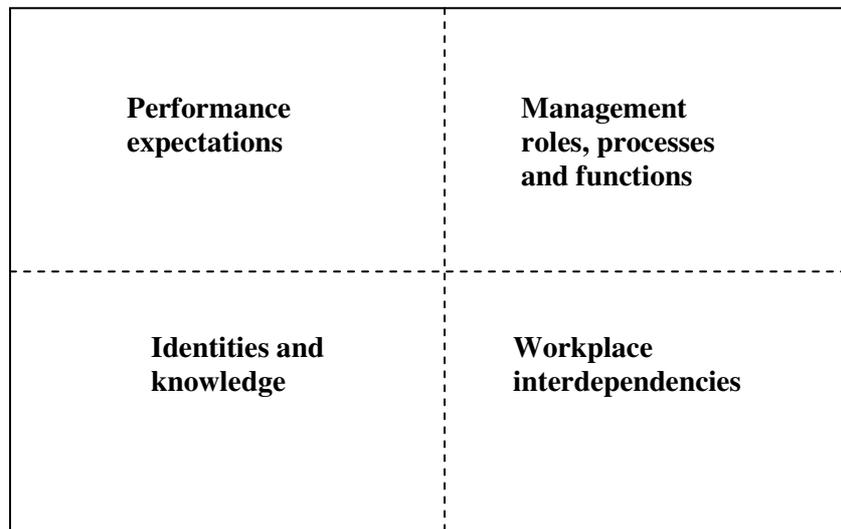|	
Performance expectations	**Management roles, processes and functions**
Identities and knowledge	**Workplace interdependencies**

Figure 5.1 Faculty heads' fields of practice

Interview analysis

This chapter largely focuses on the findings and analysis from interviews with the six faculty heads. The analysis of the faculty head interviews followed the same process as

used for the principals' interviews discussed in Chapter Four. However, with the faculty head interviews, the initial phase of open coding generated twenty-three initial codes which were refined by a process of selective coding to form five broad categories. Some of the initial codes generated were similar to those from the principals' interviews. Data from these codes which outlined the organisational structures and function of the faculty head role were included in the previous chapter. Chapter Five begins with the first broad category developed using data generated from the faculty head research questions (Appendix B) to describe and define each of the individual faculty head roles. The formal relationships with other heads of department and MU holders with formal delegated responsibility within their faculty have also been included. The chapter is then organised through its sub-headings to follow the remaining four themes generated from the coding process. These were introduced in this chapter and represented in Figure 5. 1.

Defining the faculty heads' roles

Two faculty heads were interviewed in each of the schools: in total two male and four female. All names used are pseudonyms. They ranged in years of experience in their respective roles from 14 years to eight months and each led a faculty which varied in some significant ways to the others. This is explained in the following accounts. The diagrams of the formal responsibility structures (Figures 5.2 to 5.7) show the hierarchical relationships between the faculty heads and other MU holders or HoDs in each faculty. Where a faculty head has a dual role which includes the HoD role this is indicated in the diagrams through the use of a curved double arrow.

Introducing the faculty heads

Shane, the leader of the Maths faculty at Sargeson, has a faculty with 16 teachers (Fig. 5.2). He was appointed to the role of HoD Maths 14 years ago and although the school has since been restructured into faculties he stated that he had not perceived any difference between his former role as HoD Maths and his role as faculty head. He stated: "we don't sort of have any mixture of faculty, or departments within the Maths, its just Maths". Shane has two assistants, with MUs and formal delegated responsibility, whom

he referred to in the interview as his "assistant HoDs". They have been delegated responsibility for particular courses within student year level groupings.
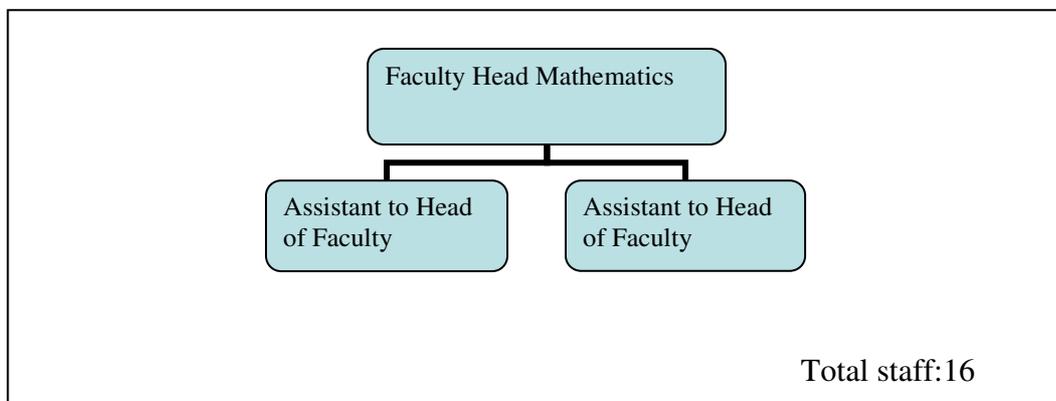
Fig. 5.2 Mathematics Faculty, Sargeson College (Faculty Head Shane)

Judy, the Social Sciences faculty head at Sargeson, led a faculty of 17 teachers (Fig. 5.3). She was appointed to the role six years ago and had been HoD Geography in another school prior to her appointment. She noted that the main difference between this and her previous role was one of scale and the number of subject departments, noting that the faculty was "very diverse." Judy played a dual role in that she was also HoD Geography, as indicated in Figure 5.3 by the use of a double arrow. She had three other teachers in the faculty with formal delegated responsibilities and MUs. These comprised a Social Sciences assistant, a head of History and Head of Classics held by the one role incumbent and a head of Media Studies.

Fig 5.3 Social Sciences Faculty, Sargeson College (Faculty Head Judy)

Graham was faculty head of the English Faculty at Mahy College (Fig. 5.4). He was on the staff prior to his appointment to the position which was eight months prior to being interviewed. Prior to that, he was head of Media Studies at another college. The faculty had 30 teachers and thi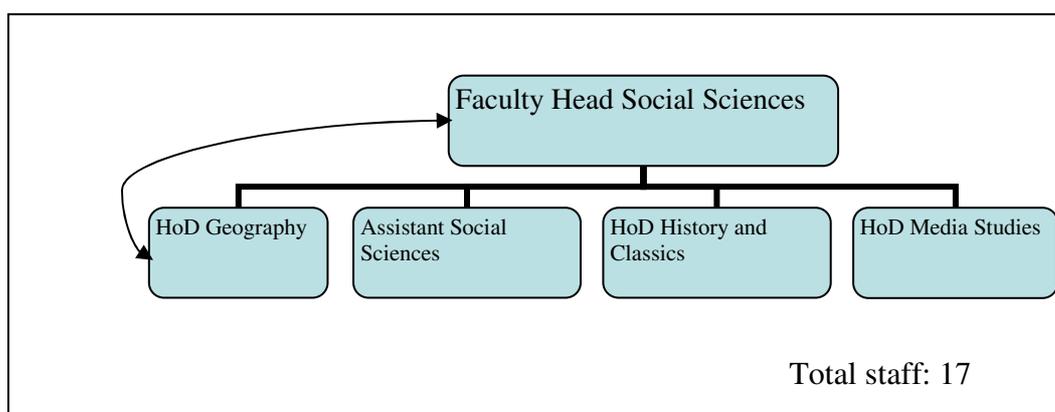s wider responsibility "from a one person department to a thirty person department" had, for Graham, been a "big step" from his former role. Graham had a large number of staff with formal delegated roles and MUs as seen in Figure 5.4. Of all the faculties, this had the largest number of formally designated roles and Graham has set this out in a flow chart of responsibilities. He had also introduced what he considered as a significant change through the appointment of deputies for each year level of responsibility.
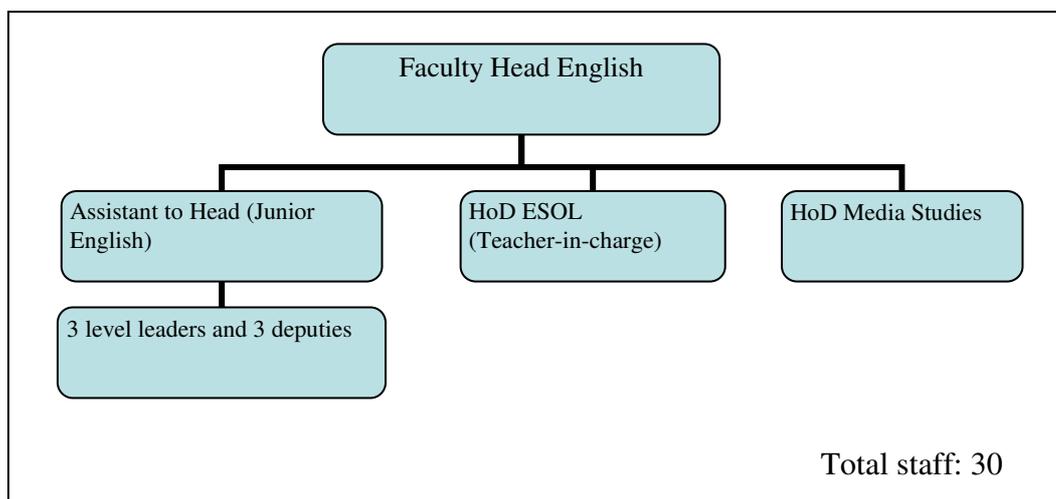
Fig 5.4 English Faculty, Mahy College (Faculty Head Graham)

Claudia had been in her role at Mahy College for eighteen months and stated "I'm still finding my feet with the whole role." Although she was the nominal head of the Arts Faculty she saw her primary role as HoD of Visual Arts (Fig. 5.5). There were 12 teachers within the wider faculty, and a large unspecified number of itinerant music teachers. Within the Visual Arts department, one other teacher had responsibility for Art History and managing the Cambridge examinations. Other teachers had formal delegated responsibilities relating to managing art resources such art materials, photographic equipment and the art library. Within the faculty, there was a HoD music, with the

additional responsibility for managing a large number of itinerant music teachers. There was also a HoD of Drama and Dance.
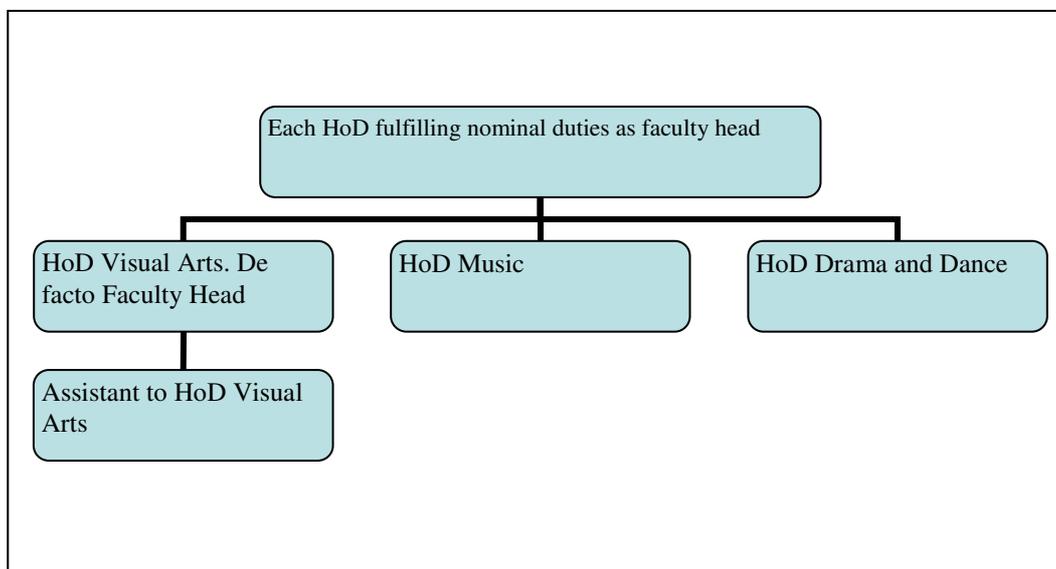
Fig 5.5 Arts Faculty, Mahy College (Faculty Head Claudia)

Carol had been HoD English at Baxter College for eight years. The addition of the Maori department eighteen months ago to the faculty, along with its renaming to 'Languages of Aotearoa' was, Carol says, achieved through discussion and mutual agreement with the HoD Maori. For Carol, this had meant that her role widened such that she now had the dual role of HoD English and faculty head of The 'Languages of Aotearoa' (Fig. 5.6). However, Carol did not see that her role had changed significantly, except in relation to Te Reo Maori where she noted:

> *I've got the overview, particularly of a subject like Te Reo which I don't speak, so it is purely an overview role, making sure that all the elements are in place so that teachers can do the job well in the classroom.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

The 'Languages of Aotearoa' faculty had 19 staff and 4 teachers with delegated responsibility and MUs. Areas of designated responsibility within English related to managing courses within year levels. The HoD Maori retained responsibility for the courses taught within the Maori department.
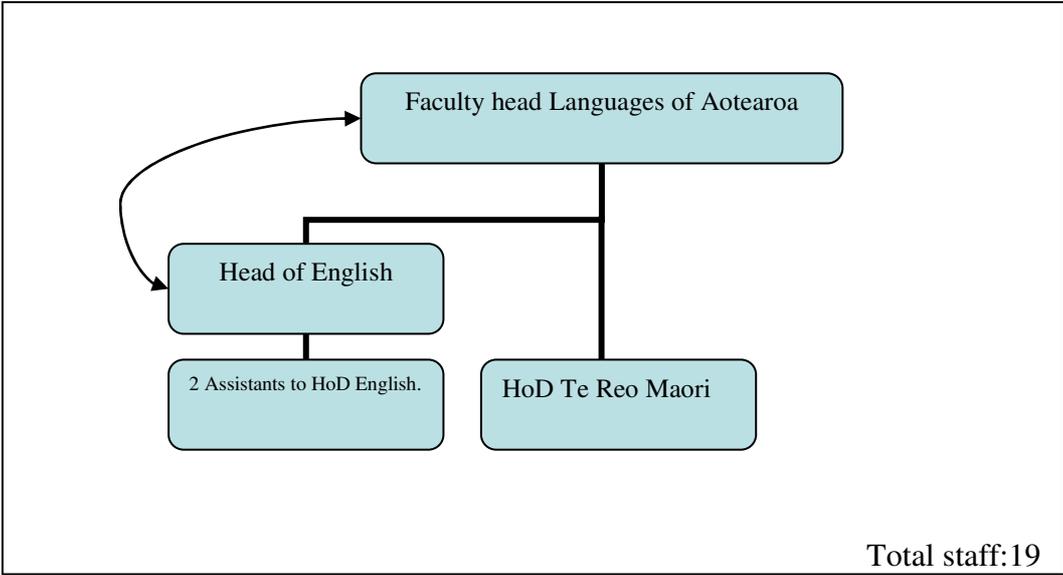
Fig 5.6 'Languages of Aotearoa', Baxter College (Faculty Head Carol)

Barbara had been faculty head of the Social Sciences faculty at Baxter College for the past three years (Fig. 5.7). Prior to her appointment in the role she was HoD History in another school. The faculty had 24 teachers and 5 subject departments.
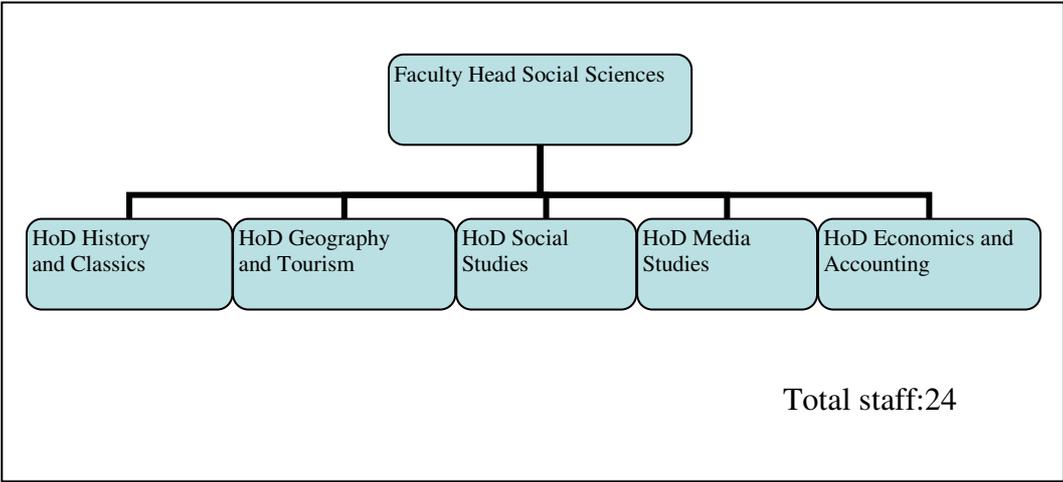
Fig 5.7 Social Sciences Faculty, Baxter College (Faculty Head Barbara)

Each of the departments had a HoD with formal delegated responsibility for managing that subject area and, as a consequence, Barbara did not manage a dual role. Barbara said that in relation to her previous role her current one required a lot more people

management; "I spend a lot of time doing human resources type things". She saw the challenge of leading the faculty as "making it something cohesive out of nothing."

A comparison of the formal delegation structures

As has been accepted practice within the traditional delegation model of a department structure, in each faculty there were other middle managers with formal roles. Responsibility had been delegated to MU holders or assistant HoDs. Along with the faculty head, they had responsibility for managing the appraisal process and worked with teams of teachers to manage particular departments, subjects or courses. They were also formally appraised in these roles. In each case the formal delegation model had generally evolved from a pedagogical focus on a particular teaching programme or subject department. This model of formal delegation had been extended in Graham's faculty: the biggest in the study. Here the range of formal delegation was broadened by introducing a system of deputies to each of the designated roles. All faculty heads stated that management allowances were attached to formal roles. While these allowances were small in monetary terms they had provided a degree of formal recognition.

However, each of the faculty head's work was located within a different organisational framework. Shane's role differed little from that of his previous role as HoD, whereas Claudia worked within a structure where she performed some of the functions of the faculty head as there was no single incumbent in that role. Graham's expertise ranged across all of the subjects for which he was responsible, so he perceived there to be no role conflict. However, two of the faculty heads, Carol and Judy, managed the dual role of both faculty head and HoD, though neither perceived any conflict between these two roles. In contrast, Barbara's role had been clearly defined as faculty leader and was seen as distinct from the HoD role. The formal delegation of responsibility to HoDs within the faculty had meant she did not have that extra responsibility and worry:

> *It was quite a re…not a relief…it was great that someone else does all the head of History stuff. I don't have to do that. I don't have to worry about that. David does it. And all those things, he does. All the nuts and bolts to do with History. He does.* (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

Four of the faculty heads identified their relationships and support for their staff as being the biggest priority of their role. Two emphasised other aspects. Shane, identified the organisational role as being most important, but qualified this by saying the focus on this aspect was to "make it simplest for staff" as the need for tighter turn-around times in managing internal assessment had pushed him towards this form. However, for Claudia, who perceived her role as a de facto faculty head position, the brokering role on behalf of the Visual Arts was seen as most important:

> *The main thing is ensuring that we are, you know, the Art Department is treated fairly in the school, (…) a lot of the time I'm justifying and fighting for things all the time, that's what I spend most of my time doing I think* (Claudia, Arts, M)

While each of the faculty heads' accounts had an individual and local emphasis, reference was also made to the national context. So in addition to the broader range of responsibilities implicit within the faculty head role, there was a perception that the role had intensified through the impact of policy changes occurring at a national level.

Expectations of performance

The effects of relocating and redefining the role

Four of the six faculty heads, without any prompting, stated that the intensification of their roles over the last ten years had had a considerable impact. They noted that work intensification for all teachers was linked to ongoing changes which had come to be expected and to which all needed to adapt. Furthermore, there was evidence to support Gronn's theory of work intensification (2003) for although there were perceptions of roles having intensified, a commitment to the intrinsic value of the work transformed it into an enjoyable and seductive activity:

> *I started teaching 7 years ago and over that whole period of time it's just been this whole… these huge big transitions in Education, ever since I started, so I'm kind of used to it in a way because it's all I know. (…) But I enjoy it though. Yeah. I enjoy it though, it's rewarding, yeah.* (Claudia, Arts, M)

Like other middle managers, the faculty heads noted that their role included managing appraisal and the extra demands of the NCEA along with teaching. However, the formal positioning and broadening of their role within a faculty management structure had also increased their level of responsibility. They were responsible for a greater number of staff and greater diversity of subjects and this was reported by three of the faculty heads as having had a significant impact on their work. Faculty heads also had responsibility for managing other middle managers (Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989). This had required a greater need for monitoring, follow-up and support within a formal delegation model:

> *Just checking that things are done and making sure that I'm always watching, as a sort of a support person that if they get stressed or… sometimes you'll see somebody who's in charge of an area stressed, and they always know they can come to me and they always know my door's open.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

However, while the faculty head may have been delegated authority for HoDs within the faculty, very often the responsibility for subject departments lay outside a faculty head's own area of expertise. Thus, there was a need to take other middle managers' strengths and areas of expertise on trust:

> *I have to rely on their professional expertise and their interaction with other teachers from other schools for the knowledge part. I mean that's just something I have to trust.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

Where the faculty head role was located within a large faculty, this required more management of staff, placing extra demands on the relational aspect of the role. Furthermore, Carol articulated the dilemma within the faculty head role of managing the tensions between the leadership role and the teaching role.

> *As a head of a large faculty for me teaching three classes, often you're busy when the very people you need to be seeing are teaching and those sorts of things and when those difficulties have arisen we've been allowed time to put in a reliever or something, but it still does impinge on your kids, if you're leaving them and that's the dilemma that you're always in with these things.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

For Claudia the feelings of intensification of her role had been exacerbated by the fact that each of the HoDs in the faculty had taken on additional responsibility as faculty head. This was seen as adding enormously to their workload:

> *I'm surrounded by chaos, here, I just don't have enough time to do anything and that's become a real issue at the moment because there is just so much to do and just not enough time and it's just a nightmare, really. And I suppose because we don't have a faculty leader, all of us are taking on all those responsibilities and our HoD stuff and it's huge, immense.* (Claudia, Arts, M)

Moreover, two faculty heads mentioned that the time demands had increased with resignations of a HoD. Both of these faculty heads espoused the value of collaborative practice and of working closely with HoDs and subject departments. However, in the absence of a permanent HoD, the focus for the faculty heads was on supporting relieving teachers rather than developing cross-department relationships. In another example, a lack of prior experience in a HoD role incumbent had required greater input from the faculty head. Thus, leadership was concentrated within the faculty head role, leading to feelings of intensification and the perception that energy was often directed outwards across the other departments in the faculty.

Availability

Where faculties had large numbers of subject departments, faculty heads' work had been relocated within those contexts. Nevertheless, the importance of being there and available was stressed by three faculty heads. Availability was seen as crucial as they needed to know what was happening across the range of departments. They were then able to provide practical support or locate support if they themselves were unable to provide it:

> *This is more diverse because you really need to know what's happening in the other areas and the relationships with them with their staff that they've got and what they do.* (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

Knowing what was happening across the wider faculty, in order to develop a sense of team-work, was seen of particular importance by the two faculty heads with the largest

number of subject departments in their faculty. It has been suggested that the size and location of physical workspaces may play a role in developing a sense of belonging and cohesion within a diverse group (Gunter, 2001; Turner, 2005). The emphasis on cohesion and teamwork was made by one of the principals who also stressed the importance of having a workspace in common. Three of the faculty heads cited a common work space as playing an important role in bringing people together. Graham stated that a shared space would be ideal, but in its absence the schools' intranet was the tool which supported teacher networking. For Judy the shared space was a way of knowing "where they're at, where they're going" and that was much more difficult when teachers were "all over the school". For Barbara the shared social space had fostered a sense of collegiality and because of this, cross-curricular discussion had been facilitated:

> *The physical space has been very important for bringing everybody together, because then you share, there's co-operation, there's cross-curricular discussions and so people tend to work in there quite a lot. So there's a lot of collegiality and things get passed around and handed around.* (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

The timeliness of the collaborative discussions was also reiterated and these situations were more likely to arise when a faculty shared a common workspace.

Management roles, processes and functions

Seen within the formal positioning of the faculty head role within a management system, the co-ordination of work featured as an important aspect of their role in faculty heads' accounts. The co-ordinating role has been highlighted by Wise (2000) who also noted that the degree of co-ordination depends on the configuration and diversity of subject departments within a faculty. This was also seen to be the case in this study. The Social Sciences faculty heads had the biggest number of subject departments in their faculties where the co-ordinating role featured most strongly. Shane's role did not extend his range of responsibility and required no co-ordination across departments. With only one additional subject department, Carols' role had only broadened marginally. While

Claudia was mindful of a greater degree of responsibility for the wider faculty it was not perceived to be part of her formally designated role.

The co-ordinating role and role intensification

Co-ordination tasks across subject departments involved managing budgets and the management of assessments, including managing the formal NCEA moderation processes. As Barbara noted, the role was expansive: "It's everything, budgets come through me, all the moderation, all the NZQA stuff everything." Moreover the co-ordinating role was linked to an administrative burden when departments had been placed in faculties as a matter of convenience:

> *It's a big faculty and it's a lot of different areas. And that's a lot of co-ordination. It's like the moderation, I'm co-ordinating. I've probably got the most moderation of any faculty in the school, because of all the different areas I cover. Anything nobody else wants, we get.* (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

The perception was that teachers' work needed to be managed and departments needed to be placed somewhere within the faculty structure. Rather than allowing these placements to develop out of relationships which had developed through spontaneous social groupings, this had been done on the basis of the faculty which would be the most accommodating. This then placed greater emphasis on the need for systematic co-ordination across departments.

Less co-ordination was needed in the faculty with just one other distinct subject department. Nevertheless, this required regular additional meetings with the HoD, to provide support and ensure school wide communications were passed on. In the past, communication had been managed within the unitary subject context of the faculty by an email newsletter sent to all staff. This was done so the focus of department meetings could be on planning and curriculum development rather than administration. However, the addition of a separate subject department meant that communication needed to be managed for those teachers in that department as:

I've got to really be conscious now of the fact that I feed that stuff through to the Maori [department] teachers (…) I don't send out a regular letter to the Maori[department] teachers because I sort of feel that they've got to wade through all that English stuff. (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

Each of the faculty heads with disparate subjects in their faculties emphasised the need for fairness by ensuring that information was passed on. This matched the principals' emphasis that faculty heads needed to be careful to consult and represent their areas fairly. Judy expressed the view that in relation to issues which could be of particular concern to a particular faculty member, she was not prepared to rely on email or the wide availability of minutes but would proactively follow up with face-to-face meetings:

I forward the minutes to them and on my email what I'll do is I'll highlight certain points out of the minutes that they need to take notice about, or I'll follow up with a meeting with them as well. (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

Two of the faculty heads mentioned that part of the co-ordinating role was in presenting a united front on various representative committees throughout the school as a way of brokering resources. For Carol, it was also perceived to be a very important aspect of her support for the other subject department within her faculty:

So they've got all their classrooms upgraded and they've got a data projector and all the audio visual gear now and I've made sure they've got art supplies and all those sort of things that make their lives easier as teachers so that they're freed up to get on with the job. (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

However, tensions had arisen in one faculty where no one person was carrying out the faculty head role. Thus, Claudia's perception was that the subject departments had not been able to present a united front and had they done so, they may have gained a greater advantage with regards to timetabling issues:

Because on the one hand you're kind of compet[ing], fighting against each other for st[udents], you know, for things and on the other hand you're kind of pulling together to resolve problems and issues around the school…so there's you know there's a double edged sword there. (Claudia, Arts, M)

Thus, Claudia articulated a dilemma for a faculty head which is inherent within the faculty structure and this related to understanding and accommodating the competing and diverse interests within the faculty.

Applying a systematic approach to co-ordination

Finding the time for meeting with teachers in the process of co-ordinating across a large number of subject departments was identified as a problem by two faculty heads:

> *I will say we will have a faculty meeting for the first part and then split into our subject areas. It's the only way I can do it. And it's the one problem with the meeting structure. It's fine for English, it's fine for Science and things…it's fine for Maths, but for us it's a nightmare.* (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

Moreover, this difficulty was exacerbated when some faculty staff also taught in other areas of the school; a reported concern of both the Social Sciences faculty heads where there was the constant dilemma arising around meeting times and staff attendance.

An emphasis on the technical procedural aspects away from utilisation of a content-specific knowledge base (Gunter, 2001; 2005) reduces teacher's work to that of a functionary. This was the case in this study where the faculty head did not have the specific subject expertise of the department for which they were responsible. Instead they had relied on processes and systems. Norms were applied to manage the process which had been established through NZQA assessment systems. In this case 'judgement statements' from NCEA marking schedules were used to check-mark students' assessments:

> *It's often systems. And look, anybody can moderate a task, if you've got their judgement statements and what have you and look at it you know what to look for. It's the process. It's the process. Not necessarily the content.* (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

Here judgement had been defined from a distance and written down to be applied by "anyone" delegated the responsibility to enact those procedures. It would seem that Judy meant "any teacher" but this is still a long way from the processes of forming judgements

that a professional with subject expertise might bring to bear in assessing the quality of student work. Judy's use of systems extended to establishing formal requirements for checking subject department documentation and schemes of work. A model was developed and sanctioned by advisors from outside the school and followed by other departments:

> *You've got your scheme and you know you've had it checked out with outsiders, and 'Team Solutions' advisors [professional consultants providing school support] just to check what you've written and they look at your scheme and they modify yours to their style and that helps a lot, because they've just put their curriculum in.* (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

The perception was that a model which worked in one subject would work equally well in another and by implication, subject knowledge was secondary to following accepted models or templates designed by others. These models commonly applied would serve to provide the framework for establishing expectations of practice extending beyond documentation to the motivation of students. Judy's strategy of establishing a common culture, or "the way we do things" was vital to her leadership of the faculty. However, there was more reliance in other faculty heads' accounts on their own individual strengths, subject knowledge and teaching experience. From this position, they were able to support similar strengths in others.

Individual identities and expertise

Another approach to the co-ordination of work was found in those faculty heads, who drew on their own individual expertise and used this to build shared understandings with the teachers with whom they were working. Co-ordination was seen to develop from within the context of a faculty head's own subject knowledge and from within the subject itself. Therefore, in contrast to the systematic approach to the co-ordinating role, Graham who co-ordinated the work of two other subject departments did so through his own experience and qualifications within the fields for which he was responsible and the skills of being an active problem-solver:

> *If they're looking at a curriculum problem I can pretty quickly get a grasp and maybe give some reasonable input or at least ask the questions, you*

*know, "Maybe we need to consider this?" or "Do we have to find this out?",
or "Who can we go to, to get this answer?" or whatever and that helps and I
like it too, I like ESOL and that whole area. It interests me.* (Graham, English,
M)

Graham prefaced his statement that the Media Studies department was "pretty much self-managing" by outlining his own expertise. This knowledge allowed him to establish that he could rely on others in the faculty and allow a degree of autonomy:

*I helped write the achievement standards for Media Studies (…) that's my
area (…) the HoD is very, very experienced, you know we get together once a
month, have a bit of a nit nat. Things are going fine. She manages her own
budget.* (Graham, English, M)

Although the co-ordination of a large number of subject departments was demanding, it was seen as less onerous when there were shared understandings amongst teachers. The leadership of each of the Social Sciences faculties centred on the common value of "all working for Social Science" and teaching junior Social Studies. In this way, for these faculty heads, the co-ordinating role had developed from their own knowledge and from within the subject. The skills taught at junior level in Social Studies classes provided the foundation and were developed in courses offered by the faculty further up the school. This became the focus for discussion at whole faculty meetings and necessitated careful curriculum management and strategic planning. For both of the Social Sciences faculty heads, it was the pedagogical value placed on skill acquisition at junior level which facilitated discussion and collaborative planning in relation to the content and focus of the junior programme:

*Of course we have the one subject that goes across the departments. We teach
Social Studies in the junior school, so of course we're dealing with all those
facets in the junior programme, and so we've been able to pull in the
Economics people more. We've been able to talk more to the Media
[teachers].* (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

Furthermore, the restructuring into faculties had also meant cross-curricular sharing across subject departments which would previously have been working independently:

We've already developed a unit at junior level on Economics, which the Economics Department organised for us. They did all the work plans and everything, so they organised it for us to teach (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

However, here the emphasis was on the role of teacher as an implementer of work developed by others, rather than work which emerged out of a teacher's own subject knowledge. The notion of teacher as implementer was also seen in an example recounted by Carol. Although an experienced teacher, who had been head of a large subject department for eight years, she faced the implementation of the newly introduced NCEA with trepidation. For Carol an initial lack of confidence with the moderation process meant that those with formal responsibility had tried to do it all:

So coming from a …I guess because of NCEA we were all fairly fearful to start with and we tended to hold everything in…and now we're trying to disperse it. It's like the moderation. I used to do all the moderation for Year 11 and Anne used to do it for Year 12 when we first started off NCEA because we were so nervous about getting it right. (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

Contextualised within the framework of a national qualification emphasising outcomes rather than processes, teaching may be reduced to a technical level where standardisation is seen as more important than processes and professional judgement (Codd, 2005).

Workplace interdependencies

The people priority

Despite their perceptions of work intensification and a role which required more management and the co-ordination of others' work, faculty heads perceived that the real priority of their role was seen in the context of the social practice of leadership. This relational aspect of the role was seen as a collective activity which developed out of interactions with other teachers. Support for staff was seen as pivotal by four of the faculty heads. Enabling staff to be confident in their roles was emphasised. Another stressed the organisational role but also justified this emphasis by saying it was a way of easing the way for staff and supporting them in their teaching role. Along with fostering emergent leadership, the social practice of leadership was seen as having a value over and above the value of subject expertise:

I think it's the people, you know the staff. I'm a great believer that if your staff are happy and they feel valued (…) they'll do things that really surprise you, if you give them confidence in themselves. To me that's a huge part of the role and I know that we're meant to be language specialists and all that sort of thing, but I still think that the people side of it…nothing else works if you haven't got that. (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

This was linked to faculty heads' perceptions that their primary role was in supporting classroom teachers. They drew on their knowledge and experience to support teachers' self-belief, seen as a pre-requisite for having the confidence to motivate students:

I'm a faculty leader, I'm leading my subject, you know and if I don't have my teachers knowing what they're doing and feeling supported, how are they ever going to get the children motivated? So I think that's foremost, I've got to prepare my teachers to get out there in front of the chalk-face, because there's nobody else in the school is going to do that. (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

The idea that without classroom teachers nothing else worked has been located within a social context where emotionality may be seen as part and parcel of working with people (Wright, 2002). This was reiterated by the participants in this study. Classroom teaching was built on the premise of building and developing relationships at every level. Part of this involved decision-making processes which welcomed input from staff:

If I keep the teachers happy, then the teachers keep the kids happy. That's my biggest role. Is to manage the staff so that they feel supported and are supported and have input into decisions, cos that's where it all lives. If you don't have staff this thing doesn't work at all. (Graham, English, S)

Five of the faculty heads recounted instances where leadership was situated in the day-to-day practice of leading a group of teachers. As Carol noted, "there's a lot of stuff coming from underneath." However, this entailed that faculty heads' had a high level of awareness of their staffs' prior knowledge. Knowing one's own strengths, along with acknowledging and building expertise in others, underpinned faculty heads' practice. So facilitating learning and leadership in both students and teachers was seen as a similar process:

They show a bit of initiative even when doing resources and unit plans and then you give them a little leadership and some of them will actually say "No

all I want to be is an assistant teacher, or some… "Yeah, I'd like to do that"
So you do a little part first and scaffold them that they do that well and you
build on that. (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

This necessitated that faculty heads brought their own social skills to the day-to-day relational aspect of the role. So rather than specific subject expertise as a basis for establishing credibility (Bennett, 2001), it was the skills of problem solving (Cardno, 1998b; Stewart & Prebble, 1993) which were seen as vital in terms of developing trust:

The biggest thing is to get the rapport with your staff as your problem-solver.
They know if anything is happening, I'll solve it. We'll sit down and solve it
and that's how you get your credibility (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

Barbara stressed the point that she had not realised how much time the "people management" aspect of her role would demand. However, her involvement with staff was seen as providing practical support, crucial for preparing her staff to be effective classroom practitioners:

Supporting the staff, both in their teaching…we do a lot with co-operative
planning and I think that's very important. It's the teacher support…within
the faculty, you know making sure everything's right in their classrooms, you
know all the small things which make life easier and they know they've
got…they can come and tell me. (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

Support was seen as having a very practical value and, unprompted, five of the six faculty heads mentioned that support for staff in maintaining classroom discipline across the wider faculty grouping was an important additional aspect of their role. Two mentioned the importance of maintaining a "withdrawal system" for students whom teachers were finding difficult to manage in the classroom. For one faculty head the responsibility for discipline differentiated the role from their previous role as HoD:

Some of the discipline stuff comes to me, faculty discipline, that's classroom
discipline, that comes to me, there's that role as well which is different to
the previous because the head of department really didn't deal with that at
all. (Barbara, Social Sciences, S)

The disciplinary role was seen as adding to the demands of the faculty head role, especially when a faculty's staff lacked experience. Locating a faculty within one

physical space was noted by one faculty head as aiding their disciplinary role as there was less chance for students to get lost if they had been referred to the withdrawal room.

Tensions between autonomous and collective models of practice

Tensions have been shown to exist between autonomous and more collaborative models teaching of practice. There are also conflicting values inherent in the ways collaborative models of practice are executed (Brundrett, 1998; Smyth, 2001). In this study, four faculty heads had moved to formally delegate responsibility across a wider range of staff even though those teachers did not hold management responsibility units. In one example, staff worked in groups to moderate assessed work and revise formal schemes of work. Carol reflected that this had a wider value by involving teachers in the decision-making process of what to teach and why. Again, this was linked to the value placed on developing leadership, seen as having both an individual and departmental benefit:

> *I'm trying more and more to get groups of staff that aren't necessarily management unit holders to do this sort of thing so that they feel included, they feel valued, it's something they can add to their CV, they can talk about in interviews and things and it's also very valuable for us as a staff.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

However, Carol was aware that by delegated extra work it may be construed as adding to teachers' workloads though teachers had been willing to take on the tasks of NCEA moderation even though these were requirements of a formal qualification system and there was no formal recognition for teachers' extra work:

> *It's the first year we've really tried that and it seems to be working quite well and teachers aren't complaining about the overload of work or anything.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

Moreover, Judy reflected that some teachers work better in teams than others, as some teachers preferred more autonomous ways of working. The team organisation was potentially most successful when the focus was on the joint preparation of a unit of work:

> *This year I've got my staff trying to work in teams. Some teams are stronger than others. And we always have four classes doing the same unit of work. Some of them haven't worked as teams all year, because that's the nature of*

those people but some of them are actually working really, really well, because they can talk about the same thing. (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

Judy saw the provision of formal opportunities for teachers to plan and prepare collectively as immensely valuable. Attendance at meetings was voluntary, but encouraged. However, increasingly these self-selecting groups were consolidating as staff came to see the benefits. The value of planning co-operatively was similarly noted by the faculty heads at Baxter who used formalised planning templates. They linked co-operative planning back to "making learning a partnership" one of the underlying values of their school's Learning Charter:

> *All in the Learning Charter. The idea of co-constructivism The co-operative planning, the sharing, the focus on learning in the school. And of course one of the things I said straight away is when we plan we've got to look at what the children are going to learn, not at what we're teaching. I've turned that focus, you know, not "What am I going to teach today?"* (Barbara, Social Sciences, B)

Although the co-operative planning templates worked well in her learning area, Carol intimated that it may not uniformly be the case and that there had been a "little resistance in some departments." However, Carol saw the process as valuable and one which she would like to extend towards introducing team teaching. The tensions of autonomous versus more collaborative forms of practice were articulated by another faculty head:

> *There's always a tension, I think, between - and it's one of the reasons I like the job of teaching - there's always a tension between working 'with' and working 'alone.' I mean, I like the job because in a sense you're your own person in your own classroom, on your own, but you're also working with other people. So there's a tension between, how much of that do we do, as opposed to how much of that do we let them do and do they want to do.* (Faculty Head, Mahy)

An over emphasis on managing other teachers' work was seen by this faculty head as working against professional autonomy and more spontaneous forms of practice.

Emergent leadership and establishing the value of reciprocity

Moving beyond fostering leadership and collaborative practice which has been planned for was the recognition that leadership has its emergent and spontaneous forms (Gronn, 2003). However, to be meaningful, faculty heads' responses in this study suggested that this leadership emerged out of the day-to-day practice of teaching and learning. Thus, in every instance, their examples illustrated the importance of recognising and valuing emergent leadership within their practice as subject leaders, rather than as faculty heads. These examples related to developing and sharing teaching resources located within their teaching subject and in establishing a culture of reciprocity and support. Being able to ask for help was seen by one faculty head as an important aspect in forging relationships and developing an interdependent culture built on collegial working practices where teachers worked together. The benefits of developing innovative, interactive and current classroom resources were perceived as immense and noted by four of the faculty heads. Again, these examples were linked to improving teaching practice. This goal would be difficult to achieve if the load was not shared and thus could be linked to managing the problem of work intensification (Gronn, 2003). Consequently, the importance of teacher-talk and in finding out what others in the faculty were doing was emphasised by all of the faculty heads. Hence the resource development process was seen as having a value over and above what was produced:

> *It was heart-warming to me, because suddenly they all felt good and they felt together; they felt supported; they felt happy. That just started and suddenly we had so many resources. That was wonderful. So now anybody can just walk in, if they had to (…) and there's all the resources for every poem that we teach for that level… So that's collaborative practice at its best that comes from the heart.* (Graham, English, M)

At its best, collegial practice was linked to generating energy and ongoing impetus for work when it is developed collectively:

> *I think that the excitement that the team bring back to the whole department is quite amazing and the feedback they get from other staff who are so grateful to have something that's been worked on and looked at and the added value that they give when they try it…you know, it's really worth doing.* (Carol, Languages of Aotearoa, B)

Establishing a positive climate of mutuality and reciprocity has been linked to building capacity and higher levels of performance (Sergiovanni, 2005). The importance of these values was articulated by the faculty heads' in this study. This culture of reciprocity and care was seen as taking a while to cement, but vital if teachers were to work together:

> *We look after one another and we're quite solid out here now and everybody is a collective team.* (Judy, Social Sciences, S)

Faculty heads stressed the relational aspects of their work where the collegial values supported the development of workplace interdependencies.

Collegial interdependencies

In three of the faculty heads' accounts there was a recognition that leadership emerged out of the day-to-day collegial relationships and discussions between teachers who chose to group together. As such it could be seen as a social practice and one which cannot be managed as it was unpredictable and developed out of teachers' personal identities (Greenfield, 1975). References in this study to spontaneous collegial relationships developing out of discussions centred on teaching and learning were most extensively outlined in the comments by Graham and Shane. These were the two faculty heads whose roles were located closest to their subject leadership roles which suggests emergent leadership develops out of shared knowledge. These interactions occurred in an often unpredictable manner and were not easily explained:

> *I wish I knew how it worked you know, because it does, but it's a really ad hoc thing, it's a real personal thing, but it's amazing.* (Graham, English, M)

As Shane said, these casual situations arose "depending on who's around" and they had always been recognised as "an essential part of a staffroom." This has been described as spontaneous social practice (Hargreaves, 1994) where expertise was pooled and discussions about teaching and learning evolved out of shared understandings. This seemingly natural practice in fact developed over time from sharing common social spaces where relationships were fostered and developed:

There's always the casual stuff. We always seem to have one station in the staffroom where its always Maths around one table so there's always information being passed forward you know…comparisons done, yeah just in the casual sense that's always happening…It's something that just happens but it's, it's… you know if we didn't have it, it would be a lost situation wouldn't it? Lost time. (Shane, Maths, S)

As Carol stated, the informal relationships often developed out of a shared work practice associated with teaching a particular programme of work such that "the collaboration happens at wherever they're at". So Graham noted that although there was an emphasis in the school on formal dedicated meetings, these were often utilitarian in nature. He said "you can't force people to come together and have an ideas meeting" because ideas were generated naturally in social contexts. Shane described a situation where there was less emphasis on spontaneous meetings rather than the managed practice of having dedicated meetings or of providing common workspaces:

There's all those sorts of issues that are happening all the time which you know, you could have a meeting for it, dedicated, but if it just happens to happen in the staffroom, it gets done doesn't it? And something might arise from the assessment which passes on through the chain, that you know "We found this happening and you need to watch out for this", so that information as soon as it occurs and it's important, will get through. (Shane, Maths, S)

Graham observed that teachers tend to form self-selecting informal support groups which he saw as "day-to-day support systems." These informal work groups were social groupings formed out of collegial relationships where teachers supported each other and pooled their expertise. Furthermore, Graham saw that these informal groups worked to support teacher learning and that his role was to "just nurture it along."

There's a group of teachers down in that end and a group of teachers up on this end and they'll quite happily work together and they'll do projects together and stuff, (…) and so they kind of congregate, so what the school won't set up to be natural, with a common meeting room, the teachers create through need, don't they? (Graham, English, M)

These comments suggested that teachers' shared work practice have emanated from informal social groupings which developed naturally and which worked to support teachers in their day-to-day work of classroom teaching. As such, the interactions of

these social groups could not be managed but nevertheless were seen as vital to teachers' learning and reflection on their classroom practice.

Faculty heads' management roles and leadership practices

From these data it can be seen that the work of faculty heads involved more than can be defined through formally designated roles and functions but also included the social practice of leadership. Hence, faculty heads' work can be seen as located within four quadrants of leadership activity as seen in Figure 5.8 (see page 95). In this figure, I have endeavoured to represent all of the formal processes and leadership activities mentioned by either the principals or faculty heads in the interviews. The weight of the top quadrants represents the faculty role within a context where teaching is seen as managed practice. Figure 5.8 highlights that there is an expectation that faculty heads play a role in managing that practice. Faculty heads' activities also sit along a continuum which has an individual or collective focus. So activities associated with performance management systems are highly managed practice, with a strong individual focus, whereas at the opposite end of the continuum whole faculty meetings also need to be highly managed but may be seen as a collective activity. The bottom two quadrants represent the work of faculty heads as social practice, where their interrelationships emerge out of their individual identities, knowledge and experience. Again, these activities are represented on a continuum to indicate activities ranging from those which are individually generated to those worked on collectively. This begins to represent the work of faculty heads as more than that which can be defined by a formal structure and to include the context of social practice which emphasises the importance of workplace interdependencies.

The principals' emphases and the formal positioning of a faculty head's role through the schools management systems located faculty heads' work within contexts where teaching was seen as managed practice. Thus, the activity map represents much of their work within the top right hand corner within a field which is highly managed collective activity. However, the faculty heads themselves gave most priority to their work as social practice, despite the emphasis of a management system which located much of their work elsewhere. Moreover, as shown through the activity map and through the data it can be

seen that individual faculty heads made choices to work in ways which can be mapped along the continuum to represent either the individual or collective value of their work. Furthermore, through their work practices, some faculty heads placed more value on the professional autonomy of teachers than others.

Teaching as Managed Practice

Budgets   Strategic planning

Curriculum decision-making boards

School improvement initiatives

Faculty meetings

Performance management systems

Approved units and schemes of work

NZQA moderation 'judgement statements'

Professional development

Learning Charters

Department meetings

Leadership development

Memos and emails

Meetings with MU holders

Individual Planning

Delegated tasks

Schemes of work collectively developed

Availability across departments

Shared planning

Individual Activity ←——————————→ **Collective Activity**

Emergent leadership

Teachers' classroom Practice

Teacher initiative

Resource development

Spontaneous meetings

Teacher-student interactions

Teacher-teacher interactions

Teachers' learning   Teachers' professional judgement

Teachers' expertise   Collegial teams

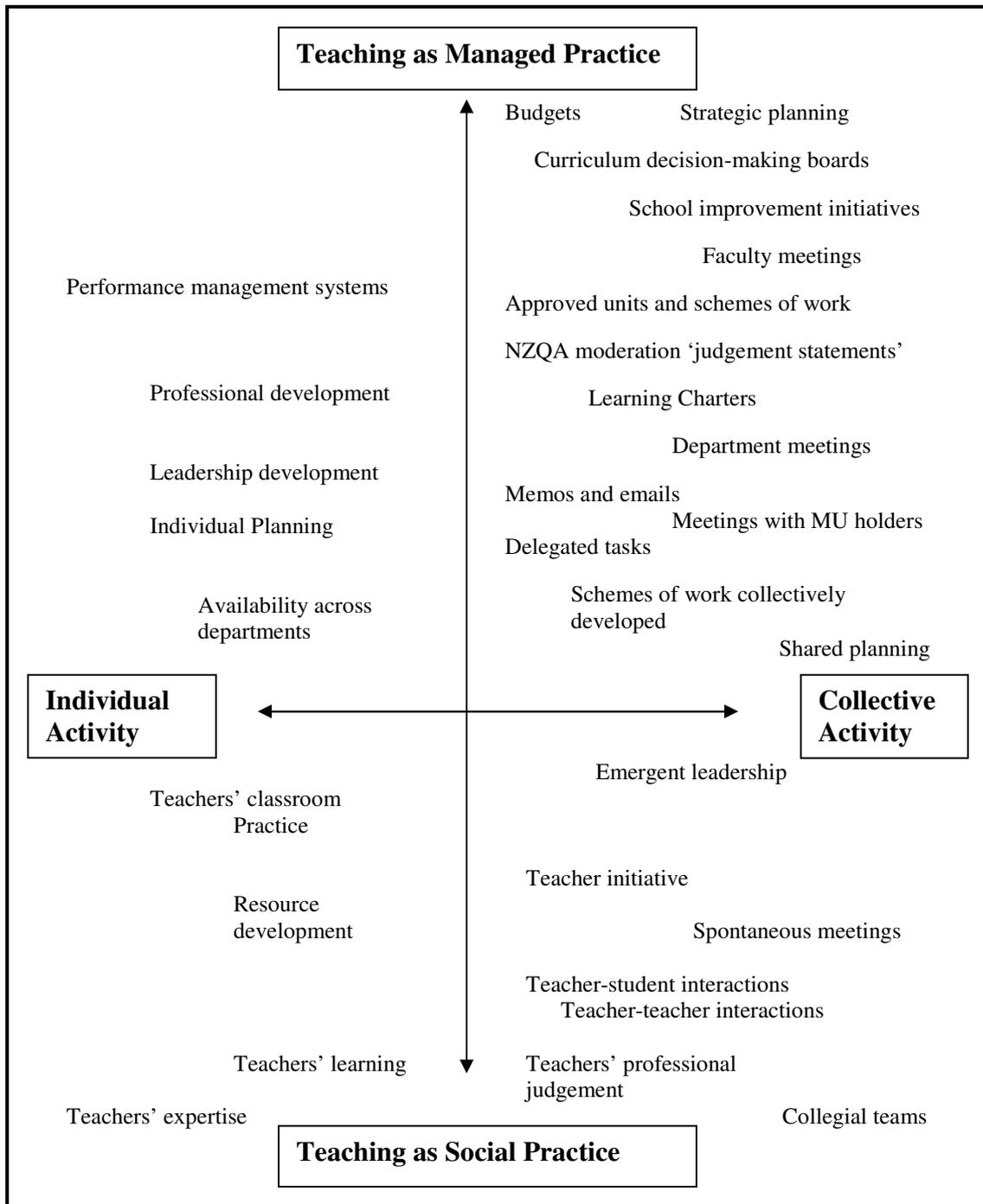**Teaching as Social Practice**

Fig 5.8 Fields of activity in faculty heads' leadership practice

Conclusion

This chapter has shown that the faculty head role is located in schools where the work of teachers is seen as a practice needing to be managed. However, the faculty head role is also seen as the social practice of leadership. Faculty heads saw the importance of the 'people priority' but also identified a raft of other leadership and management activities as part of their role. Thus, the work of faculty heads also involves managing the work of others. Figure 5.8 has represented the data by showing that the work of faculty heads can be seen as both managed practice and social practice and this illustrates the contextual complexities of faculty heads' work. Importantly, the focus for analysis should not revolve around the common dualism of whether the faculty head role involves leadership or management, for faculty heads have stated that their role involves both of these. Rather, the question centres on the purpose to which these functions of the role are put, and most importantly, their impact on teaching and learning. The location of their roles: including the size, composition and diversity of their faculties, meant faculty heads' had various interpretations of their roles. Such interpretations led them towards very different ways of working. The next chapter discusses the various demands and tensions of the role and with reference to the literature begins to draw some conclusions about why these tensions have emerged.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION

Introduction

As has been shown in the previous two chapters and represented in Figure 5.8, the faculty heads of this study have located their work within the wider realms of both managed and social practice. In order to illustrate this point further, Figure 6.1 locates the faculty head role in the centre surrounded by four key fields of practice. In Figure 6.1, faculty heads' fields of practice are best seen as interwoven and overlapping rather than separate and so these are shown as interlinked though the use of the double arrow heads. Beyond this are the realms of social and managed practice. This seeks to move our understanding beyond a binary opposition where faculty heads' work is located as either managed or social practice, or as individual or collective activity. Rather, their roles are represented as requiring all of these activities.
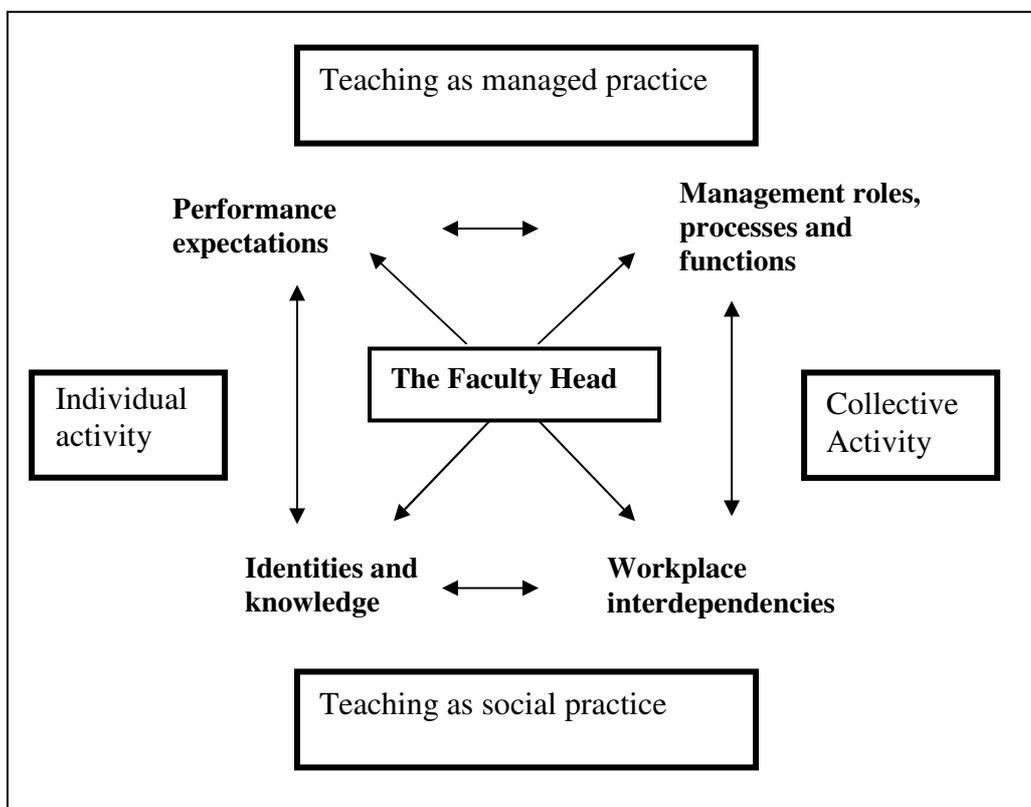

Figure 6.1 The faculty head role within its fields of practice

A discussion of these fields of practice forms the organisation of this chapter. Firstly, the faculty heads perceived that their work required organisation and planning. They were required to move within the field of management where formal roles and responsibilities define the work they did, for their schools were highly complex organisations requiring work to be efficiently administrated and co-ordinated. However, the faculty heads' perceptions of their work varied, as did their formal positioning within their schools. Furthermore, the faculty heads' individual identities had developed from their teaching experience, subject expertise and leadership. So faculty heads' work was also seen as a social practice which was initiated out of their individual identities and sustained by their workplace interdependencies and collegial relationships. The faculty heads located the most important aspect of their work within the field of social practice. However, the degree to which teaching was seen as a managed practice, with the expectation that it was a practice needing to be managed by others, also influenced faculty heads' decisions. This also influenced the ways they managed their own roles and performance. Education was seen to be about growth, development and learning and so faculty heads were conscious of their recent practice, compared to what they used to do. The following discussion seeks to focus on each of the fields of the role to examine some of its tensions. It also highlights some of the ways that faculty heads' perceptions influenced their actions.

Managed practice for predictability and control

The development of a national curriculum framework was designed to show the interrelationships between broad categories of knowledge for teaching and learning. However, in the case study schools, the NZCF's "essential learning areas" (Ministry of Education, 1993) have been used as a management model for the utilitarian function of re-organising in response to the problem of unwieldy decision-making processes. The seven "essential learning areas" of the framework document were used as an organisational template whereby subject departments were subsumed within faculties. Moreover, in two of the schools in the study, these learning areas have assumed a physical shape through the configuration of faculty buildings and workspaces. As noted

in another study, physical locations may become powerful symbolic representations of restructuring (Hannay & Ross, 1999).

It has been shown that restructuring which requires a shift away from a traditional departmental organisation is not necessarily straightforward (Glover et al., 1999). In my case study, except perhaps in the instance where a faculty contained a single subject department, faculty reorganisation has had a significant impact on faculty heads' work. Furthermore, it has shifted some faculty heads further away from the locations where their teaching identities and knowledge were formed and has required more management. As was seen in Chapter Two (Figure 2.1; see p. 15), by repositioning faculty heads' between two layers of management their key management tasks were re-centred on co-ordinating work within a more bureaucratic model. As Mintzberg (1989) has noted, communication and decision-making processes which follow a formal chain of authority determine greater predictability and control. Thus, both the principal and faculty head participants of my study emphasised line management processes. The elevated status of faculty heads positioned them, in the principals' eyes, closer to the senior management team. As highlighted by the faculty heads in the study, this required them to act as "conduits" of information (Gold, 1998). Faculty heads were required to provide feedback to senior management and then back down to faculty members.

Co-ordinating work and the link to school size

The adoption of more bureaucratic organisational models has been linked to school size (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). All of the principals of my case study linked the faculty structure to school size and so restructuring was a pragmatic response to the demands for co-ordinating work. One of the principals stated the faculty system might seem overly complicated, but necessary, another used the word pragmatic to describe the utilisation of the structure and the third stated that he could not see any other way of doing it. As both student and staff numbers increased in a school, the push to more bureaucratic organisational models approximating Minztberg's "machine organisation" (1989) also increased (Figure 2.1; see p. 15). Furthermore, as the administrative and organisational

challenges increased around managing student and staff timetables, the economies of scale also pushed schools to the more bureaucratic form (Darling-Hammond, 1997).

All of the faculty heads had an important function in managing the economies of scale. For this to happen, they had been delegated more responsibility for a greater number of management tasks. Thus, the faculty heads made reference to the size of their faculties and this was linked to their perceptions of work intensification. The link has also made to distributed leadership and the work intensification of principals (Gronn, 2003). In my case study, one of the principals stated that the days of a principal being able to sit on all the various heads of departments groups, sub-committees and house leaders meetings were over. It was impossible for them to always be available and all things to all people (Fullan, 2003). Therefore, all of the principals referred to faculty heads' important role of managing other middle managers (Figure 2.2; see p.16).

Co-ordinating to manage the curriculum

The NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) was not questioned by the principals but treated as a given; for some, restructuring into faculties was also seen as a pragmatic response to a mandated document. The two principals who were able to recount details of the restructuring process observed that it placed considerable demands, both on their time and on the school's resources. However, all of the principals viewed the faculty structure as having positive benefits.

Wilson (1998) has noted that one of the substantive tasks of a faculty head role is of managing subject diversity so that the outcomes from the subjects taught and assessed within a faculty could be amalgamated, synthesised and reported on. In my research faculty heads commented that this extended to managing the formal moderation and reporting systems for the NCEA, which in a big faculty with a large number of subject departments made extensive demands. The NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993) was developed within the context of widespread neo-liberal policy reforms. The link has been made between the development of the curriculum to outcomes and performance-based measures requiring schools to develop profiles of student learning linked to the

curriculum's seven "essential learning areas" (Codd, 2005). Thus, the faculty heads of my case study undertook the role of co-ordinating and reporting on the work in their faculties (Figure 2.3; see p. 17) by managing the implementation of mandated curricular and the demands of a standards-based assessment system. The context of a competitive education market has intensified these demands (Bottery & Wright, 2000). This would also explain the emphasis of one of the principals on strategic management. Two of the principals noted the important role that they perceived faculty heads to have played in setting a direction for curriculum delivery in the school.

Faculty heads as conduits - channelling information and representing the faculty

Within the line management model, the emphasis was on the representative and consultative roles. The faculty heads acted as delegates at faculty heads' meetings and they represented others' positions within a vertical line of information (Figure 2.4; see p. 18). This process was seen as an important link to the senior management team. In the first instance, this was dependent on faculty heads' communication with other middle managers in their faculty, because in order for communication to be channelled vertically, communication needed to occur across faculty members.

As the size of the faculty and number of different subject departments increased, the volume of information which the faculty heads needed to process also increased. Thus, their role was focused away from providing immediate support for teachers and towards administration. Faculty heads needed to exercise judgement in deciding which pieces of communication should be drawn to the attention of particular heads of department. In this way, they were acting as a filter in deciding which information was important and for whom. It has been noted by Busher and Harris (2000) that this is a difficult task where a faculty head is called to make a judgement about a specialist subject of which they have little knowledge or expertise. In such cases, discussions around a particular issue would necessitate holding an extra meeting with the HoD. Such processes would require a great deal of co-ordination (Bennett, 1995). While the principals reported that they would not interfere with communication processes, regular formally scheduled meetings with MU holders sanctioned within a school's meeting cycle, made this

process much easier. This had previously been a model used in one of the schools. It was endorsed by the principal and faculty head participants and was one to which they hoped to return. The role of the faculty head as "conduit" (Gold, 1998) was seen as so essential that should communication break down intervention was needed. So two alternative approaches to this problem were reported by principals. On the one hand, there was intervention in the form of supervised meetings and on the other the broadening of representation on a curriculum decision-making board. In relation to sharing information and involving other staff in decision making, all of the faculty heads made judgements as to the degree of involvement and participation required.

Belbin (1996) and Gronn (2003) have stated that in large groups considerable energy needs to be exerted to develop and maintain collective identity and cohesion. For the two Social Sciences faculty heads in my research, who were each responsible for large and very diverse subject departments, tensions lay in needing to find time within the formal designated meeting structure to meet with the various groups. They were required to meet with the whole faculty group to discuss school-wide policy issues. The faculty heads also needed to allow time to meet within departmental or subject groupings on subject specific curriculum matters and also with MU holders within the faculty. Thus, as Glover et al. (1999) have noted, faculty heads leading faculties with disparate departments are mindful that they may be perceived as gatekeepers of information. The faculty heads of my case study were also careful not to be seen as privileging the interests of some in their faculty over others.

Along with the competing time demands, there were also the competing interests implicit within the various representations made from HoDs to the faculty head. However, in one school in this study, the respective HoDs were representing themselves on the curriculum decision-making board. As a result they were unable to present a united front which led to a weakening of their position. It was perceived that had there been a faculty head making representation on their behalf it was more likely that they would have been more successful in arguing their case to broker a stronger position. As

Wise (2000) has stated, by implication such representation would involve some degree of micro-political activity.

Decision making

The degree of involvement of staff in participatory decision making can have far reaching consequences. This was seen in the case study schools, both within the implementation phase of faculty restructuring and the way day-to-day decisions were made following implementation. In two of the schools, the configuration of the faculty groupings was decided by the principal and senior management. A perceived lack of participation in the implementation phase, particularly in relation to the placement of subject departments, has had on-going consequences. Three faculty heads perceived that the relationship between some of the subjects within their faculty was tenuous, and in some instances faculty heads had exercised their own sense of agency by choosing to work in more autonomous ways. Had there been more participation in the decision-making process during restructuring, it may have been possible that differences in perception and consequent mismatches could have been corrected earlier (Cardno, 1990).

The justification for narrowing the number of people involved in curriculum decision making was based on efficiency. The involvement of a large number of HoDs was perceived as inefficient by principals and faculty heads alike, and they concurred with Earley and Fletcher-Campbell's findings (1989) that it was difficult to reach consensus through an unwieldy, time-consuming process which was difficult to manage. Unwieldy decision-making processes may undermine the ethic of collaborative practice when the energy going into managing the process becomes disproportionate (Cardno, 1990). The solution of appointing faculty heads, so as to reduce the number of decision makers at the top end of the process is one which is also supported by the literature on teams (Belbin, 1996). However, ironically this has pushed the problem downwards to faculty heads who as line managers (Adey, 2000) must consult with as many as twenty to thirty staff and communicate back up to senior management through the appropriate decision-making forum. Implicit in the faculty heads' observations, this consultation process was

time-consuming, unwieldy and cumbersome: the very aspects a faculty decision-making process was meant to address. Consequently, a faculty structure developed as a response to inefficient decision-making processes has not solved the problem, but merely relocated it. Furthermore, despite the size of some of the faculties, there were also expectations in two of the schools for faculty heads to manage a team. This was an expectation of the principals of these schools, despite there being no reference to this in the *Professional Standards* (Ministry of Education, 1999).

In their roles as conduits, the faculty heads emphasised the values of fair representation and due process. This was given more weight than the substantive contributions they might make by bringing their own expertise to bear in curriculum development and problem solving. Here the emphasis was on teaching as managed practice rather than teaching as social practice. There was little reference from the faculty heads to the importance of curriculum centred discussion across faculty groupings, nor to ways that they interacted with other faculty heads to make decisions. References made in one school centred on the use of shared planning templates. Only one of the faculty heads referred to the faculty head decision-making group as a team. In the faculty heads' accounts, there were few references to how discussions within that forum evolved around teaching and learning, or to ways their expertise was utilised across the school.

Principals were more forthcoming in their accounts as to the value of faculty heads' contributions. Two of the principals emphasised the importance of rigorous debate on curriculum decision-making boards and all of the principals referred to the important role the faculty heads played in driving curriculum changes in the school. The centrality of the faculty head role in supporting the focus on teaching and learning to support the schools' common philosophy was a particular emphasis for one of them. In one of the schools, a second decision-making body was formed in order to retain a forum which allowed time for rigorous debate. However, the onus was then on the faculty heads to consult with their deputies in relation to the decisions which had been made at that meeting.

Brown et al. (1999) found that participatory decision making and the sharing of expertise was perceived by principals, to varying degrees, as important to quality decisions. Similarly, principals in my study thought shared decision making was important. On the other hand, the faculty heads perceived they could be contributing more in terms of bringing their expertise to curriculum development but they were constrained by decision-making processes.

With the emphasis on efficient decision-making processes, consultation was necessary to make fair representation. In relation to decision-making, consultation may be seen as an easier process but one not simply synonymous with full participation which requires a greater level of commitment to the democratic principle (Bottery, 2004). So while the faculty heads were seen to have been delegated responsibility for decision making, the principals' emphasis was that these decisions should reflect the thinking of, in some instances, very diverse faculties. Cardno (1990) has suggested that when a decision needs to be made, the principles apply of involving those to whom the decision is relevant, along with those who have the expertise. As shown in my case study, a faculty structure made this more difficult. As has been reported elsewhere, HoDs were represented by the faculty head, and HoDs often had expertise which the faculty head did not have (Busher & Harris, 2000; Earley & Fletcher-Campbell, 1989). In some cases the issues discussed were of more immediate relevance to HoDs, yet they had been distanced from the decision-making process. The faculty head needed to exercise care in making representation on the decision-making board and account for the decision made. Here faculty heads experienced the tensions of being caught in the middle between the expectations of senior management and other experienced curriculum middle managers within their faculties (Bennett, 1995; Gunter, 2001). Like other middle managers, they must also accept that these decisions could be overturned by the principal (Brundrett, 1998).

The faculty decision-making processes in each school followed a participatory model. However, the question of who owned the decisions was also contextualised within an accountability framework within a line management model. As Codd (2005) has argued,

the principal as chief executive has ultimate authority. Within the current outcomes-based policy environment which emphasises accountability, a principal can ill afford give free reign to a democratic process where as chief executive the real weight of responsibility lies with them (Brundrett, 1998). However, the value of participation in decision making has been linked to the creation of a professional culture which promotes commitment, satisfaction and enthusiasm amongst staff (Cardno, 1990). Therefore, questions need to be asked by all principals and faculty heads alike as to the value they would place on a participatory decision-making model. As Brundrett states:

> *Professionalism has the effect of allowing teachers to come together with respect for one another's professional ability and the autonomous, indeed isolated, nature of much of teachers' work means that effective administration and functioning of the complexities of school life actually necessitate some kind of collaborative activity. Collegiality, however, takes matters further than mere collaboration, in that it assumes that teachers have the right to take part in the decision-making process itself.* (Brundrett, 1998, pp. 307-308)

This goes some way to explaining the faculty heads' perceptions of their role on the curriculum decision-making boards. There was an emphasis within the bureaucratic model on a managed practice which would ensure a greater degree of predictability and control. Although faculty heads accepted their role required making representation, they saw that the boards were inevitably managed in a 'top-down' fashion where the ultimate authority lay with the principal and senior management. In the faculty heads' comments, the emphasis was on the way that their membership on the decision-making board provided a link to the senior management team within the hierarchical decision-making model.

Individual expectations of performance

Faculty heads' perceptions of their own performance were linked to way that their roles had changed. They reported doing more and more within tighter time frames such that they had come to experience greater feelings of work intensification. These perceptions were contextualised and linked to rapid and on-going external changes at a national level (Codd, 2005). However, although the external pressures have affected all working in

schools to some degree, for faculty heads working in large faculties with more diversity, the demands of the role had particular effects. Some of faculty heads were working in situations outside of their fields of expertise. Thus, their roles required greater co-ordination across more subject departments and hence more reliance on management processes. This was linked in their accounts to perceptions of greater levels of fragmentation in the way their work was managed.

The external pressures -performance as accountability from a distance

Framed by the wider pressures of a neo-liberal policy context with high accountability demands, faculty heads described being faced with more measurement of performance and outcomes. Work intensification was mentioned by four of the six faculty heads in this study, where examples related to interpreting and implementing new curricula, and managing performance management systems. The extra demands of the NCEA related to managing internal assessment including the paperwork linked to the internal moderation of assessments, greater levels of reporting and recording of information; also identified by Ingvarson et al. (2005) and Kane and Mallon (2006). Furthermore, teachers in New Zealand are working in contexts of less autonomy (Kane & Mallon, 2006) where the rate and extent of change has been such that at a local level the pressure is to do more at a faster and faster pace just to keep up (Ingvarson et al., 2005).

The pull towards fragmentation

Within the framework of these external demands, the faculty heads of my study perceived that their work had become increasingly more complex. It has been shown that the work of managers is by its very nature highly fragmented (Mintzberg, 1989) and this has also been found to be the case for HoDs in schools (Wright, 2002). However, my research has shown that the nature of the faculty head role added another level of complexity to the HoD role and this was linked to the breadth of a faculty head's responsibilities. It was not just that they were doing more work within the one context, but that their role required them to manage work across a greater range of contexts across all of the subject departments in their faculty. This led to greater levels of

fragmentation in the way the work was managed, particularly for those working in the largest and most diverse faculties of the case study schools. Moreover, faculty heads were seen by principals as needing to bring the various departments in the faculty together and so faculty heads needed to find new ways of working. So there were references to techniques such as splitting meetings, separating out lines of formal communication, and finding time to meet with various MU holders in the faculty. In some instances the experience of fragmentation was exacerbated by the perception that there was no strong unifying factor across the diffuse departments of the faculty. As noted by Busher and Harris (2000), this can make the co-ordination of work extremely challenging and time-consuming. Furthermore, in one of the schools in my case study, a second curriculum decision-making board had been developed. The separation of policy development from administration creates potential for further fragmentation, but the principal's expectation was that faculty heads would manage this by liaising with MU holders on that board.

Ironically, the focus on unifying a group of departments and rationalising practice through systematic co-ordination resulted in more fragmentation of faculty heads' work. With less focus on autonomy and personal initiative it is the relational aspect of their role which can suffer (Bottery, 2004). Thus, two of the faculty heads noted that time for the important interpersonal and relational aspect of the role in supporting teachers in their work was being eroded. One faculty head articulated the dilemma of faculty heads needing to leave their own students to provide support and advice for other teachers. The reported lack of time for the personal and relational concurs with findings of other recent studies (Ingvarson et al., 2005; Wright, 2002). However, faculty heads were aware the interpersonal role had the potential to be further eroded by the increased fragmentation of a role requiring the application of formal processes and procedures. As noted by Bottery (2004), the management role requires the rational task of managing discrete parts. This locates the role further away from one centred on a faculty heads' personal and professional identities.

Identities: the interface between managed and social practice

In the case study schools, a departmental organisational structure has been subsumed within faculty-based structure. This has redefined the boundaries of teachers' social practice and repositioned the faculty head role as needing to be more focused on management. Where faculty heads' work was located and centred on their subject knowledge, meaning was derived from their expertise, along with the shared understandings which developed with other teachers through the shared practice of teaching. However, a faculty structure challenges traditional ways of working through and within departments. This may lead to the faculty head finding that their role no longer requires knowledge and personal initiative but the technical application of pre-devised plans and rubrics devised by others.

Defining the faculty groupings

The reorganisation of subjects within broad subject domains, now transposed into faculties, has in some cases challenged former subject identification by seeking to reposition the social identities of teachers within reconfigured groups. Through the formal positioning of the role, some faculty heads have been asked to shift their thinking and dispositions away from subject leaders towards the wider role of taking responsibility for a faculty with a diverse group of teachers and subjects. This has meant the faculty heads and teachers working within re-configured social groupings needed to generate meaning in their interactions with those with whom they were working.

In each of the case study schools, there were examples given where it had not been obvious as to where particular subject departments should be located. In some of the schools, there had been some flexibility of subject department placements with shifts made from one faculty to another. However, there were also some examples where it could be seen as a pragmatic response to the need to slot subject departments in somewhere, within the parameters defined by the NZCF (Ministry of Education, 1993). From the faculty heads' perspectives, the placement of departments within faculties was sometimes seen as cutting across teachers' preferred ways of working. As such, it may

be seen as an administrative convenience (Busher & Harris, 1999). Such placement favours the management process over activity more directly linked to teaching and learning and does little to support teachers in their role (Bennett, 1995).

Thus, although there may be a label to define a faculty it may be a lack of a unifying core or common alliances. If this has been coupled with strong sub-groupings it has been difficult for some faculty heads to establish a leadership mandate based on their own subject expertise and professional knowledge (Busher & Harris, 2000). In one instance in my research, the breakdown of a faculty grouping was cited by the de facto faculty head as having evolved from disagreements across the very diverse subjects the faculty was seeking to accommodate, combined with the pressures of time. Moreover, collaborative efforts such as combining efforts across departments for a school production were seen as examples of "contrived collegiality" (Hargreaves, 1994).

Individual and professional identities and faculty identification

Teacher's alliances and preferred ways of working have evolved in ways that are both historical and pedagogical. The way subjects have been positioned within the organisational structure of New Zealand secondary schools is related to a subject's historical development and to teachers' personal identifications within those traditions. Furthermore, the location of subjects within subject domains, and the positioning and relationship of subjects are enduring matters for debate (Horrocks & Hoben, 2005). As an example, in two schools of my case study, the subject Media Studies was located within Social Sciences faculties, the justification lying within the officially sanctioned NZQA subject domain. The other was found in the English faculty with a faculty head who was once a HoD of Media Studies with subject expertise in that field. In other schools the subject can also be found within Arts faculties. Thus, struggles for subject positioning are played out in everyday school contexts with some faculty heads finding they are responsible for curricula of which they have little knowledge. Furthermore, the drawing of artificial boundaries which are independent of teachers' subject expertise and seeking "to represent diverse work according to a unified structural dimension" (Gunter,

2001, p. 107) means there is more pressure on teachers to adopt managerial rather than educational ways of working.

Most of the faculty heads of the case study brought years of experience as a previous subject leader or HoD to the faculty head role. They had considerable expertise and were able to form judgements about teaching and learning in the departments within their faculty which shared this knowledge base. They may be seen as knowledgeable professionals comfortable with the intellectual work of educating young people (Gunter, 2001). While simultaneously playing down their own expertise, the faculty heads also positioned their role as one which had developed out of this subject expertise. This subject expertise, pooled and shared with the expertise of colleagues, produced a powerful leadership mandate (Goodson, 2003; Little, 1995). In this way, the subject leader's authoritative voice depended on knowing what to look for, and in asking the right questions (Robinson, 2004).

However, in all of the case study schools, there were subject departments which had been positioned within faculties despite the fact that the faculty head has little specialist knowledge of those subjects. The faculty head was cut off from that knowledge base (Gunter, 2001). The wider implications of constructing teaching as a managed practice may be seen in my research where a faculty head has chosen to manage complex decisions relating to teaching and learning by relying on the application of detailed rubrics defined by an external body. The real judgement had been made at a distance and written down to be applied at the local level, reducing the application of that judgement to a technical skill (Goodson, 1997). Furthermore, the current policy context works to support this view, for teachers are perceived as having a more instrumentalist role, charged with the implementation of policy which has been defined at a distance (Ball, 2004; Bottery, & Wright, 2000; Goodson & Hargreaves, 1996; Gunter; 2005). In some instances, this has led to a situation of uncertainty and an undermining of self-belief. Thus, a gap between curriculum and assessment design and implementation has reduced the professional role of discretionary judgement to the technical role where prescriptions are merely translated, applied and reported on (Codd, 2005; Kane & Mallon, 2006). This

reduces the teacher's role to the functionary one of following detailed systems and procedures (Bascia & Hargreaves, 2000; Codd, 2005). It also reduces the value placed on teachers with specialist knowledge who draw on their repertoire of expertise to form judgements relating to teaching and learning.

Individual identities and collegial relationships

The evidence from the data showed that collegial relationships between faculty heads and other teachers evolved out of creating meaning generated from shared understandings. The link is made to the learning which occurs in classrooms (Lingard et al., 2003). In each of the Social Sciences faculties of my research, the common unifying factor was teaching the subject Social Studies in the junior school. The pedagogical focus for both faculty heads was elucidated through their perceptions of curriculum leadership with a focus on developing the skills of junior students. Students would use, practice and develop skills in subjects offered by the Social Sciences faculty as they progressed to the senior school. The focus on teaching and learning in the junior school and a climate of mutual trust and respect (Woods et al, 2004) provided the 'glue' which held the faculty together. This re-positioned these teachers as knowledgeable about their work in the contexts of their day-to-day work (Gunter, 2005; Smyth, 2001). It also served to highlight the artificial nature of the structural boundaries drawn around some faculties. This requires a re-evaluation of the important work of the HoD role as argued by Lingard et al. (2003) who found:

> *The leadership of middle-management -heads of department- was very important in focusing on students learning and the alignment of curriculum, pedagogies and assessment practices. The department is a very important unit of reform in secondary schools* (p. 148).

The faculty heads' accounts of fostering emergent leadership and collegiality centred their work as social practice developed from their understandings as a subject leader. They saw this as enabling leadership to emerge from within the team they were closest to within the social space where common alliances developed around pedagogical practice. In so doing they were "putting the educative in all its facets back to central place" (Smyth, 2001, p. 223). Thus, through repositioning the management role as

subordinate to the traditional subject department role the dialectic and practice of teaching and learning was highlighted.

In one of the case study schools, the principal justified restructuring into faculties by referring to Hargreaves' model of "balkanisation" (1994) and of working towards school improvement by developing a vision for the whole school (Hannay, 2003). Faculty restructuring was linked to challenging the autonomy of HoDs who were perceived to be a hindrance to re-culturing the school. However, it was acknowledged that it would be difficult to demonstrate a link between measures of school improvement and the restructuring of a school into faculties, as it would be impossible to separate out the structural factor from a raft of other factors. Furthermore, autonomous ways of working may be accorded a variety of values and Hargreaves' descriptions (1994) have emphasised the negative aspects of protective individualism and insularity. However, there was little to suggest from faculty heads' responses in each of the schools that they had a "balkanised" perspective. Nor was there any reference by the principals or the faculty heads that working within department or subject teams was linked to increased workloads through the duplication of work (Timperley & Robinson, 2000). As has been reported elsewhere (Cooney, 2002) faculties such as Maths had retained their former departmental organisation following faculty restructuring. Thus, some faculties were largely unaffected by the restructuring process, such that faculty management practices differed little from departmental management. They could be labelled as "balkanised" groups, but the evidence from my research has suggested that the focus of the faculty heads leading these groups was on supporting staff in the job of teaching and learning. Thus, the leadership role is contextualised within contexts of encouraging shared work practices located closest to where the teaching and learning occurred (Ingvarson et al., 2005).

Social practice: leadership across a range of forms

First and foremost, the faculty heads perceptions were that their work was social practice centred on supporting teachers in their classroom role. This practice was seen to be underpinned by the values of mutuality and reciprocity requiring faculty heads to nurture

collegial and interdependent relationships. However, the faculty heads worked within hierarchical structures where work was formally delegated. Within the context of intensified workloads there was increasing pressure on the faculty heads to progressively delegate more and more work. This meant they faced a number of dilemmas in managing shared work practices. This was seen within the context of the value placed on the importance of developing workplace interdependencies in the support of teaching and learning.

Leadership as social practice

The faculty heads gave priority to supporting people in their work, by developing strong cultures where collegial relationships were valued. Within these contexts teaching was seen as a social practice. The principals' priorities for the faculty head role were more mixed, for while principals made reference to aspects such as the social practice of curriculum and subject leadership, on the whole there was much more emphasis on the management aspects of the role. One principal emphasised the co-ordinating role, one strategic management and the other change management.

The faculty heads' accounts emphasised the relational aspect of their work and of establishing a culture of support based on the values of mutuality and reciprocity. From the faculty heads' perspectives, their interactions with staff developed out of a shared professional ethic. Three faculty heads emphasised that availability as a support person by either solving problems or knowing where to get help to solve problems was important. One noted that developing a rapport with staff was linked to her role as problem-solver and this was how trust was consolidated within the faculty. Five faculty heads noted that providing support in the maintenance of classroom discipline and of finding strategies to deal with challenging students was an important aspect of their role. Thus, the culture of support may be seen as developing first and foremost out of supporting teachers in classrooms along with an ethic of care towards their students (Ingvarson et al., 2005; Kane & Mallon, 2006).

The practice of collegiality

Collaborative practice develops out of the interdependencies of teachers working together. The faculty heads reported modelling a process of 'give and take' to develop a culture of reciprocity. Collegiality goes further in spontaneously drawing on the intelligence and creativity of the team, in ways that are energising and which add value (Hargreaves, 1994). Moreover, it is a social practice which cannot be managed and organised and which develops out of collegial relationships and interdependencies.

The most extensive accounts in my study of these spontaneous forms of practice were from the accounts from Shane and Graham, whose faculty head roles most closely matched their subject leadership roles. They noted that such practice occurred spontaneously within the social groupings of teachers who chose to work together. Furthermore, the seemingly casual nature of these interactions belied the final result, such that if they did not occur something significant would have been lost. So where such practice developed out of spontaneous responses, the synergistic nature of the interaction meant that the result was greater than the aggregation of individual team member's contributions. It was, as Gronn (2003) has stated, "concertive action" (p. 35). Thus, one faculty head spoke of an excitement generated by the team where the final result added up to more than each individual team member's contribution. Another referred to the snowballing effect that occurred when teachers contributed to a bank of resources.

Distributed leadership as formal delegation

More often than not, however, faculty heads' examples of shared work were linked to the delegation of tasks through a formal delegation model. At the more mundane level, from the faculty heads perspectives, sharing the work was linked to more efficient development of teaching resources, by lessening the burdens of work intensification and drawing on the collective abilities of the team. Frequent reference was made to the MU holders' responsibilities in the faculty, which along with heads of department positions were linked to managing a programme of work and assessment for a particular year

level. In most cases these models were not too dissimilar from those which would traditionally have been found within a departmental system.

The faculty heads faced the tensions of needing to decide whether to further delegate responsibility or find ways of managing the work themselves. Reference was made to the importance of rewarding and acknowledging formally delegated tasks through the use of MMAs. This involved a degree of brokering and discussion with the principal. Furthermore, two of the faculty heads were managing a formalised dual role of HoD and faculty head, and all the others were called upon to carry out a significant role of subject leadership. The one exception was Barbara whose faculty head role had been separated from the HoD subject leadership role so that she saw her work as overseeing the work of the HoDs and departments within the faculty. Barbara noted that it was a relief to have someone else in the faculty responsible for the HoD role. It meant she was not faced with the tensions of a dual role and was one of the two faculty heads who did not mention work intensification during the interview.

Progressive delegation

Beyond the formal model of delegation, tasks have also been delegated to other faculty staff, who in many instances received no extra financial reward. In the examples given by faculty heads, delegation was associated with what would have formerly been considered as departmental work, including preparation of units of work, shared planning using pre-devised templates and work on departmental schemes. References to the managed practice of shared planning were made by three of the faculty heads. Judy linked this to her perception that it was important to ensure a common approach. However, there were degrees of success with this shared practice. Although staff had been allocated to shared planning teams, some preferred to work more autonomously. The notion of consistency and commonality was similarly reflected in the school-wide policy of co-operative planning at Baxter College, with varying degrees of success.

The dilemmas of work distribution

Faculty heads were faced with a number of dilemmas surrounding the distribution of work. This requires an analysis of the ethics of work distribution by highlighting the ways work is distributed and by whom (Gunter, 2005). A comparison of two of the faculty heads' work practices in this study highlights some of these dilemmas.

Shane used to delegate responsibility for assessment tasks to staff so that the work and responsibility was shared across the department. However, given the proliferation of NCEA internal assessment demands and the fast turn around required in marking and moderation of student work, Shane has come to see the need for a more managed approach. Sharing the work was seen as impractical and inefficient and as a consequence, the management of student assessments has been concentrated in a few MU holders.

Carol, in contrast, initially concerned that the NCEA assessment process was managed correctly, handled this herself with support from her MU holders. More recently, she has delegated responsibility to all staff within the subject department for which she, as HoD, was immediately responsible. Carol was careful to note that her staff did not perceive his to be an imposition on their time. Here the dilemmas of distributing leadership were writ large, where in the context of "greedy work" (Gronn, 2003), work became unmanageable and so it was passed down the line with the justification that it enabled leadership to emerge by enhancing teachers' level of expertise (Glover et al., 1998). To hold on to the work meant that the knowledge associated with it was concentrated in a few. Meanwhile, the one who dispersed it was left wondering whether staff would be further burdened (Wright, 2002). Thus, the contrasting practices of Shane and Carol have illustrated the implicit bind which lay in exercising choice through the process of formally distributing leadership.

In contrast to those who were faced with the dilemma of whether to delegate responsibility, there were those who perceived that their options for sharing the work across the group (Spillane et al., 2004) were limited by the inexperience of their teaching

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staff. Three of the faculty heads reported that they had had difficulties maintaining staffing levels and those who were appointed lacked experience. Thus, they expended considerable time and energy in supporting and inducting new staff, which added to feelings of work intensification. In such contexts, teaching was seen as a highly managed practice. One faculty head noted that staff were frequently overseas trained which meant they had high staff development needs in relation to knowledge of the curriculum and programmes of work.

This situation is ironic in contexts of work intensification where the greater utilisation of shared work practices including distributed leadership practice is being espoused as the way forward (Gronn, 2003; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Spillane, 2006). In contexts of high teacher workloads, high staff turnover and a concentration of leadership, the tensions of the faculty head role are exacerbated. Although it has been argued that work may be "stretched over" the organisation of a school (Spillane et al., 2004) the faculty heads doing the work in my study have perceived that their work has intensified as a result of this practice. They have also articulated the dilemmas of distributing this work further.

In some instances, the identification and positioning of former departments with faculty groupings raised complex questions about personal and professional identities and the exercise of power. Although one of the principals saw faculty restructuring as dismantling the privileged position of some of the big subject departments and redistributing power more evenly, in practice power imbalances persisted. During the faculty restructuring process, status was lost by some HoDs when others were appointed to the role of faculty head which carried more positional status. In one instance cited in my study, faculty heads were perceived as representing blocks of power working to obstruct the wishes of smaller department heads. Thus, those who had chosen to exercise their agency by working in more autonomous ways by reverting to a HoD role have found it more difficult to exert their influence.

Furthermore, within individual faculties, there were imbalances in the positioning of subject departments, where smaller subject department HoDs were positioned with less status and MU salary units than others. The formal positioning of faculty heads within the line management structure carried both the formal weight of responsibility and status. In some contexts where collaborative models had been accorded more value over autonomous ways of working, there were accounts of feeling obligated towards collaborative practice, even when little value was accorded it. Some chose not to collaborate because of work intensification. However, as noted by some of the faculty heads, if teachers were delegated tasks and took these on willingly, it would be seen as enhancing their future employment prospects. Some also linked extra delegated tasks to professional development and learning. However, social learning networks should not be seen as synonymous with organisational units (Wenger et al., 2002). One faculty head, in my study, identified teachers whose social learning networks lay outside of the school. Hence, collaborative endeavours with others in the faculty could be seen as little more than a faculty head finding a way to get the job done. In these relationships there are considerations of the relationships of power, and the question of who would benefit most.

In schools using a faculty structure, a framework originally developed to define a curriculum has been transposed into artificial organisational structure. In such contexts, the notion of a "community of practice" (Wenger et al., 2002) requires a careful analysis of power and a critique of who is defining that community (Gunter, 2005). Thus, the distribution of leadership cannot be considered merely as shared-work practice conceptualised outside of the values placed on that practice, as some would argue (Spillane, 2006). Furthermore, it should not conceptualised from one view point only and would need open negotiation and critique within a democratic forum, especially if it were to move beyond that of capitalising on the practice of workplace interdependencies (Gunter, 2005). Moreover, in a number of instances, the faculty heads of my study saw cross-curricular collaboration linked to teaching and learning in classrooms as an ideal rather than common practice. In some cases, the faculty head role was reduced to a

functionary one where the acquisition of resources or economic capital was perceived to be the key to providing support (Spillane, 2006).

Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the leadership practices of faculty heads in their day-to-day work. The restructuring process has subsumed departments into faculties using the broad learning areas of a curriculum document. This has located and centred the role of faculty head within a management structure which requires work to be administered, organised and co-ordinated. However, this structural emphasis has given prominence to the formal positioning of roles and the definition of boundaries, but has little to say about the benefit to teaching and learning. Nevertheless, the faculty heads of this study perceived that their role had emerged from their identities as teachers, and was centred on the social practice of providing support for other teachers in their classroom teaching. The tensions in the role have derived from the ways faculty heads have positioned their leadership practice, in relation to the ways they have been positioned by organisational structures seeking to reduce complex work to a simple framework. Furthermore, faculty heads have faced the challenge of centring their work on the values derived from their professional and social identities and resisting the pulls which undermine these values. This will be the focus of the following chapter, along with some final conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER SEVEN
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Faculty heads' work spans four fields of leadership practice as discussed in the previous chapter and seen in Figure 6.1. The faculty heads of this study, have positioned their work first and foremost within the wider field of social practice, for it was the support for teachers' practice in classrooms, in order to enhance the learning which occurred, to which they ascribed the most importance. However, faculty heads' formal role positioning within a faculty structure meant that much of their work activity involved the management tasks of co-ordinating the work of others, as was shown in Figure 5.8 and discussed in the previous chapter. This has created particular tensions and dilemmas in the role and this will be the focus of these final concluding remarks.

The faculty head role as a site of struggle

The way faculty heads position themselves and are positioned by others in relation to these four fields of leadership practice can be a site of struggle. At a macro-level, educational leadership may be seen as an "arena of struggle" (Gunter, 2001, p. 1) where practitioners adopt positions in relation to policies, structures and theories. An analysis of the wider policy framework and faculty organisational structure surrounding the faculty head role was summarised in Chapter Two and represented in Figures 2.1 to 2.4. Therefore, at a local school level, the faculty head role may be seen as being shaped by the way those in the role are positioned by a faculty structure, by principals' expectations, and by the wider educational setting. However, the role is also shaped by the positions adopted by those in the role and doing the work, where perceptions of possibility and the struggle over ideas and beliefs are played out in practice (Gunter, 2001). Therefore, as Busher and McKcKeown (2005) state, there is a complex interplay between personal and professional identities, organisational structures and cultures and the socio-political environment.

In order to develop this further, the model representing the faculty head role used in Chapter Six has been further developed to show both the influence of a faculty structure and school culture. This is set within the wider contextual influence of a macro-level policy framework to show the faculty head role as a site of struggle as seen in Figure 7.1.
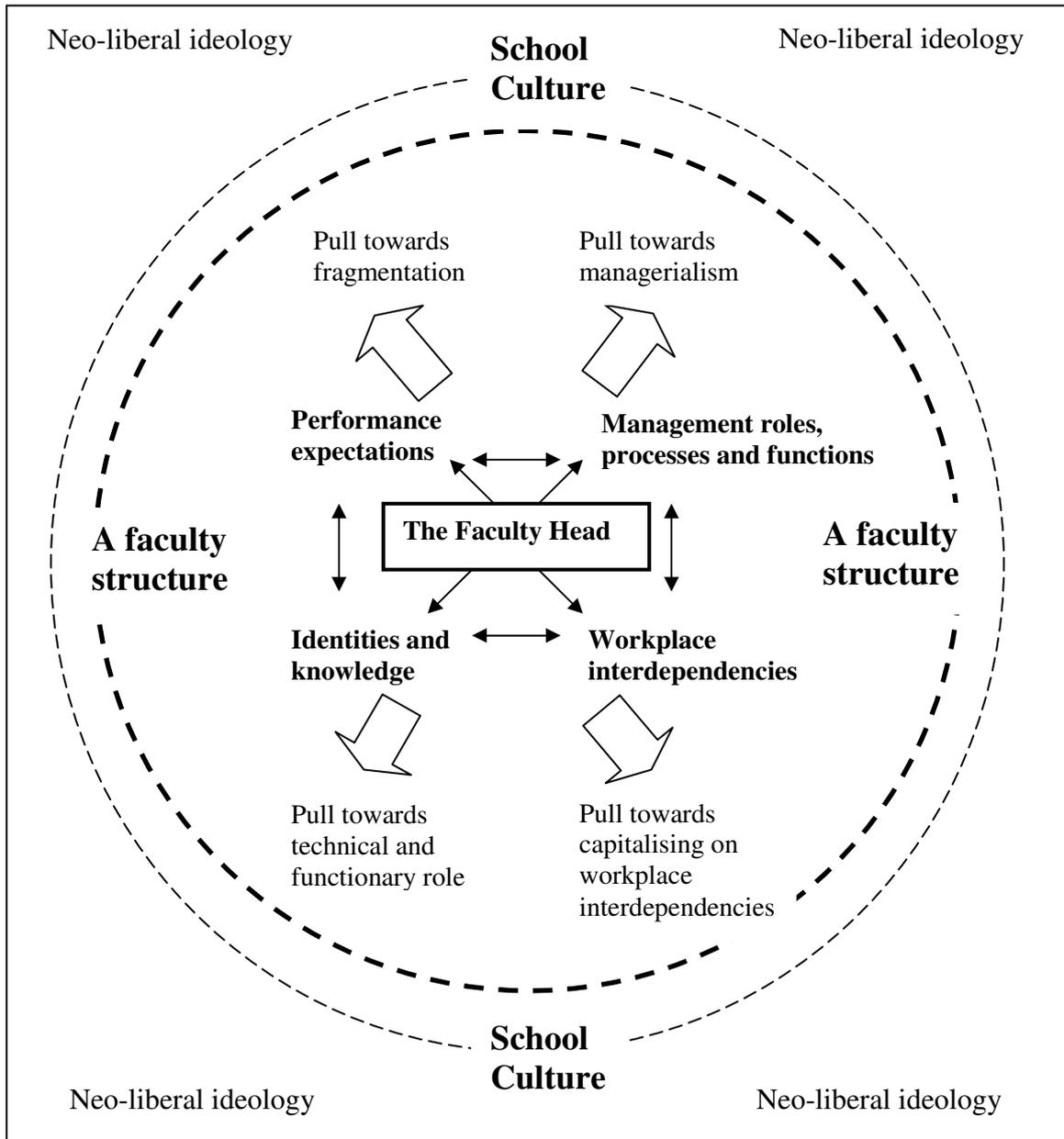

Fig 7.1 The faculty head role as a site of struggle

A faculty structure is shown surrounding a faculty head's fields of practice and beyond that a school culture, through the dotted lines surrounding a faculty head's work. The lines are represented as dotted because a faculty structure is best seen as contextual and one which is interpreted and reinterpreted by the people who work in these structures (Greenfield, 1975). Greenfield argued for a view which sought to understand the various interpretations of social reality and against a monolithic view constructed as a universal system needing to be discovered and applied. However, a neo-liberal context frames the work of the schools of this study. This is underpinned by a currently widespread belief in an organisational theory which argues for the discovery and universal application of systems of management to improve schools. This is seen in the current managerialist emphasis on management training and in the educational management and school improvement literature (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003).

As seen from the data, no one faculty head role was exactly the same as another and the practice of these people varied, depending on the context and situation. The positioning of the faculty head role in each school also developed out of the ways it had been interpreted by principals. As Hannay et al. (2001) have concluded, principals play a powerful role in shaping a culture of expectation which develops around roles and structures. So as the data have shown, it was not the faculty structure alone which has positioned and defined the range of possibilities of a faculty head role. As Busher and McKeown (2005) have argued, it is also the underpinning philosophy, along with the statements and actions of principals which positions a role within organisational structures. Faculty heads also take positions through their own sense of agency within these structures. Nevertheless, seen within a structural framework where a faculty structure influences school culture and within the wider neo-liberal policy context, there are strong pulls on a faculty head to work in ways which move them away from a role which has evolved out of their professional and social identities centred on the pedagogical. The pedagogical role begins with teachers' learning and moves beyond to the learning of their colleagues and the students they teach (Gunter, 2005). The context of a neo-liberal ideology (Codd, 2005) and the formal positioning of the faculty head role within a faculty structure, create particular challenges for faculty heads. The pull on

the professional is toward the technical and functionary; on collegial practice towards capitalising on workplace interdependencies; on management practice towards managerialism and on performance towards fragmentation.

These tensions are inherent in the faculty head role and to conclude the arguments of my thesis, the following points will be made. As the data have shown, the faculty head role through the way it has been positioned by principals, and redefined through a three-tier organisational hierarchy, has emphasised its management roles, processes and functions (Fitzgerald, 2000). Schools need organisational and administrative systems which create stable learning environments and which though hierarchical, work to support teaching and learning (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). However, within the context of a neo-liberal ideology driven by the values of efficiency, predictability, and certainty, management is about controlling work and so the pull on the faculty head can be towards the utilisation of management processes seen as an end in themselves rather than a means to an end (Gunter, 2001). Within this context, and with the pervasive uncritical focus of the school improvement and effectiveness literature focused on providing management solutions to complex educational problems, faculty heads can be pulled towards the managerial (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). Therefore, within the context of intensified workloads, a retreat into management tasks for their own sake could be a way of faculty heads avoiding or controlling their work (Wright, 2002).

Faculty heads, as self-reflective practitioners, have expectations of their own performance and are asked to evaluate the performance of others through performance management systems within contexts of work intensification and a decade and a half of never-ending reform. However, faculty heads also face the challenge of the increased fragmentation implicit in the formal positioning of their role and the broadening of their responsibility. Fragmentation may also be seen as product of the wider policy context which emphasises efficiency and standardisation and the notion that progress may be achieved through the application of rational processes and procedures (Bottery, 2004). In resisting the pull towards fragmentation, faculty heads can work in ways which develop

trust and strengthen the relational by valuing the personal initiative of teachers and allowing leadership to emerge wherever it is found.

The challenge to faculty heads and their professional identities lies within the pull towards the technical and functionary role. To counter this requires them to find authentic ways of working (Ball, 2004). Hence, the boundaries of their practice are defined through their pedagogical roles rather than by an organisational faculty system which seeks to unify (Gunter, 2005). Thus, like all teachers, faculty heads' identities are intertwined with their work, their expertise, experience and knowledge and focused on the pedagogical (Busher & McKeown, 2005). From the data, it has been shown that faculty heads looked for meaning linked to their practice of teaching students. This meaning is not an imposed coherence, but evolves from the work of teachers in classrooms and is about teachers and their on-going learning (Lingard et al., 2003). It is also about finding meaning by allowing diversity to flourish and meaning to evolve out of the process of negotiating and re-negotiating (Sachs, 2003), rather than representing what is taught through predetermined artificial boundaries. So although restructuring agendas have the potential to de-skill, they may also provide opportunity for issues affecting teachers to be debated. This moves towards the notion of the "activist teacher professional" (Sachs, 2003) where values and principles are negotiated. This in turn has the potential for teachers to generate new ways of working together.

Faculty heads have positioned their work as social practice, where workplace interdependencies and altruistic values of caring, mutuality, reciprocity, and support were emphasised. Within intensified work environments, the tension lies between faculty heads doing the work themselves and distributing leadership so that work gets passed down the line. The formal positioning of the faculty head role within a line management model gives tacit legitimation to the practice of delegation. However, the faculty head can resist the pull toward capitalising on workplace interdependencies to allow teachers the social space to develop collegial ways of working and to allow for spontaneous forms of collaborative practice to emerge. Role intensification means the demands on a faculty head are great, and all participants provided examples of managed

practice, necessary to get the work done. Furthermore, there is a range of dilemmas which develop in managing the complexities of the role, each with its own challenges. In particular, for those working collaboratively within a large faculty structure across diverse departments, it has meant that the work needed to be highly managed and there was more pressure to formally distribute the work. This is more likely to lead to a process of "contrived collegiality" (Hargreaves, 1994, p. 195).

In contrast, collegial practice occurs spontaneously in ways which cannot be planned for or managed. However, where a faculty structure seeks to impose boundaries and meaning on teachers' practice, the data reveal that this can run counter to teachers' preferred ways of working. In contexts such as these teachers may resort to working around the edges of artificial structures (Thrupp, 1999). It is also worth asking why there is now such a gap in the research on the place of collegial relationships, when data from the faculty heads espoused both the value and positive effects of spontaneous interactions between teachers. We must question why over ten years have elapsed since Harris et al. (1995) and Sammons et al. (1997) completed their research on effective departments, where the findings were framed by the importance of a collegial approach.

Thus, a "politics of practice" would allow teachers to question their practice in ways that issues of power are examined in the context of agency and structure (Gunter, 2005, p. 55). So, a critique of practice may lead to the conclusion that the work of educational leadership linked to teaching and learning is not a "new goal" as Robinson (2004, p. 40) has claimed. Moreover, it may also determine that subject departments which represent traditional ways of school curriculum organisation may in fact represent formalised models or cultural artefacts which have naturally evolved out of teachers' social practice (Greenfield, 1975). Thus, Gronn (2003) acknowledges that collaborative practices within secondary school subject departments have been a

> *time-honoured way of distributing work and providing forums for numerous individuals, acting either singly or in collaboration, to display leadership. The point is that until recently, this possibility has not been recognised for what it is.* (p. 29)

However, it seems that a pedagogical view of leadership has somehow been lost sight of in the pre-occupation with transformational leadership styles and management models favouring structure over agency with the consequent positional separation of teachers from leaders (Gunter, 2005). The positioning of faculty heads outside of the social framework of the subject department means they face greater challenges to centre their work practice on pedagogy. This requires faculty heads to engage in leadership which critiques practice in their schools and in their work with other teachers requires rigorous evaluation, but this process also affirms their right to be knowledgeable about their work. This is essentially a dialogical political practice which is democratically negotiated and which questions the structures which seek to define that practice (Sachs, 2003). It then extends beyond local schools to the wider policy framework to question the application of policies and the exercise of power (Gunter, 2005; Sachs, 2003).

Recommendations

The recommendations below have been derived form the four areas identified as pertinent to the practice of faculty heads in their leadership role. The issues arising from the study in relation to these areas which need to be addressed are as follows:

1. That schools re-evaluate the purpose of a faculty structure. Faculty heads have positioned themselves as 'conduits' for senior management where their primary role may be seen as channelling information between senior management and other middle managers. Faculty heads placed more weight on the decision-making *process* than on the substantive contributions they were able to make. Thus, rigorous debate should be held about the place of participatory democracy and the place of discussion around educational issues leading to joint decision making (Sachs, 2003). This goes some way towards answering the question as to whether faculty heads and other curriculum middle managers have a genuine role to play in curriculum decision making.

2. That if a faculty structure is deemed the most practical way of managing and co-ordinating work within a large school, that faculties are allowed to develop out of teachers' social practice and alliances which have developed naturally. In this way, formal boundaries would reflect the social groupings which develop around teachers' discussions of classroom practice rather than an artificial coherence prescribed by documents from a distance.

3. That schools evaluate the management roles, functions and processes of the faculty structure, given that the data have shown that faculty heads expend considerable energy in co-ordinating and representing the work of subject departments within their faculties. The challenge lies in deciding how much of the work needs to be co-ordinated and whether the net could be widened so that a greater number of HoDs could represent themselves.

4. That further research is undertaken to address the gap in the recent literature around the place of collegial relationships which have been shown to develop outside of the formal vertical organisational structures. The current emphasis in the literature on distributed leadership has little to say about the importance and place of these workplace interdependencies, except in relation to sharing the work at a time of work intensification where leadership succession has become problematic. Moreover, there is some evidence in the data from this study to show that leadership tends to be concentrated, rather than distributed, in situations of high staff turnover and areas of teacher shortages.

5. That teachers and faculty heads critique their practice and the contexts in which they work through open debate and negotiation both within and across faculty boundaries. Thus, as "activist professionals" they have the agency to take up the challenge and re-centre their practice on the first order activities of teaching and learning (Sachs, 2003). By holding professional discussions in their places of work, faculty heads can make

their own expertise known and come to understand the expertise of others. This means they are better positioned to resist the pulls towards the technical and managerial roles.

Conclusion

These recommendations are challenging ones for faculty heads, particularly in environments of increased work intensification where the allocation of time (Ingvarson et al., 2005) is a recurring theme. Time is a key ingredient in enabling relationship building, the sharing of practice and working together to solve problems, all essential aspects in the social practice of building effective teams and professional communities. There is little enough leadership time for these essential tasks, let alone for the processes of doing research and negotiating and renegotiating work practices within contexts of diversity and complexity. So it is all too easy to just get the job done in the shortest time possible to make room for the next task. In this way the leadership role of faculty heads is too often crowded out within management systems too focussed on the management jobs rather than the social practice of leadership (Ingvarson et al., 2005). However, if the work is not questioned, the process of task completion is never-ending one which strips teachers of their agency and their work of its meaning (Gunter, 2005).

The recommendations are also challenging for principals, for they call for an evaluation of the faculty structures in secondary schools. Principals too are working within contexts of increased work intensification. So models which work to efficiently manage complex organisations and to streamline decision-making processes to effect change in schools can be very appealing. Furthermore, while a faculty structure may have been developed to remove boundaries and facilitate cross-department collaboration as was definitely the case for one of the schools in this study, it is more often used for managerialist ends. As Smyth (2001) states, solutions which lie in the pragmatic response are often necessary in the current policy framework and so the ideal of working within cultures of open collaboration referred to here as "attractive possibilities" move into the idealised and unattainable.

While it is one thing to espouse such apparently attractive possibilities, it is quite another to actually pull it off in real schools in a climate of outcomes measurement, quality assurance, school development plans, performance indicators, and increasingly muscular forms of inspection and appraisal. (Smyth, 2001, p. 168)

Nevertheless, principals, faculty heads and teachers continue to be committed to life-long learning and to the students who tomorrow will come through the doors of their classrooms. So it is incumbent on all teachers to "take the opportunity to control their work: its purposes, structure and development" (Gunter, 2005, p. 116). This begins with defining the practice of our work within our workplace and its structures, a challenge for all teachers within a highly regulated policy context seeking to define us as professionals who need to be managed (Codd, 2005). The task is particularly challenging for faculty heads since their formal role gives tacit agreement to the notion that a unitary management structure and the efficient management of others will provide solutions to complex educational problems. However, structures do not determine their practice and it is incumbent on faculty heads to exercise their agency through the social practice of shared inquiry to define the purposes of their work. This process of action and debate enhances the self-understanding of faculty heads. This has the potential to transform their practice by generating meaning in their work and to enhance the achievement of students both in their own schools and beyond (Sachs, 2003).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Interview schedule   (Principal)

1. How long has a faculty structure been in place in this school and have there been any changes to the structure since its implementation?

2. Were you in your current role when the faculty structure was established?

3. Please describe or illustrate the faculty structure in your school.

4. What was the thinking behind establishing a faculty structure?

    Prompts –
    7 Essential Learning Areas
    School size
    Communication and administration
    Small subject department isolation
    Subject integration

5. What was the consultation process in establishing the faculty structure?

    Prompts-
    Time frames
    Middle management consultation
    Appointments to role
    Number and constitution of faculties

6. In what ways do you see the faculty head role as distinctive from other curriculum middle managers?

7. What expectations do you have of a faculty head in their middle management role?

    Prompts-
    Priorities for these managers

8. What would you see as being the most important role or function of faculty heads?

9. From your perspective, has the faculty structure been a successful innovation?

APPENDIX B

Interview Schedule   (Faculty head)

1. How long have you been in your current role?

2. Were you a head of department prior to your current role? If so, in what ways is your current role different?

3. Please describe the structure of your faculty and the roles and responsibilities of those within it.

4. What is your perception of your role as head of faculty?

5. Does this differ in any way from your perception of your role as head of department?

6. If you had to prioritise, what would you see as being the most important aspect(s) of your role. Why?

7. In your current position, you have two roles, one as head of department and the other as head of faculty. How do you manage these two roles?

Prompts:
Complementary/distinctive
Time
Delegation/distributed leadership

8. Are there any tensions between your two middle management roles?

Prompts:

Role conflict
Priorities

9. How is the process of collaborative practice managed within your faculty?

Prompts:
What values inform this?

10. How is the process of collaborative practice managed within your department?

11. What aspects of the schools' middle management structure support collaborative practice?

Prompts:
Meeting cycles
Timetable
Time

12. Are there any aspects of the schools middle management structure which work against collaborative practice?

Prompts:
Isolation
Time
Hierarchy
Curriculum areas