

**THE ROLE AND EXPERIENCES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS WITH
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ZIMBABWE**

By

CHITAMBA, NORMAN

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SUPERVISOR: PROF. LC JITA

DECLARATION

I, Norman Chitamba, declare that the thesis I herewith submit for the degree qualification PhD in Education at the University of the Free State is my original work and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

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DATE

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DEDICATION

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ACRONYMS

AYP	ADEQUATE YEARLY PROGRAMME
DSI	DISTRICT SCHOOLS INSPECTOR
MBO	MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES
NASSEP	NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS
NCLB	NO CHILD LEFT BEHIND
PED	PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
PLAP	PERFORMANCE LAG ACTION PROGRAMME
SDA	SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION
SDC	SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE
USA	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA
ZIMASSET	ZIMBABWE AGENDA FOR SUSTAINABLE SOCIO- ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION
ZIMSEC	ZIMBABWE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL
'O' L	ORDINARY LEVEL
'A' L	ADVANCED LEVEL

ABSTRACT

Scholars across the globe agree that instructional leadership plays second fiddle only to teaching in improving students' achievement. Extant literature heralds the instructional leadership of the principal as the major determinant of students' outcome. School reform efforts have focused on the principal as the agent of change, at school, who leads teachers to levels of achievement. Although some principals strive, as much as they can, to discharge their instructional leadership role effectively, many are constrained by a retinue of other duties they are to perform. This study is inspired by the realisation of the distributed leadership construct which has gained currency.

The distributed leadership construct advocates more actors in instructional leadership. Deputy principals are second to the principals on the schools' hierarchical structure. The aim of the study was to unpack the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Specifically, the study focused on gaining insights into how deputy principals experience the practice of instructional leadership in selected schools of Zimbabwe. The study also focused on the challenges faced by deputy principals in enacting the instructional leadership role. The debate on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership is inconclusive. This study is an instalment that adds new knowledge to the discourse.

The study adopted a qualitative research approach and a case study research design to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. A sample of three deputy principals was purposively sampled for observations and multiple interviews.

Overall, the study concludes that deputy principals are instructional leaders who play a critical role towards teaching and learning and, above all, students' achievement.

The study established that deputy principals contribute towards visioning of the school through vision formulation, marketing and implementation. Visioning compels deputy principals to prioritise their activities and allocate resources accordingly.

Another finding of the study is that deputy principals enact the instructional leadership role of managing teaching and learning through supervision of lessons, monitoring students' progress, modelling good teaching behaviours, building a reading culture in the school and incentivising teachers.

Challenges faced by deputy principals in enacting the instructional leadership role include role ambiguity and lack of uniformity in their duties. Largely, the duties are dependent upon the principal one deputises.

It is recommended, for practice, that a collective approach to vision development be adopted. All stakeholders of the school should be mobilised in visioning the school to secure their commitment to it.

As a way of protecting instructional time, it is recommended for practice, that deputy principals introduce block scheduling that allows fewer classes each day for longer periods to offset loss of instructional time due to motions.

In view of the nature and varied duties at boarding schools, it is recommended to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education that two deputy principals, one responsible for operations and the other for instructional leadership be appointed.

It is further recommended to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education that there is urgent need to enact a policy that allows for the formation of an association of deputy principals to facilitate sharing of practices.

Further research about the role of deputy principals with professional communities is required.

Keywords: Deputy principal, principal, instructional leadership, distributed leadership.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions and objectives on the study: *The role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe*. It goes further to provide the theoretical and conceptual frameworks underpinning the study before discussing the methodology used to conduct the research. Briefly discussed are ethical considerations, delimitations and limitations of the study. Key terms of the study are defined and a summary of the chapter concludes chapter one.

1.2. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Instructional leadership as a construct in education can be traced back to the United States of America (USA) in the 1960s (Rigby, 2014). Bridges (1967) states that in the 1960s, instructional leadership was a mere practice without a theoretical basis. The effective schools' movement of the 1980s gave impetus to the spread of instructional leadership in academic discourses in the USA and the United Kingdom (UK) (Edmonds, 1979). Growing from an embryonic stage in the 1960s, instructional leadership reached maturation in the 1980s (Eubanks & Levine, 1983). Following a fading influence in the 1990s, instructional leadership reappeared with vitality owing to the reform era (Hallinger, 2015). The reform era increased access to education and made education a right and not a privilege (Rigby, 2014). From a general

view, as an American construct, instructional leadership had earned universal acceptance by the beginning of the millennium (Lunenburg, 2011).

Instructional leadership has a significant bearing on the success of a school because of the correlation of leader efficacy and students' outcome (Gupton, 2010; Marzano & Waters). Extant literature on school effectiveness from the 1980s to present, Hallinger & Heck (2010), Leithwood, Seashore Loius, Anderson & Wahlstrom (2012) indicate that the most important element for school effectiveness is school leadership. Instructional leadership refers to initiatives by the principal to create a healthy working atmosphere for teachers and intended outcomes for learners (Greenfield, 1985). Thus, instructional leadership works on teachers to improve students' performance. Instructional leadership is leadership rooted on the fundamental principle of supporting teachers by providing them with opportunities to learn and meet individual needs of the learners.

The Coleman Report (1966) cited in Rucker, Adam, Rucker and Rucker (2013), attributes student achievement to family circumstances. The Report argues that it is not the school circumstances but largely the family circumstances that determine the students' outcomes. Edmonds (1979), cited in Rucker *et al.* (2013), on the other hand, identifies instructional leadership by the principal as the major determinant of student outcome. Sammons & Bakkum (2011) argue that Edmonds' experiments nullify the Coleman Report. Weber (1971) cited by Hallinger (2015) argues that effective schools almost all had effective leadership. Leithwood & Riehl (2003) state that behind any successful school, there is strong leadership.

The principal plays a significant role in bringing about school changes (Harris, 2013). School reform efforts have, thus focused on the principal, as the agent of change at school, who leads staff, students and the community to levels of achievement (Lunenburg, 2011). There is no doubt that school principals provide leadership at the school level. Supovitz, Sirinides & May (2010) state that school principals have many responsibilities that affect the entire life of the school.

In a school, the principal is the instructional leader charged with the responsibility of achieving excellence. He/she is held answerable for the results in his/her school. The role of the principal in achieving student progress is ever increasing and expectations remain high (Ninni, 2010). Samkange (2012) points out that the school principal is charged with the responsibility of leading the teaching and learning process in the Zimbabwean context. Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Director's Circular Number 15 of 2006 states that the principal of the school is the only instructional leader at the school. On the school organogram, the deputy principal is second to the principal. Vick (2011) argues that assistant principals or what are usually called deputy principals or vice principals, have similar roles to principals. Consequently, they should also perform an instructional leadership role. Key players in instructional leadership are principals and deputy principals (Spillane & Mertz, 2015).

While so much has been written about principals, not as much has been about deputy principals (Spillane & Mertz, 2015). There is dearth of information about deputy principals. The assistant principal is one of the most under researched areas in existing literature. Literature has tended to

overlook the definite role of deputy principals (Armstrong, 2014; Cranston, 2013; Enomoto, 2012; Petrides, Jimes & Karaglan, 2014; Yu- kwong & Walker, 2014) because the principal was regarded as the super hero leader in control of all facets of school activities. The deputy principal is generally accepted as the abandoned participant and unremembered leader (Cranston, 2013). Accountability demands and the construct of distributed leadership have thrust the instructional leadership role of the deputy principal back to the mainstream. With increasing demands on improved learner achievements, the role of the deputy principal is likely to be prominent for school achievements. As Jita (2010) contends, school leadership is usually shared amongst many actors in a school.

While extant literature focuses on the instructional leadership role of the principal, the instructional leadership role of the deputy principal is under researched. A study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership is thus warranted and timely.

A Nation at Risk, a report produced by the National Commission on Excellence in Education in the USA, pointedly blamed the declining standards in US public schools squarely on school principals (Graham, 2013). One of the findings of the Commission on Excellence in Education was that schools were defaulting on their role of instilling study skills in learners (Commission, 1983). The National Commission on Excellence in Education further blames school principals for the mediocre standards of education in schools (Commission, 1983).

In the USA, the No Child Left Behind reform exerted a lot of pressure on schools to improve learner outcomes (Oleszewski, Shoho & Barnett, 2012). The net effect of this reform was that school leaders were held more accountable for their students' progress. In addition, the reform demanded schools to produce students who would be globally competitive. The demands of the reform required a new brand of leadership. The traditional view of the principal as the super-hero leader was gradually getting uncoordinated with global trends (Hallinger, 2015). School principals, with the nature of their work schedule, lack time to meet fully the expectations of the Nation at Risk and No Child Left Behind Reforms (Leithwood *et al.*, 2012). With the ever-increasing accountability demands on the part of principals, the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership becomes a topical issue for school achievements (Cranston, 2013). Armstrong (2012) argues that deputy principals are a critical resource to aid principals in their instructional leadership role. This support becomes more critical in view of the fact that principals are usually overwhelmed by a host of other duties. Deputy principals join school leadership because they hope to be leaders with a mission and purpose (Hunt, 2011) and they are actively engaged in the daily operations of the school as they deal with teachers including, supervising them to improve students' achievements (Hutton, 2012).

In Zimbabwe, besides the principal, no officer in the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education has the obligation and authority to carry out instructional leadership at school level (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). Muranda, Tshabalala & Gazimbe (2015) state that the principal of a school, by virtue of delegated authority from the Ministry and Permanent Secretary is in undisputed control of the school.

The latest educational reform in Zimbabwe is the 'Updated Curriculum' launched in 2015 (Herald, 26 September 2015). The 'Updated Curriculum', also referred to as the Zero Draft Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education, aims to improve teaching and learning in Zimbabwean schools (The Zimbabwe Curriculum Review: Concept Paper, 2015). Implementation of the curriculum reform started in January 2016. The reform views education as a vehicle for initiating change and adopts the school as the zone of operation for those changes. One of the fundamental changes in the 'Updated Curriculum' is the introduction of continuous assessment as a form of evaluation for learners (The Zimbabwe Curriculum Review: Concept Paper, 2015). Furthermore, the concept paper (2015) states that assessment was summative.

At school level, the principal is the officer charged with implementing educational reforms (Muranda *et al.*, 2015). Adoption and adaptation of the new curriculum in Zimbabwean schools, thus largely rests with the principals. They attend national, provincial and district meetings and are expected to cascade the new ideas to their schools. The one-man heroic school leader perched at the hierarchy and exclusively monopolising decisions has proved unsustainable (Glanz, 1994). Spillane & Mertz, (2015) argue for distribution of tasks and activities across many players within the school that are focused on school improvement. The deputy principal is a critical actor in instructional leadership (Spillane & Mertz, 2015).

Bowora & Mpofu (2000) argue that principals face a number of challenges in the discharge of their instructional leadership role. They cite work overload as one of the challenges. The principal is accountable for everything that

goes on in the school. This may be insurmountable for one man if students' improvement is the ultimate goal. Allocating instructional leadership role to the deputy principal could go a long way towards overall students' achievement.

According to the bureaucratic structure of the school, the deputy principal is second to the principal yet as Kwan & Walker (2012) observe, there is very little research undertaken on the deputy principal. Kaplan & Owings (2010) argue that assistant principals have not been popularised in scholarly journals, while Weller & Weller (2002) contend that there is no universal role definition and job description for the assistant principals. Hendricks (2014) states that instructional leadership tasks are associated with people whose positions include the principal, deputy principal or leader teacher who engage in supervision and curriculum development. The deputy principal is, thus part of the instructional leadership group at school level and it is imperative that the instructional leadership functions are distributed between multiple organisation members. The construct of distributed leadership holds that instructional leadership is a shared responsibility (Spillane & Mertz, 2015), and therefore, deputy principals should be seen as an integral part of the instructional leadership team of a school.

The present study sought to explore the instructional leadership role and practices of deputy principals of secondary schools in Zimbabwe, in order to unpack their perceptions, beliefs and understandings of their role of instructional leadership as well as how they experience the role and practices they engage in, in pursuit of improved teaching and learning in their schools. Symbolic interactionism will be used to understand the leadership role of

these men and women who are part of the leadership team of schools but who are relegated into oblivion. Symbolic interactionism argues that human beings develop meanings in their social setting through interacting with others (Blaise & Blaise, 2010). The study seeks to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. A clear conception of the functions of the deputy principals will go a long way towards resolving the dilemma in which they find themselves, in pursuit of improving the quality of teaching and learning in schools.

1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Bowora & Mporu (2000) observe that internationally, as well as locally, all schools and education authorities are being increasingly held accountable to the public for the education they provide. Instructional leadership of the principal has for a long time been heralded as the panacea to low students' achievement (Bush & Glover, 2014; Hendricks, 2014). This view sharply contrasts the distributed leadership model. Spillane & Mertz (2015) observe that leading and administration of schools may not be exclusive to one man/woman but inclusive of many individuals. Jita (2010) also advocates for more players in discharging the instructional leadership role. It can be argued that the role of the instructional leader at school may not be limited to the principal alone. The one-man leadership style crowds out many talents and skills of deputy principals and leaves these talents untapped. Muranda *et al.*, (2015) recommend that deputy principals be incorporated into instructional leadership role to supplement efforts by principals who tend to be overstretched and overwhelmed with work.

Yu-kwong & Walker (2010) point out that despite the fact that deputy principals occupy a critical position in the school, research on them largely remains anecdotal. There is paucity of information on the instructional leadership role of the deputy principal. Marshall & Hooley (2006) contend that there has been limited research into the vice principalship or deputy principalship. Literature on the instructional leadership role of the deputy principals is small and scarce (Armstrong, 2014) despite the fact that they are engaged with the day-to-day operations of the school as they work with teachers (Oleszweski., *et al*, 2012). Spillane & Mertz, (2015) argue that the instructional leadership role of principals is very critical as it aids that of their principals. It became imperative for this study to examine the instructional leadership role of deputy principals in Zimbabwe in order to unpack their perceptions, understandings and practices in pursuit of improved teaching and learning in their schools.

1.4. THE MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

The main research question for this study is, “*How do deputy principals experience instructional leadership roles in Zimbabwe?*”

1.4.1. Research Questions

To answer the main research question, the following sub-questions were formulated:

1. What are some of the practices of instructional leadership that deputy principals in Zimbabwe engage in?
2. How do deputy principals experience the practice of instructional leadership?

3. What are the opportunities and challenges of instructional leadership practice?
4. How can the experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe be understood and/or explained?

1.5. AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The current study sought to explore deputy principals' role and experiences with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. More precisely, the research aims at discovering deputy principals' conceptions of their instructional leadership practices and how they create meanings of these experiences. In this study, the researcher precisely targeted deputy principals because he was keen on their instructional leadership role and experiences and their understanding of those experiences. As a result, their role and experiences provided the frame of reference. Deputy principals' role and experiences were explored.

1.5.1. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

- Identify the instructional leadership practices that deputy principals in Zimbabwe engage in.
- Explore and document the deputy principals' experiences of the practices of instructional leadership in Zimbabwe.
- Unravel the opportunities and challenges of instructional leadership practice.
- Construct an account of how the experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership can be understood and/or explained.

The above-stated objectives were addressed by exploring deputy principals' instructional leadership role and experiences. Deputy principals extensively discussed their role, experiences and practices of instructional leadership. They also discussed their challenges and opportunities in order to play a more significant role in instructional leadership.

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The 21st Century has drawn a lot of interest in educational leadership because it is generally believed that leadership is second to teaching in improving students' outcomes (Oplatka, 2010). Zimbabwe has initiated reforms like the 'Updated Curriculum' and Performance Lag Action Programme (PLAP) which demand accountability on the part of schools. These reforms advocate for effective instructional leadership. The instructional leadership of the principal may not always be able to meet the accountability demands in schools (Hallinger, 2015). The focus on deputy principals' role and experiences was pertinent in that, on the schools' organisational structure, deputy principals are second to principals and hence are integral to students' achievement in schools. A distributed leadership approach that encompasses the deputy principal may enhance students' improvement in schools. Deputy principals engage teachers daily yet their instructional leadership role remains miniscule (Glanz, 1994).

The present research on the role and experiences of deputy principals is significant in many ways. At a personal level, the motivation to carry out this research emanated from my experiences as deputy principal at two primary schools and two high schools. Since then, I have developed a passion for the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Secondly, over the

years, there has been growing interest in educational management as a field of inquiry. While scholars are generally agreed on the instructional leadership role of principals, they are not with regards to deputy principals (Glanz, 1994). This should be a concern for instructional leadership scholars.

As a deputy principal at both primary and high schools, I have interacted with many deputy principals from other schools, districts and provinces. From my interaction with these practitioners, there appears no standard and universal role for deputy principals. Each deputy principal's role appeared to depend largely on their principals. This lack of uniformity in the role of deputy principals ignited my interest to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. As a deputy principal, the researcher can appreciate the dilemma of deputy principals when they are described as "squandered resource" (Harvey, 1994). The responsibility of deputy principals continues to be ill-defined and ambiguous (Martinez, 2011). Accordingly, the study was designed to help broaden my conceptions and insights on deputy principals as instructional leaders. There was, therefore, a professional development purpose to the study.

On the research front, I was motivated to make a meaningful contribution to the development of both theory and practice about the role of deputy principals in instructional leadership. In addition, the study hopes to stimulate other scholars to conduct further research on the instructional leadership of deputy principals. It is also envisaged, through this study, that policy makers will have at their disposal, insights to make informed choices on how to optimise deputy principals for the improvement of classroom teaching and learner achievement.

1.7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Symbolic interactionism as postulated by George Herbert Mead and Charles Cooley and coined by Herbert Blumer informed this study (Oliver, 2012). Symbolic interactionism is the manner we translate and allocate meaning to the world around us through our translations (Mackinnon, 2005). The theory emphasises that shared meanings come from interaction between humans. It pays greater attention on how human beings understand their world from their unique perspective. Key to symbolic interactionism is the notion that human beings use language and symbols in their interaction. People develop symbols that explain the world around them in their view. These meanings develop from interactions with the society. Therefore, if one wants to understand the set of behaviour patterns of the society, he/she needs to understand the symbols.

Oliver (2012) identifies ten tenets of symbolic interactionism. These tenets include the importance of negotiation, that is, the process through which meanings are developed, the importance of the natural environment in comprehending meaning, use of symbols, self-concept, individuality and small scale interaction.

Symbolic interactionism is concerned with the use of symbols in human communication and interaction. Human beings use symbols as reflected in the use of language and signs. Sandstrom & Fine (2003, p. 218) note that,

People are unique creatures because of their ability to use symbols. Because people use and rely upon symbols, they do not respond to stimuli in an automatic way; instead they give meaning to the stimuli they experience and then act in terms of these meanings.

This makes human behaviour unique from the behaviour of all the other animals or organisms that act on instinct or reflex. Before responding to stimuli in the environment, human beings give meaning to that stimuli then use symbols to respond.

Interviewing and observing deputy principals enact instructional leadership role involves creation, interpretation and negotiation of symbols and their meanings with the researcher, thus making symbolic interactionism a suitable theoretical framework for this study.

Small scale interaction is another feature of symbolic interactionism. I found symbolic interactionism to be the most suitable theoretical framework for this case study, which focused on small-scale interaction with three deputy principals rather than a large population of deputy principals. The study explored how deputy principals interact with teachers and other stakeholders and create meanings giving the study an interactionist inclination.

Symbolic interactionism also emphasises the importance of individuality. Individuality recognises the importance of individual difference (Mackinnon, 2005). This study recognised that each deputy principal is different from the other, implying that even when they enact the same instructional leadership role, they may do it differently. The meanings deputy principals attach to their instructional leadership practices varies from one deputy principal to another depending on their background, setting and context in which they enact the role.

The importance of the natural environment in comprehending meaning is of cardinal importance to interactionists (Blaise & Blaise, 2010). The concept of natural environment stresses the fact that activities do not happen in mechanical manner. Human behaviour is always located. Human activities together with assumptions and interpretations on which they are premised, are based in our perception of the environment.

In my study, deputy principals were observed and interviewed at their schools, their natural environment. This enabled gathering of thick and rich descriptions of their role and experiences in situ. This study incorporated these tenets since the focus of the study is getting meanings constructed by deputy principals in their role with instructional leadership. The study focused on investigating deputy principals' understanding of their instructional leadership role towards enhancing students' achievement in schools.

1.8. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework underpinning the study is two-pronged, that is, instructional leadership and distributed leadership. The two frameworks shall be defined and their utility for this study explained. Globally and locally, leadership has been of particular concern because leaders take responsibility for the success of their schools (Horng & Loeb, 2010). Hallinger (2015) defines instructional leadership as the principal's influence on classroom interaction and ultimately student learning. With instructional leadership, the principal indirectly influences student achievement through the teacher. The principal directly interacts with the classroom teacher with the aim of improving instruction. For Hoy & Miskel (2012), instructional leadership is leadership that stresses the importance of teaching and

learning as core business. Instructional leaders are more concerned with learner progress. Horng & Loeb (2010) argue that such leadership can come from school leaders that include deputy principals. Blaise, Blaise & Phillips (2010) list the following instructional leadership practices as important to instructional leaders; classroom observation, frequent feedback, walkthroughs, giving suggestions and modelling effective instruction. In Zimbabwe, the Director's Circular Minute No. 15 of 2006 emphasises the role of the principal as the only person performing the instructional leadership role. Internationally, most research from the 1980s on instructional leadership focussed on the principal and described him/her as the only person to perform an instructional leadership role (Marishane, 2011). Literature on the instructional leadership of the principal reveals that principals often have less time as they are preoccupied with managerial functions that include public relations, meetings and other unexplained incidents that arise at school.

This leads to the framework of distributed leadership. Instructional leadership role should thus include other school leaders like deputy principals (Baloglue, 2011; Horng & Loeb, 2010;). Bolden (2011) argues that distributed leadership should be conceived as a collaborative social process through the interface of many people. At school level, leadership involves assigning roles to all organisation members (Spillane & Mertz, 2015). Elmore (2002) states that distributed leadership is assigning tasks to the whole organisation. Baloglue (2011) also sees a relationship between assigning leadership roles and capacity development. Spillane & Mertz (2015) sum up the benefits of distributed leadership as teacher development and student improvement.

Glickman, Gordon & Gordon (2010), posit that instructional leaders are those designations, such as principals, deputy principals and teacher leaders who are seized with ensuring delivery of instruction at school. Furthermore, Baloglu (2011) observes that the instructional leadership role goes beyond the activities of the principal to encompass other leaders. This locates the deputy principal firmly within the instructional leadership team, not least because he/she is second to the principal on the organogram. The deputy principal is, therefore, an instructional leader who should also influence student learning through the teacher. The deputy principal's position in the hierarchy of the school allows him/her to evaluate teachers, manage school goals and develop staff. A growing body of research suggests that instructional leadership should be a shared responsibility between principals and other school stakeholders (Jita, 2010; Spillane & Mertz, 2015). Although Jita does not single out assistant principals in his research, he insinuates their involvement. Glickman *et al.* (2010), cited in Hendricks (2014), are more direct in identifying the role of the deputy principal with regard to instructional leadership.

Similarly, Spillane & Mertz (2015) posit the need for different role players to have a stake in school leadership for the improvement of teaching and learning. Distributed leadership entails that leadership is not the province of an individual, but a domain that should allow participation by all organisational members. Hallinger & Heck (2010) have highlighted the positive influence on student achievement when different agents exercise leadership.

Kaplan & Owings (2010) state that shared engagement between principals and deputy principals facilitate improved teacher performance, which ultimately leads to improved student achievement. The distributed leadership framework was, thus more suitable to enable the study to explore the instructional leadership role of deputy principals. The study sought to unpack the understandings and practices of deputy principals in influencing student achievement. Chapter 2 elaborates further on these concepts of instructional leadership and distributed leadership.

1.9. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research approach was used to study the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. A qualitative research was deemed suitable because I wanted to gather rich and thick graphic data on deputy principals' experiences with instructional leadership (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2015). I sought to understand how deputy principals enacted their instructional leadership role. The epistemological paradigm I used in this study is interpretivism. Interpretivism unravels reality through the participant's expressions and experiences (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2015). It gives researchers an opportunity to view the world through the experiences of participants. In answering research questions, the researcher who uses interpretivism paradigm uses the experiences from participants to interpret his/her understanding from collected data. Since my study sought to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, the interpretivism paradigm was considered most suitable. I did not want to get answers to my research questions in a structured way but from deputy principals who experienced the practice of instructional leadership.

The theoretical framework underpinning this study is symbolic interactionism as postulated by George Herbert Mead 1863-1931. Essentially, symbolic interactionism states that people generate meanings by interacting among themselves and society (Salvini, 2010). An understanding of how deputy principals generate meanings of their role and experiences and act accordingly, can best be done through a qualitative approach (Berg, 2014).

The research site and participants for the study were purposively sampled. Patton (2002) posits that purposive sampling is used to choose information-rich respondents about a specific phenomenon. In purposive sampling, a researcher employs his/her judgment when selecting participants of the population (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Sound judgment is used to select cases that address research questions (Suri, 2011). I chose Gutu District as a research site for this study because it was regarded as the district with highest number of substantive deputy principals out of the seven districts of Masvingo Province. Three deputy principals were chosen from three schools because I regarded them as having information required to address the key questions of the study. In addition to being substantive, deputy principals had over three years' experience in their positions.

Interviews and observations were used as tools to gather qualitative data to answer research questions for the study (Ritchie & Lewis, 2013). Three deputy principals were interviewed and observed on their role and experiences with instructional leadership. Interviews assisted in gathering information on the deputy principals' instructional leadership practices, how they experience the practice of instructional leadership and how their beliefs and practices can be understood and/or explained (research questions 1-3).

Observations of deputy principals experiencing the practice of instructional leadership provided the researcher with first-hand information on how they interacted and performed their instructional leadership role. The data gathered were instrumental for triangulation.

Qualitative data collected for this research were transcribed, coded and analysed. Details of transcriptions are provided in chapter four. Detailed descriptions were given to lend credibility to the research. Chapter three provides details of methodology and ethical considerations.

1.10. AN OUTLINE OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

TITLE: The role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe.

Table 1.1 below shows the research methodology for the study.

Table 1.1: Outline of research methodology

FEATURE	DESCRIPTION
Epistemological paradigm	Interpretivism
Methodological approach	Qualitative research approach
Theoretical framework	Symbolic interactionism
Research design	Case study research design
Pilot study	1 observation; 1 interview
Selection of participants	Purposive sampling was used to select the research site and the participants. Gutu District was used as the research site out of

	the seven districts of Masvingo Province. Three deputy principals from three high schools were selected to participate in this study.
Data collection methods	Semi-structured interviews audiotaped with three deputy principals. Non-participant observations with deputy principals. Field notes.
Data documents	Audio recordings Transcriptions Field notes
Data analysis	Audiotaped data were transcribed and coded using predetermined themes.
Ethical considerations	Informed consent Voluntary participation Anonymity Confidentiality of participants
Quality criteria of study	Credibility Transferability Dependability Confirmability

1.11. QUALITY MEASURES

To ensure trustworthiness of the findings of the study, observations and interviews were used. Trustworthiness was also ensured by observing and

interviewing three deputy principals. The issue of credibility was addressed by proffering arguments from the results of the research and ensuring that the results and interpretations matched gathered data (Merriam, 2002). The research supervisor aided credibility by making timely reviews during the period of writing the thesis.

Transferability was accounted for by detailing the research methods in an effort to make the study amenable to other contexts. A research should deliberately strive to obtain diversity during the sampling (Merriam, 2002).

Confirmability was guaranteed by using many sources of data to allow authentication of data gathered. Riege (2003) posits that studies should induce a string of evidence, which can be taken to respondents for confirmation. This study used observations and interviews to solicit responses from deputy principals.

As a deputy principal investigating the role of deputy principals, it was possible to carry my own biases and idiosyncrasies, however, this could have been reduced by the description of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study and the use of different sources of data. The quality measures discussed helped the study findings become reliable.

1.12. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

A high quality research observes ethics (Merriam, 2002). Getting an ethical clearance letter from the University of the Free State's Faculty of Education was the initial step towards observing ethical conduct of the study. In brief, respondents were guaranteed from harm by ensuring their anonymity. Their

rights to consent were protected as they freely participated and consented out of their volition. Throughout the study, the researcher exhibited a reasonable degree of integrity and honesty ensuring high quality research (Punch, 2005).

1.13. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study was concerned with the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The respondents were deputy principals from high schools. Deputy principals of primary schools, parents, teachers, pupils, schools' inspectors and other stakeholders were not the concern of this study in terms of how they perceived deputy principals' instructional leadership role. The study focused on three high schools in Gutu District of Zimbabwe. Three deputy principals participated in the study. The deputy principals were purposively sampled to include the substantive and experienced, who held the positions for not less than three years. This was intended to get information-rich subjects (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2015).

Three participants were interviewed four times. The first interview lasted approximately an hour. The other interviews lasted about 25 minutes. Semi structured interview was used to elicit information from deputy principals. I also observed deputy principals enact their instructional leadership role for a duration lasting a week per each deputy principal. I took comprehensive field notes on how deputy principals interacted. This allowed me an opportunity to clearly understand the various instructional leadership practices deputies partook and how they also interacted.

1.14. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

According to Simon & Goes (2013), limitations are outside forces beyond the researcher's control and which limit the transferability of the study. Appreciably, notwithstanding the fact that this study provides pertinent insights into the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, there are inherent limitations to it. Respondents of the study were drawn from one district, Gutu District. Masvingo has seven districts. Each district may be unique, limiting the generalisation of the findings. Nonetheless, efforts were made to ameliorate the effect of these limitations. To counteract limitations, purposive sampling was used. Symbolic interactionists contend that it may be possible to come up with a representative sample by employing sound judgment (Patton, 2002).

Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2012) further argue that purposive sampling can be useful to come up with a restricted number of participants that can be used as primary data sources. Deputy principals were sampled to include substantive deputy principals who had served in their capacities for not less than three years. This was deliberately done to get information-rich subjects (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2015).

The other limitation related to the duration of the study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. The time to carry out the research on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe could have been limited. As a way of mitigating this challenge, the researcher followed stringent timeframes to meet set deadlines.

1.15. DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen & Razavieh (2010), suggest that uncommon terms referred to in the research should be defined and clarified for the benefit of the reader. The following terms are defined to assist in comprehending the operationalisation of terms in the study:

Role

Refers to behaviour associated with a position in an organisation (Masuku, 2011). It can be understood as behaviour linked to a position.

Deputy principal

Refers to an assistant principal or deputy head; the second position in the bureaucratic structure of a school. Someone delegated school administrative duties by the principal (Khalid, 2014). In this study, the deputy principal is also referred to as deputy head or vice principal.

Principal

The principal is also known as the headmaster or head teacher; the first position in the bureaucratic structure of the school. Blase, Blasé & Phillips (2010) describe a principal as a person who institutionalises and perpetuates a school climate that promotes student growth.

Instructional leadership

Hallinger (2015) refers to instructional leadership as the provision of resources to teachers with the sole purpose of improving student

achievement. Instructional leadership largely influences learner outcomes indirectly.

Masvingo province

Masvingo is one of the ten provinces in Zimbabwe. The province is divided into seven districts. This study was conducted in the Masvingo, Zaka and Gutu Districts of Masvingo Province.

Secondary school

Post-primary educational institutions that admit pupils between 8-13 years. The schools provide formal education for Forms 1-6.

Distributed leadership

Refers to leadership that is understood as a collaborative social process as opposed to trait theories that focus on personality traits and features of leaders (Spillane & Mertz, 2015). Distributed leadership enjoins multiple actors in instructional leadership (Jita, 2010). It emphasises that instructional leadership is not a preserve of the principal alone but other actors, such as the deputy principal.

1.16. OUTLINE OF THE CHAPTERS

The study is arranged into five (5) chapters. Each chapter discusses a particular feature of the study. Given below are brief salient concerns of each chapter.

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

This chapter addresses the problem and its setting. It sets the background to the study, the problem statement, the aim of the research and research questions that shape the research focus.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Reviews literature related to the study. The conceptual and theoretical frameworks underpinning the study are outlined. Symbolic interactionism as a theoretical framework will also be discussed.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The chapter presents the methodology used to collect data. The research approach, design, sample and sampling procedures are discussed. It also addresses data gathering instruments, data presentation and ethical considerations.

Chapter 4: Findings and analysis of data

Chapter 4 analyses and discusses data on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership.

Chapter 5: Discussion, conclusion and recommendations

This is the last chapter. It presents a summary of the whole study, draws conclusions based on the findings of the research and proffers recommendations and suggestions for future research.

1.17. CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 has set forth the problem that stimulated this research. I argue that the instructional leadership of the deputy principal is critical for the

overall improvement of students' achievement. I further argue that there is a gap in scholarship on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. There is dearth of literature on the instructional leadership role of the deputy principal. Existing literature focuses on the instructional leadership role of the principal. I also posited, in this chapter, that this study contributes to knowledge on the instructional leadership of the deputy principal. The chapter also presented the aim, research questions, and objectives of the study and the significance of the study. Moreover, this chapter contains the research methodology used, delimitations and limitations of the study. The study adopted a qualitative approach. The approach was considered suitable since it was intended to generate qualitative data. This chapter also examined the theoretical framework that informs the study. Definitions of key terms of the study were provided. Conclusively, the chapter has given an outline of the chapters of the entire study. The next chapter, chapter 2, provides a review of related literature as well as the conceptual framework underpinning the study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter delves in the related literature on the instructional leadership role of deputy principals locally and globally. Precisely, the chapter discusses the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. This includes the models of instructional leadership adopted internationally. Furthermore, the chapter examines the dimensions of instructional leadership. The chapter explores the instructional tasks for instructional leaders. Moreover, the chapter discusses the conceptual frameworks underpinning the study on the role and experiences with instructional leadership and outlines the theoretical framework adopted as a lens for the study. The chapter is concluded with a chapter summary.

2.2. MEANING OF LEADERSHIP

Management and leadership are often used interchangeably, yet there are subtle differences (Algahtani, 2014). Although the overriding goal of management and leadership is to gain control of people and influence them, they entail a different set of activities.

Rose & Bramble (2012) point out that leaders offer direction and help chart the way forward for the organisation. Leaders have a vivid mental picture of the direction the organisation should take. They have insight for the future. Leadership seeks perpetual change to sustain organisations (Mullins, 2010).

In other words, leaders view the posterity of the organisation in the face of continuous change.

According to Lunenburg (2011), a distinction between leadership and management exists since managers pursue the vision statement established by the leaders to create strategies, calendars and mobilise resources to meet the vision. For him, managers make things doable. Rose and Bramble (2012) acknowledge that leadership skills and management skills are distinct, although they are required for the prosperity of the organisation.

Bass (2010) supports the aforementioned view, stating that leadership and management are not compatible. Lunenburg (2011) also argues that managers and leaders are a critical amalgam to an organisation, despite the fact that each contributes differently. Algahtani (2014) argues that leaders are proponents of change, while managers are champions of the maintenance of the present state of affairs.

Rose & Bramble (2012) posit that leadership skills and managerial skills are crucial to the prosperity of the organisation. Leadership skills and management skills play a complementary role towards the survival of the organisation (Kotter, 1988). Algahtani (2014) summarises the behaviour of leaders and managers illustrated in Table 2.1 as follows:

Table 2.1: Differences between a leader and a manager

Leader	Manager
Experimental, creative keen to discover new things	Comfortable with the status quo
The leader seeks unfamiliar solutions	Copies previous events and trends
Emphasises employees of the organisation	Bureaucratic
-The leader periodically examines the socio-political landscape	Deals with short term events
The leader questions the existing state of affairs	Content with prevailing situations

(Source: Algahtani, 2014)

Drucker (1999:29) sums up the debate on leadership and management by saying management deals with doing issues correctly and leadership is “doing correct issues”.

From the discussion above, it follows that the 21st Century requires a new breed of leaders; principals who are armed with skills and competencies to face the tumultuous, turbulent and unstable cross currents that seem to collude against them (Lunenburg, 2011). The concept of instructional leadership is discussed below.

2.3. INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Historically, the concept of instructional leadership emerged in the realm of education in the 1950s as a factor to improve student performance (Hallinger, 2015). By the 1980s, it had become pervasive, as research had observed its effects on school effectiveness (Mafuwane, 2012).

Many definitions of instructional leadership have been advanced in an attempt to define the role of the principal. Masuku (2011) concurs with Nkobi (2008)'s view that instructional leadership is a concept that strives to improve the teachers' effectiveness and ultimately improve student learning. Retelle (2010) shares this view stating that instructional leadership targets teaching and learning.

For Jones, Shannon & Weigel (2014), instructional leadership relates to those activities engaged in by the principal to create a conducive climate for teaching and learning. In other words, in instructional leadership, the principal plays a supportive role to teachers and students by providing resources that promote effective teaching and learning. Jita & Mokhele (2013) concur with the above view when they also describe instructional leadership as the principal directly interacting with teachers and groups of teachers. Duze (2012) supports the view of instructional leadership directly working with teachers when he defines instructional leadership as candid and clever behaviours that importantly affect pedagogics and ultimately student learning.

Hallinger (2015) goes a step further in his definition of instructional leadership by identifying the steps taken by the principal in engaging

instructional leadership. He identifies the steps as observation of instruction, staff development and curriculum interpretation. Harvey & Sheridan (2012) add the following activities as the principal's role: giving direction, providing resources and supporting teachers for the enhancement of teaching and learning in schools.

Instructional leadership is critical to improving student achievement (Hoy & Miskel, 2012). According to the Director's Circular Minute Number 15 of 2006, instructional leadership is the main function of the school head in Zimbabwe. Instructional leadership can be understood in many different ways (Nkobi, 2008). However, what is critical in all definitions is the general observation that this leadership works on teachers to improve student achievement.

The National Association of Elementary School Principals (2010) describes instructional leadership as the process when teachers meet frequently to reflect on their work and engage in problem-solving on matters related to student performance. Zepeda (2013) emphasises problem solving in his definition when he states that instructional leadership involves solving the problems that teachers encounter in delivering instruction. Lunenburg (2011) observes that in delivering instruction, teachers face challenges. It is these challenges that instructional leadership seeks to solve when teachers meet in groups as professional communities.

Valentine & Prater (2011) view instructional leadership as the role of the principal. They define instructional leadership as a role performed by the principal when he/she, not only provides resources to teachers to improve

pedagogy, but also when he/she shares his/her vision with them. The focus of instructional leadership is to improve student performance. Mafuwane (2012) perceives instructional leadership as motivational. Manaseh (2016) defines instructional leadership as actions taken by the principal to motivate teachers so that they improve student performance. Ndoziya (2014) concurs that instructional leadership is located in the position of the school head.

Spillane, Halverson & Diamond (2004) also consider the view of instructional leadership as related to the provision of resources when they define instructional leadership as the provision of resources to create an environment that maximises teaching and learning. Instructional leadership typically focuses on the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students. For Masuku (2011), instructional leadership is working in conjunction with teachers to improve student outcomes. Principally, instructional leadership works directly with teachers so that teachers' teaching improves and positively influences students. Instructional leadership prioritises learning.

The critical figure in instructional leadership is the teacher, who is tasked to deliver positive behaviour that promotes student learning. This fact is succinctly embraced by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2010), which defines instructional leadership as a situation in which teachers meet frequently and collaboratively to discuss work-related issues that have a direct bearing on pupils' learning.

A better perception and appreciation of instructional leadership is best illustrated in models. Models of instructional leadership have developed over

the past two decades (Hunter, 2016). Duke (1997) emphasises the importance of models in explaining the role of instructional leadership in promoting instruction.

2.4. EVOLUTION OF THE POSITION OF DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

In the 19th Century, schools in the United States of America were managed by ward boards, superintendents and principals (Glanz, 1994). There were no functional bureaucratic structures. The position of deputy principal did not have a formal job description. However, the turn of the 19th Century, brought a semblance and formalisation in the school system (Burchfield, 2015). Superintendents replaced boards in the administration ward of schools. They had a clear job description. Superintendents were accountable for all school activities.

Between 1894 and 1920, there was phenomenal growth in enrolments in the USA (Glanz, 1994). State school enrolments rose by 50% from approximately 14,5 million to upwards of 21 million students. School enrolments also rose due to industrialisation and urbanisation. Rapid growth in enrolment had a bearing on the responsibilities of superintendents. They were overwhelmed with duties, leading to the delegation of these duties to school principals. Oleszewski, Shoho & Barnett (2012) describe some of the duties delegated to principals as supervision of lessons, inducting newly qualified teachers, organising school functions and preparing duty rosters.

As school enrolment continued to surge, so did the number of principals. As a consequence of increasing enrolments, principals became over-burdened with work. New management positions needed to be created to meet the

challenge of the ever-increasing responsibilities faced by principals. Glanz (1994) notes the creation of special supervisors and general supervisors.

2.5. SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Oleszewski *et al.* (2012) describe special supervisors as classroom practitioners who were chosen by the principal based on outstanding performance in the classroom. They were delegated the duty of inducting inexperienced teachers. Special supervisors were mostly women who had no formal training in administration. They were not evaluative and because of that, were generally more acceptable to, and respected by teachers. Once chosen to serve as special supervisors, they relinquished the responsibility of teaching to focus on inducting newly appointed teachers.

2.6. GENERAL SUPERVISORS

General supervisors were strictly males whose main responsibility was to assist the principal in the administration of the school. They played a management function in the school. General supervisors observed lessons and evaluated teachers. They also wrote narrative reports on teachers. However, they did not assist teachers in the delivery of lessons. Consequently, teachers disliked them because of their supervisory role. Teachers viewed them as inspectors, whose express mission was fault-finding.

The need to create more functional, efficient and effective administration necessitated a further rationalisation of the duties of the general supervisor. The position of special supervisors was abolished in favour of general supervisors. The rationale for the abolition of the post of special supervisors

was to create a lean structure as opposed to a bloated one (Burchfield, 2015). The abolition resulted in layering the hierarchical structure of the school and consolidating the position of general supervisors. The general supervisor was to be the assistant principal (Mattocks, 2016). Koru (1993), aptly states that the assistant principal was a delegate of the principal. The position of the assistant principal was, therefore, introduced out of the need and desire to assist the principal who was overstretched with work. The position was created out of expediency. Marshall & Hooley (2006) argue that the position was spawned in an environment of ambiguity that lacked focus and a philosophical base. The position of principal was reactive rather than proactive.

Educational reforms in the USA and the attendant demands that ensued can be attributed to the consolidation of the position of assistant principal. A Nation at Risk, a report on education in USA revealed glaring shortcomings in the education system (Woods, 2012). The report laments the deteriorating state of the education system in the USA. Woods (2012) quotes President Ronald Reagan as emphasising that the USA, once a beacon of excellence in education, was being overtaken and surpassed by other nations. Schools, in the report, were accused of having lost sight of their mandates and that the nation was at risk of ratcheting into oblivion.

Woods (2012) describes the signs that the nation was at risk, namely, international students' achievements were declining, average students' achievement of high school students in standardised tests were a record low and there was a general decline in maths and science scores.

The National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983), cited in the United States Department of Education Report (2014), makes specific recommendations to deal with the Nation at Risk. The report recommended that principals should play a pivotal role in improving academic performance in their schools. School boards were advised to deliberately distribute leadership skills at school level.

School boards, administrators and teachers were entreated to work collaboratively. Significantly, the recommendations point to the consolidation and empowerment of the position of the assistant principal (Woods, 2012). It would be an onerous task for the principal alone to implement the recommendations and elevate the USA's system of education from the quagmire. A distributed leadership construct, which includes the assistant principal, proved to be desirable in the face of the deteriorating quality of education.

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) programme was another reform that consolidates and brings visibility to the position of assistant principal (Enomoto, 2012). The NCLB was, amongst other concerns, born out of the realisation that the United States of America's system of education was no longer globally competitive. It also sought to close the gap between the disadvantaged students and their well-to-do counterparts. Enomoto (2012) point out what schools were expected to do under the law. They list the following; maths and reading tests for grade 3 to 8 to be conducted and schools were to be guided in their operations by an Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Schools that did not meet the required standards would be

afflicted with penalties and states whose schools missed AYP for three years continuously faced closure or state takeover (Enomoto, 2012).

The NCLB placed principals in quite a precarious position in terms of instruction and service delivery because it exerted pressure on the principal to improve student achievement (Mafuwane, 2012). One of the areas of focus was slow learners, that is, those learners who lagged behind and therefore, were below cut-off line. DuFour *et al.* (2010) argue that a major task for principals is to engender collaboration amongst administrators. The NCLB Act requires collaboration between the principal, assistant principal and teachers. To achieve the goal of the NCLB, principals should create and nurture a culture of teamwork that recognises the role of the assistant principal (DuFour *et al.*, 2010).

2.7. THE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

The deputy or assistant principal or deputy head, depending on the geographical location, is the second in charge at a school. The position falls directly below the principal on the school's organogram. Whereas literature on the principal is extensive, very little research has been undertaken on the deputy principal (Kwan & Walker, 2012).

Historically, the roles and duties of the deputy principal have progressed at a snail's pace since the inception of the position in education. To date, the responsibilities continue to be added fragmentally and in a reactive manner contingent upon the capacity of the principal (Vick, 2011). Oleszewski *et al.* (2012) maintain that the role of the assistant principal is caught up in confusion.

2.8. THE ROLE OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS IN ZIMBABWE

The position of deputy principal in Zimbabwe came to prominence after independence in 1980 (Hadebe, 2013). The post-independence government that came to power in 1980 democratised education, leading to mass education. Free primary education and automatic promotion saw schools' enrolments rise astronomically.

Masuku (2011), states that by 1995 the secondary school enrolment had risen to 700 000 from 6 000 in 1980. The unprecedented rise in enrolment brought school leadership challenges. School leadership comes in the form of the principal, deputy principal and heads of department (Manaseh, 2016).

In developing countries, it is a fait accompli that school leadership requires effective leadership to benefit the learner (Shava, 2015). An increasing body of literature confirms that principals' leadership contributes significantly to students' performance (Ash, Hodge & Connell, 2013; Carraway & Young, 2015; Rigby, 2014;). School leadership influences students' outcomes. School leadership comes second only to teacher instruction in influencing students' outcomes (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012). Principals are the mainstay of student outcomes (Bodnarchuk, 2016; Sahin, 2011). In Zimbabwe, educational institutions and their leadership account to stakeholders for service delivery (Muranda *et al.*, 2015). They are expected to justify, through quality service delivery, the ever-increasing fiscal allocation (Ndoziya, 2014). Madziyire, (2010) contends that the principal's style of leadership influences student performance. In Zimbabwe, instructional leadership resides in the principal (Hadebe, 2013). Hallinger & Heck (2010) view distributed leadership as enhancing the attainment of

school objectives when they point out that the successful schools engender a climate of shared values amongst the school organisation members. The idea is supported by Billing (2012) who argues that the principal of the school enhances or inhibits the school's effectiveness. He further argues that teaching and learning, at a school, largely depends on the principal. Ndlovu (2013) states that principals are expected to formulate the vision and mission statements for their schools.

Research findings from a study by Muranda *et al.* (2015) reveal that school principals performed a multiplicity of duties and responsibilities that compromised their role of instructional leadership. Oplatka (2010) agrees with the above assertion and points out that the principals of schools have a host of duties that negatively affect their role of instructional leadership. Oplatka (2010) further argues that principals cannot perform the instructional leadership role alone without involving other hierarchical levels of deputy principals, senior teachers and teachers. In actual fact, the deputy principal is the second in charge in the organisational structure of the school. He/she takes over the leadership of the school when the head is absent.

The former President of the Republic of Zimbabwe, Robert Gabriel Mugabe, commissioned the Nziramasanga Commission (Hadebe, 2013) to investigate Education and Training in the country. The Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training noted several findings. Of interest to this research, is that the type of education provided in secondary schools was not practical. Parents lamented that after four years of secondary education, their children did not offer practical skills to survive in the communities they lived in. That is, secondary curriculum was too academic (Hadebe, 2013).

The second finding is that for the majority of pupils, education did not have social benefits and that the country was still pursuing a Western type of education, nineteen years after independence, which was at variance with local demands (Nziramasa Commission, 1999).

It is patently clear, from the findings of the Nziramasa Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training, that stakeholders had misgivings about the education system in secondary schools (Hadebe, 2013). A paradigm shift was urgently required to address the challenges presented by an unstable society, automatic promotion from primary to secondary school and surging enrolments. The Nziramasa Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training is a reform that enjoins collaborative effort of the principal and his/her deputy if its objectives are to be realised.

A study by Muranda, *et al.* (2015) on the role of the principal as an instructional leader recommended rationalisation of the duties of the principal so that he/she concentrates on instructional leadership. Shava (2015) concurs with Muranda *et al.*, (2015) when he posits that the principal should collaborate with teachers to formulate school objectives and mobilise resources to meet those objectives. While the study does not specifically refer to the deputy principal, it is apparent that the deputy principal is second only to the principal on the organisational chart of the school. Therefore, the deputy leadership is a substantive and organic position at the school.

In Zimbabwe, as it is internationally, the role of the deputy principal has not received much attention. There is a critical shortage of literature on the role, duties and responsibilities of the deputy principal. This research had to rely

on ministerial advertisements on the posts of deputy principal in order to glean their roles. Specific duties of the deputy principal, as given by the Director, Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Minute Number 15 of 2006 are as follows; that the deputy principal is second in command, takes full control and becomes accountable in the absence of the principal, attends to disciplinary matters of pupils and staff. He/she chairs disciplinary meetings and immediately communicates the recommendations to the principal, supervises teachers' professional work and monitors their attendance as well as their punctuality and participation in co-curricular activities. The deputy principal plays a key role in the organisation of school functions, receives and checks the accuracy of mark schedules and reports after tests and examinations, organises and supervises examinations at all level. He/she writes testimonials for pupils and teachers, makes all timetables and ensures their implementation. He/she assigns duties to form teachers and ensures that the prefect and co-curricular system operates effectively. Furthermore, the deputy principal takes a special interest in the safety and welfare of the pupils and staff by ensuring frequent interaction with them, plays an important role in the planning and running of school-based staff development programmes. The deputy principal checks on registers, assists the principal in enrolling pupils and in promoting the good image of the school. He/she procures, distributes and cares for all teaching materials in consultation with class teachers and heads of department, compiles class lists, house lists and draws up all duty rosters as well as ensures that teachers are assigned to perform these. He/she monitors students' punctuality, the general cleanliness of the school ground and buildings, is in charge of the institution and orientation of new pupils and teachers, assists the principal in framing clearly defined and attainable aims and goals of the school, and that he/she

is a classroom practitioner. According to the circular, the deputy principal performs any other duties assigned or delegated to him/her by the principal.

The aforementioned list of deputy principals' duties confirms what other studies have found out, namely that much time is spent mainly on student matters, dealing with teachers and administrative schedules (Clint, 2011). Top of the list of duties of the deputy principal is student discipline. This is consistent with the findings of a study on the role of assistant principals in New York City (Mattocks, 2016). In the study of one hundred and sixty-four assistant principals, student discipline was ranked as the number one duty performed by assistant principals. A study of deputy principals in Australia had similar findings. A survey of four hundred and twenty deputy principals confirmed that dealing in student affairs was one of the key roles of assistant principals (Cranston, 2013). Schroeder (1925) cited in Barnett (2012) is one of the earliest researchers on the role of assistant principals who discovered that they were deeply engrossed in paper work. According to the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (Zimbabwe) Director's Circular Minute Number 15 of 2006, deputy principals in Zimbabwe, supervise teachers' professional work, check on the accuracy of mark schedules, assist the principal in framing clearly defined and attainable aims and goals; check on registers; play an important role in the planning and running of school-based staff development programmes and compile class lists as some of the paper work duties performed by the deputy principals. A cursory look at the list of duties performed by deputy principals in Zimbabwe shows that deputy principals have a role in instructional leadership.

The last duty of the deputy principal in Zimbabwe, as listed on the advertisement circular, gives the principal total responsibility over the deputy principal. This is consistent with what Cranston (2013), observes when he states that principals determine the duties and responsibilities of deputy principals. The observation corroborates Marshall & Hooley (2006)'s view that the position of assistant principal was created out of the desire to assist the principal.

Koru (1993) and Harvey (1994), agree that the role of the assistant principal revolves around discipline, maintenance and clerical work. The Civil Service Commission Vacancy Announcement No. 32 of 2014, Government of Zimbabwe, lists the following as the duties and responsibilities of deputy principals: to work with the principal, governing body and others to develop the school's vision, mission and objectives. It also lists, taking an active role in the day-to-day administration of the school; formulate local policies in the broad context of national policies and assess and monitor pupils' progress. These duties fit perfectly well into the framework of duties stipulated by Glanz (1994), who argues that the fundamental duty of the assistant principal is to assist the principal.

This section provided a detailed overview of the evolution of the post of deputy principal across the globe and in Zimbabwe specifically. The following section discusses instructional leadership models and the deputy principals' perceptions of instructional leadership.

2.9. MODELS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

There are several versions of instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2015). Models assist in conceptualising instructional leadership. This study focuses

on three instructional leadership models as postulated by Hallinger & Murphy (1987) cited in Hunter (2016); Lunenburg (2011) and Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012).

Table 2.2: Hallinger & Murphy's model of instructional leadership

Defining the mission	Managing pedagogics	Creating and sustaining an enabling school climate
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulating vision • Mission statements • Formulating objectives • Communicating the goals to the organisation members 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Facilitating quality instruction • Supervision, Evaluating and maintaining student achievements • Coordinating activities • Using data to inform teachers on interventions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintain presence • Incentivising teachers • Establishing high expectations • Facilitating staff development

(Source: Hunter, 2016)

Hallinger & Murphy (1987) identify three dimensions of instructional leadership and eleven tasks for the principal. These dimensions comprise defining the vision and the mission of the school; managing pedagogics and creating and sustaining an environment conducive to teaching and learning.

Principals have to engage in a series of activities to meet the dimensions. Activities that the principals should engage in towards defining the mission of the school include: formulating mission statements and objectives and communicating these to the teaching staff (Hallinger, 2005 cited in Hunter, 2016). When the principal wants to manage pedagogics effectively, he/she engages in the following activities (Hallinger, 2005, cited in Hunter, 2016): facilitating delivery of quality instruction; supervising and evaluating the formulation of teaching and learning processes and using data obtained through evaluation to formulate interventions.

The principal can create and sustain an environment for conducive teaching and learning by incentivising teachers, planning staff development programmes and establishing high expectations for teachers. Lunenburg's model (2010) has five instructional dimensions, as illustrated in Table 2.3 below.

Table 2.3: Lunenburg's model of instructional leadership

Learning	Collaboration	Use of data	Support	Aligning curriculum
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishing purpose of learning • Changing from teaching to learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Joint objective setting • Group work • Streamlining teacher expectations with school objectives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Records • Supervision instruments • Rewards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manpower development • Availability of syllabi and textbooks • Interventions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teacher's instruction to be in line with school curriculum

(Source: Lunenburg, 2011)

Lunenburg’s model of instructional leadership has five dimensions. These are learning, collaboration, use of data, support and aligning the curriculum. The learning dimension requires a paradigm shift by the principal from teaching to learning (DuFour *et al.*, 2010). The principal should explain the purpose of the school to address fundamental instructional questions.

The dimension of collaboration requires the principal to focus on inculcating a sense of togetherness amongst teachers (DuFour *et al.*, 2010). He or she should initiate a culture of group work. Lunenburg (2011) emphasises the point that, as instructional leaders, principals should deliberately encourage a free flow of information, practices and technology.

Lunenburg (2011) underscores the importance of data to improve instruction. He suggests the use of records and relevant instruments to measure

students' progress. Data helps the school and district to take remedial action in schools that lag behind (Lunenburg, 2011).

Smylie (2010) emphasises the importance of teams by indicating that they are a platform to share instructional strategies for teachers. The support dimension expects the principal to support the teachers by affording them staff development programmes, making syllabi and textbooks available (Lunenburg, 2011). It is the role of the principal to support the teachers when students lag behind in their progress.

Popham (2010) points out that the principals should ensure that instruction is streamlined and consistent with the school curriculum. Put together, the thrust of the five dimensions is to improve students' performance, which is an indicator of schools' effectiveness.

The last in the synthesis of instructional leadership models discussed by this research is by Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012). The model has four dimensions, as diagrammatically represented in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Leithwood and Seashore-Louis' model of instructional leadership

Setting direction	Staff development	Aligning school	Managing instruction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formulating mission statement • Formulating goals creating high performance • Expectations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capacity building 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teamwork: Culture of teamwork linking school to the community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teaching support • Recruitment and selection of staff • Provision of resources

(Source: Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012)

The setting dimension requires the principal to formulate the vision and mission statements that guide the school in its business of teaching and learning. Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012) refer to this as the establishment of a shared vision. Fullan (2003), cited in Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012), regards this as developing a collective mission. Staff development motivates staff, breeds loyalty to the organisation and ultimately improves student achievement (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis 2012).

Activities that assist in aligning and turning the school around include, instilling tenets of teamwork amongst organisation members (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis 2012). The principal should link the school to its stakeholders. The principal manages instructions when he/she recruits and selects staff with relevant skills and competencies.

A cursory look at the three models, their dimensions and activities, reveals that they overlap. Common features amongst the dimensions of the three instructional leadership models discussed in this study include but are not limited to the following: stating the mission statement, managing curriculum, instituting staff development programmes, creating a pedagogical environment and linking the school to stakeholders. Where Leithwood *et al.* (2012) talk about capacity building, Hallinger (2005 cited in Hunter, 2016) talks about staff development. The importance of investing in human capital cannot be over emphasised. The net effect of staff development accrues to the school when it improves student achievement. Armed with new skills and information, teachers sent on staff development programmes can improve their competencies.

Hunter (2016) and Lunenburg (2011) identify the importance of data to improve instruction in the dimensions of managing pedagogics and the use of data respectively. Measurement of student progress allows the school to identify students who lag behind so that the school can give the correct antidote (Lunenburg, 2011).

In Zimbabwe, the decade of crisis (2000-2010) economic meltdown resulted in, amongst other things, a brain drain of teachers to neighbouring countries, including South Africa. The negative effect of the brain drain was felt in Zimbabwe in 2012 when 'O' level results were released (Herald, 10 October 2013). The measurement instrument, the Zimbabwe School Examinations Council (ZIMSEC), revealed a performance gap in respect of the candidates. Consequently, programmes to mitigate the effects of the 2007 brain drain were launched in Mutare in October 2012 (Herald, 10 October 2013). The

programme was called the Performance Lag Address Programme (PLAP). Through this programme, school principals are expected to define intervention strategies to address performance lags (Herald, 10 October 2013).

Instructional leadership places high demands and expectations on the principal who is expected to improve teacher efficacy and ultimately student achievement (Ndoziya, 2014). Hallinger (2015) emphasises that the principal needs to have deep knowledge in pedagogics. In Zimbabwe, instructional leadership resides in the principal of the school (Directors' Circular 15 of 2006). Extensive studies have been conducted about the role of the principal in instructional leadership, but very little about the role of the deputy principal. The deputy principal plays a significant instructional leadership role in the school by virtue of his/her position in the school organisational chart. He/she is the second in charge directly below the principal. The next section discusses instructional leadership practices.

2.10. INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP TASKS

Instructional leadership practices are leadership obligations that are precisely linked to teaching and affect teachers, learners and the curriculum (Popham, 2010). Blaise & Blaise (2010) further illuminate the concept of instructional leadership practice by adding that, it aims to create a conducive climate for teaching and learning. In the context of this study, instructional leadership practices are roles and responsibilities that are aimed at supporting teachers and students to improve teaching and ultimately impact student achievement. Instructional leadership practices are critical factors for the schools' effectiveness.

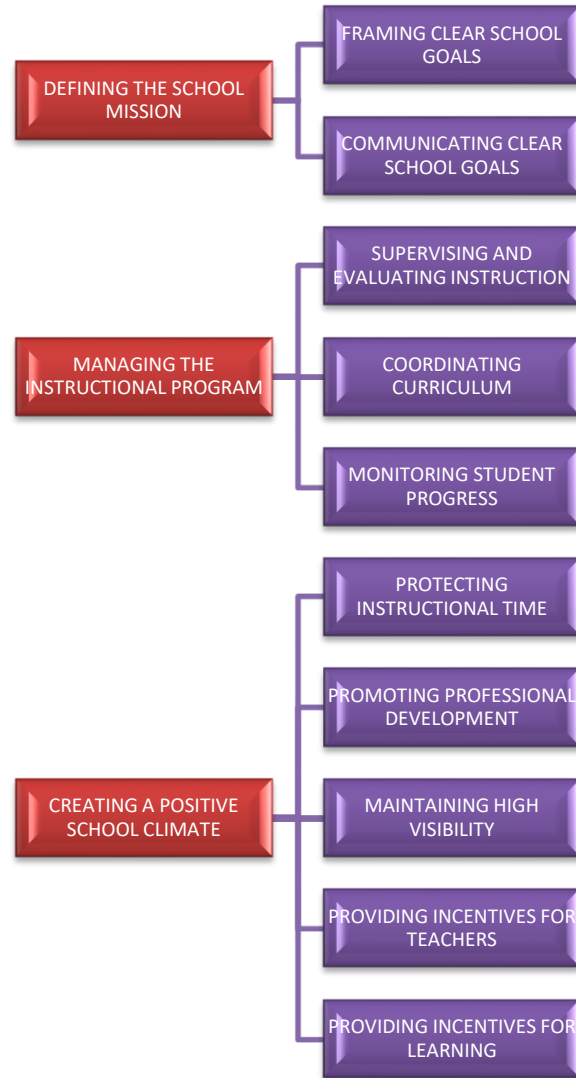


Figure 2.1: Instructional leadership tasks

(Source: Hallinger & Murphy, 1987)

Figure 2.1 above describes the instructional leadership practices as postulated by Hallinger & Murphy 1987. They postulate a “three dimensional instructional leadership framework.” The framework includes, “defining the vision and mission for the school, managing teaching and learning, and promoting an atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning” (Hallinger, 2009, p. 7). Hallinger and Murphy’s framework observed many practices for instructional leaders below each dimension. Below the dimension of defining

the school goal are two practices namely, framing clear school goals and communicating school goals.

2.10.1. Framing School Goals

This practice entails the instructional leader to draft the school vision, mission, objectives and core values (Harris, 2013; Leithwood *et al.*, 2004; Marzano *et al.*, 2005). These are collaboratively made by the all stakeholders of the school and should be focused on student achievement.

2.10.2. Communicate School Goals

The vision and mission statements of the school should be communicated to all stakeholders of the school through formal and informal means.

2.10.3. Formulating a Vision

The deputy principal assists the principal formulate the vision of the school (Kaplan & Owings, 2010). The vision allows the instructional leadership to remain focused. If one does not know where they are going, they will never reach there (Harris, 2013). Leadership is compatible with vision. It has the capacity to change vision into practicality (Robbins, Gregory & Herndon, 2000). Papulova (2014) defines vision as mental picture of tomorrow. David & David (2014) view it as a force that shows the leader's image of the future. For Berth (2014), it is the shape of the organisation in the future. A vision is meant to stimulate strong mental picture of intended future state of the school (Powers, 2012). King Solomon clearly stated that, "where there is no vision my people will perish" (Proverbs 29 verse 18).

At school, vision expresses itself in the curriculum and instruction and is often displayed where it is clearly seen by stakeholders. A visionless instructional leader gropes in the dark and takes the subordinates on a precipice to doom. Like any organisation, best schools are rooted in shared vision. Blaise, Blaise & Phillips (2010) posit that for a school, vision is what the school looks forward to be and not just its current position. Consequently, school leaders require visioning to transform schools into centres of excellence (Mombourquette, 2017).

2.10.4. Vision Development

A vision shows the direction the school intends to take. It is meant to stimulate strong mental images of the future state of the organisation (Mintzberg & Waters, 1985). Ganu (2013) identifies three methods of vision formulation namely, using hunches, group and the rational, level method. Powers (2012) recommends a team approach to vision development. A team approach may guarantee commitment from the stakeholders.

2.10.5. The Importance of Visioning

Mintzberg & Quinn (1996) contend that vision is aspirational. It addresses questions of hopes and dreams. Mombourquette (2017) points out that a school vision relates the hopes and dreams for optimum teaching and learning. A school vision represents the model that the school strives to be. It can be taken to be a journey that is embarked on with a station in mind. A vision is a purposeful venture that assists in securing commitment from stakeholders (Oghojafour, Olayemi & Okonji, 2011). It assists school stakeholders to prioritise their activities and allocate resources accordingly (Mullane, 2001). A collaboratively formulated vision helps identify roles for

each stakeholder (Joachim, 2010). The deputy principal, as an instructional leader, plays a critical role in assisting the principal to transform the vision into reality by allocating roles for each stakeholder. This assists all the stakeholders to have a mental image of the future they desire to have and work towards (Robbins, Gregory & Herndon, 2000). Berth (2014) argues that school vision sets the agenda for all community members of the school. It serves as a guide to appropriate courses of action to take. Kantabutra & Avery (2010) summarise the role played by a vision as; directing how human resources will be deployed, aiding the budgetary process, spelling out how tasks will be done, indicating staff development priorities and aiding decision-making regarding teaching and learning.

Vision and mission statements have been globally accepted as an unavoidable part of strategic management process for schools. Vision statement is the foundation for the mission statement (Thompson & Strickland, 1992). Before instructional leaders formulate mission statements, they need to have a vision for the school. Mission statements cover the broad purpose of the organisation and attempt to answer the fundamental question “What is the purpose of business?” (Drucker, 1993).

Objectives and core values evolve from the mission statement (Gurley, Peters, Collins & Fifolt, 2014; Ani, 2014). Braun, Wesche, Frey and Weisweller (2012) and Mintzberg & Quinn (1996) argue that mission statements should reflect core values of the organisation. Sufi and Lyons (2003) define core values as principles held in high regard by organisation members. For Schein (2010), core values are the set of behaviours that an organisation expects from its members.

2.10.6. Stages for Formulating a Shared School Vision

Harris & Lowery (2004) identify a three-stage vision development process which underpins the role of the deputy principal as an instructional leader. The first step is to collectively formulate the vision. School constituent elements that include the principal, the deputy principal, teachers, parents and learners, engage in consultations as a team. Collaborative effort in the development of school vision is very important (Powers, 2012). Bush & Colemann (2000) also contend that the vision should have a buy-in from the stakeholders to secure their commitment.

The second stage is marketing the vision. This entails, principally, the principal and the deputy principal explaining the vision to the stakeholders through meetings and other fora. Oplatka (2010) acknowledges that there is intense competition for infrastructural development funds, academic results, students, quality of teachers and public image. To survive the competitive environment, schools have resorted to marketing (Foskett, 2002; Hanson, 1996). Kotler (1995) defines marketing as a way an organisation links and engages its target-clients to sell its products and services. Marketing is a leadership function. Without marketing, a school finds it difficult to survive in the competitive environment. A school can adopt the following marketing strategies, consultation days, visiting days and school magazine (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2007). Bell (1999) views creating an active social media, website and developing a school magazine through a marketing club, as some of the strategies a school can use to market its vision. DeZarn (1998) contributes to the debate of marketing by stating that effective school marketing, largely, depends on technology. This involves the use of social media platforms like, Facebook and Twitter for parents.

The last stage is effectuation of the vision. Here, the vision is put into practice. Various constituent elements implement the vision. During the implementation phase of the vision, the role of the deputy principal is supervision and support (Tolhurst, 2010). The deputy principal reminds teachers and learners of their core business from time to time and he/she inducts new members of the school about the vision, as and when they join the organisation.

Contrary to Harris & Lowery's three-step vision formulating process, Branson (2010) proposed a six-step vision development process. The six-step is as follows:

1. Composing a vision group that includes teachers, learners, parents, community members and administration.
2. Soliciting views from the vision group, getting what they want included in the vision.
3. Formulating a vision that embraces views from the vision team guided by curriculum and instructional ethos.
4. Reviewing the vision to check whether stakeholder views have been captured correctly and aligning the document with fundamental instructional principles.
5. Adoption of the vision during a stakeholder consultative meeting to facilitate collaboration to it.
6. Unveiling and displaying the vision statement at all strategic places of the school.

Two issues are critical to the two processes of vision development namely; the stakeholder concept and the role of the instructional leader. Stakeholders of the school feature prominently in the two processes. Literature on vision and mission statements underscores the role of the stakeholders in the development of the vision (Bush & Colemann, 2000; Powers, 2012). Sabin (2011) emphasises the role of the instructional leader in the formulation of the vision statement. According to Spillane & Mertz (2015), instructional leaders include principals, deputy principals and teacher leaders. An effective vision is a product of stakeholder participation and encompassing instructional leaders (Dipaola & Hoy, 2008). Webster (1994) argues that when stakeholders embody the vision of the school, they become stimulated to commit to all efforts that are directed towards learner growth. A shared vision helps the instructional leaders to be focused and prevents them from spending time and resources on trivia.

2.11. MANAGING INSTRUCTION

Managing instruction has three leadership practices (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). The leadership functions are; supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum and monitoring students' progress. Instruction is the core business of the school (Hallinger, 2015). Marzano & Waters (2010) argue that due to the increase in accountability demands in education, focus should be directed on the instructional needs of the school.

Deputy principals have become very critical in the school system, especially with regards to curriculum and instruction (Abebe, Lindsey, Bonner & Heck, 2010). Educational reforms, such as the No Child Left Behind, have changed and affected the role of the principal (Abebe *et al.*, 2010). Assistant principals

have assumed a very important role as key resources for instructional duties (Hillard & Newsome, 2013). While it is important for principals to assume an instructional leadership role, it is equally important for them to delegate part of that responsibility to deputy principals (Glanz, 1994; Gordon, 2010). Furthermore, Abebe *et al.* (2010), state that one way of meeting accountability demands in education is to allocate the role of curriculum and instruction to assistant principals. Jita (2010) posits that effective schools are associated with distributed leadership.

2.11.1. Monitoring Students' Progress

A successful school is measured by its ability to ensure that each student makes academic achievement (Safer & Fleischman, 2005). To this end, it is important for instructional leaders to monitor student progress (Hallinger, 2015). Monitoring refers to observing and collecting data about a situation with the aim of using that data to improve instruction (Halverson, 2010).

Student progress monitoring is an instructional practice that assists instructional leaders and teachers to make use of learners' performance data to evaluate their teaching and make decisions about their teaching (Safer & Fleishman, 2005). Wildy (2012) views student monitoring progress as developing testing programmes for students to measure their understanding of a teaching unit. Monitoring students' progress allows results of tests written by learners to be discussed by all teachers with a view to align their teaching in accordance with the gaps identified. Student progress monitoring aids schools with comprehensive database as they aim to improve students' attainment. Hallinger (2015) points out that test results are used to aid setting goals and planning. Effective instructional leaders, periodically, give

teachers and parents test results (Anderson, Leithwood & Straus, 2010; Young & Kim, 2010). Wayman & Stringfield (2006) posit that one indicator of a successful school is the extent to which principals and deputy principals are seized with assessment of learners to pick out their strengths and weaknesses.

2.11.2. The Role of the Instructional Leader in Student Progress Monitoring

Cotton (2003) observes that effective instructional leaders put in place mechanisms to monitor students' progress both at classroom level and at school level. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (2008) argues that the development of assessment mechanisms and accountability tenets to monitor learners' progress is a major role for instructional leaders.

Boudett & Moody (2005) outline the role of the deputy principal in student progress monitoring as follows; deputy principals play a significant role in mobilising resources for teachers to implement student progress monitoring and also securing professional development opportunities that are in line with progress monitoring. Deputy principals can also assist by giving orientation to their teachers about the concept of student progress monitoring. Such orientation removes fear and resistance that may reside in teachers and other personnel in the school system. Deputy principals can initiate the concept of student progress monitoring at their schools and stress its advantages in the overall improvement of students' outcomes. They can go further to introduce student progress monitoring structures at grade level or form level. One of the fundamental roles of deputy principals is to

encourage meaningful debates and meetings on student progress monitoring (Bruniges, 2012; Masters, 2017; Wildy, 2012).

Bruniges (2012) suggests that instructional leaders can use formative and summative assessments to monitor students' progress.

2.11.3. Formative Assessments

Formative assessments are also referred to as assessments for learning (Clark, 2012). They are intended to inform teachers about the level of achievement of instructional objectives for decision-making (Cizek, 2010). Formative assessments give feedback during teaching and learning (Bennett, 2011). Heritage (2010) argues that formative assessments aim to identify areas that require improvement. Types of formative assessments include, observations during the process of teaching and learning, homework given to learners daily, question and answer periods, quiz and classroom activities that allow learners to report findings (Lau, 2016). Frey & Fisher (2011) define formative assessment as a process by which teachers provide feedback during the course of teaching to enable adjustment in instructional strategies for improving students' attainment. Halverson (2010) notes that formative assessment takes place while teaching and learning is on-going, thereby, allowing change in teaching styles in line with learner performance.

2.11.4. Summative Assessments

Summative assessments are used to assess whether or not students have learnt anything at the end of a teaching unit (Kibbie, 2016). They are often referred to as assessment of learning (Clark, 2012). They are generally used to determine whether learners have acquired the knowledge they were

supposed to acquire (Iliya, 2014). Summative assessments are evaluative in nature. The assessments are intended to calculate and come up with a mark at the end of a teaching unit or year. They can be given at the end of the month, term or year (Chakanyuka, 2015). The marks are given to the learners and other stakeholders (Zindi & Makotore, 2015). They are more relevant in determining learning progress. They are not necessarily diagnostic (Anikweze, 2013). Qu & Zhang (2013) explain summative assessment as designed to gauge how much learners have grasped at the end of a teaching unit.

The scores that learners achieve in both formative and summative assessments are the data that will allow deputy principals and teachers make instructional decisions (Neimeyer *et al.*, 2016). Schildcamp & Kuiper (2010) note that the importance of data from assessments lies in helping teachers in planning their lessons, putting learners in groups for targeted instruction and allowing teachers to vary their teaching in order to cater for individual differences.

2.11.5. Continuous Assessment

Globally, continuous assessments are viewed as giving feedback required to optimise results of teaching and learning (Birhanu, 2013). England is one of the countries that has adopted continuous assessments with remarkable results (Yigsaw, 2013). In Africa, some of the countries that have adopted continuous assessments are Malawi (Chirwa & Naidoo, 2015), Namibia (Ipinge & Kasanda, 2002) and Tanzania (Birhanu, 2013). In Zimbabwe, despite recommendations by the Nziramasanga Commission on Education and Training (1999), continuous assessment has not been fully embraced.

The Daily News of 9 January, 2018 reported that the Minister of Primary and Secondary Education, Professor Mavhima had given notification of the scrapping of the continuous assessment aspect of the new curriculum. Continuous assessment is a classroom practice used by teachers to confirm the knowledge, skills, understanding and competencies achieved by learners (Kapambwe, 2010; Khan, 2010). Continuous assessment is administered regularly during the course of the year (Muskin, 2017). When teachers administer continuous assessment, they seek to identify learners' understanding of concepts during teaching in order to give feedback. In continuous assessment, tasks should align with what students are doing in class and aim to develop abilities and competencies (Quansah, 2005). The tasks are derived from the National Syllabus to ensure national uniformity (Chakanyuka, 2015).

Omebe (2014) argues that continuous assessments are used to complement high stakes examinations. The assessment model considers the learner's performance during his/her period of schooling. Pennycuick (1990) views continuous assessment as an approach used by teachers to assess the knowledge and competencies of learners. In continuous assessment, students have the advantage of getting feedback on their levels of achievement from their teachers and to attend to topics they did not grasp well (Fafunwa, 2010). Chakanyuka (2015) suggests that continuous assessments assist teachers identify learners who require remediation or extension. The results of continuous assessments are beneficial to both teachers and learners. Teachers can vary their teaching strategies to suit individual needs of the learners (Muskin, 2017). It empowers teachers to assess the effectiveness of approaches in relation to the curriculum and to

adjust those strategies contingent upon the obtaining environment of learners (Atsumbe & Raymond, 2012).

Mohammad, Samiullah & Aysha (2017) indicates that the purpose of continuous assessment is to determine the level of students' understanding, identify challenges learners face and to make decisions on the way forward. Importantly, continuous assessment is the responsibility of the classroom teacher (Muskin, 2017). Continuous assessment affords classroom teachers an opportunity to learn their students, which ones need remediation and which ones need extension work (Khan, 2012).

2.11.6. Supervising and Evaluating Instruction

This instructional practice means deputy principals should supervise teachers and give them feedback on their strengths and weaknesses. Peretomode (2012) defines instructional supervision as activities aimed at improving teaching and learning. Akinwumiju & Agabi (2008) add a dimension of collaboration in their definition when they define supervision as, a combined effort between the deputy principal and the teacher to make teaching better. Mhlanga, Wadesango & Kurebwa (2012) hold the view that instructional supervision is an interactive process whose ultimate goal is improved students' achievement. The practice of supervision directs, motivates and encourages the teacher to be reflective as he/she engages in teaching.

Hora, Oleson & Ferrare (2013) view instructional supervision as classroom observation. Classroom observations are done to support teachers'

professional development and to evaluate teachers (Guarano & Tracy, 2012). In classroom observation for professional development, coaching and mentoring take centre stage (Hora *et al.*, 2013). Supervisors observe instruction often with a structured instrument and then hold a conference with a teacher after the lesson. One critical aspect of classroom observation for professional development is supervisor and teacher conferences before and after the lesson (Turpen & Finkelstein, 2010). University of Washington Centre for Instructional Development and Research (2012) underscores the benefit of mutual trust between the supervisor and the teacher in the pre- and post-conferences. Millis (1992) argues that mutual trust is crucial, since most teachers dislike being observed while in action. Partee (2012) observes that observation protocols can either be structured or unstructured. Gilbert & Haley (2010) advocate unstructured protocols by arguing that they gather rich data about classroom interactions.

Classroom observation can be done for evaluating teachers in order to review their performance. Braskamp & Ory (1994) describe this type of evaluation as peer evaluation. One of the strengths of peer evaluation is that peers are better positioned to determine the teacher's mastery of the subject content and the suitability of teaching methods (Brent & Felder, 2004).

2.11.7. Characteristics of Observation Protocols

Hora *et al.* (2013) identify four characteristics of observation protocols. These are; does the protocol assess the quality of teaching or simply describes it, does the protocol focus on the teacher, the learner or both, does the protocol incorporate the content, and lastly does it combine with other data sources?

The protocol should be seen to be assessing the quality of teaching and not simply describing it (Gilbert & Haley, 2010). An observation protocol should gather salient points of quality teaching by the teacher. Descriptive protocols simply capture teaching practices of the teacher without any judgement on the quality of teaching or effect on the part of the learner (Guariano & Tracy, 2012). They document specific behaviours of the teacher without regard to efficacy.

The second characteristic of an observation protocol is its focus on the teacher, learner or both (Wainwright, Flick & Morrell 2003). Greater attention is often paid to the teacher at the expense of learners (Good & Brophy, 2000). Attention on one of the parties in the teaching and learning process does not enhance quality instruction. Hora *et al.* (2013) contend that the hallmark of classroom observation is learner response.

The third feature of an observation protocol is its ability to consider content. Any teaching and learning has high regard on content (Neuman, 2012). The crux of the matter is that the content being taught is paramount to teaching and learning. Classroom observation that prioritises external behaviours of teachers or learners, disregarding the subject matter, may fail to account for a holistic classroom interaction (Cohen & Ball, 1999).

The last characteristic of an observation protocol is its quality to combine other data sources. Observation protocols should combine with interviews before and after observation. Chism (2007) argues that interviews before observation with the teacher are the popular source of data used together with classroom observation. A stand-alone observation instrument has the

weakness of leaving out vital information that is critical to quality teaching and learning (Partee, 2012).

Deputy principals are expected to be familiar with teaching methods that promote student learning (Ndoziya, 2014). Knowledge of instructional methods helps give sound advice to teachers in order for them to improve teaching and learning. Shearer (2012) corroborates this by noting that sound knowledge base puts the instructional leaders at a vantage point to mentor teachers. Northouse (2013) suggests that principals and deputy principals' knowledge should be solid so that they earn the respect of teachers.

Popham (2010) identifies areas that instructional leaders need to know about curriculum and instruction. These areas include; knowledge of the curriculum so that they can determine whether what students are learning is consistent with the national curriculum, they should be familiar with what national standards are and be knowledgeable about what students are expected to learn.

Marzano & Pickering (2010) identify areas that instructional leaders need to know. These are subject content and classroom supervision. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, Director's Circular Minute No. 15 of 2006 states that deputy heads are expected to supervise and write reports on teachers. The supervision should aim at improving the teaching and learning process. Mhlanga *et al.* (2012) contend that the goal of classroom supervision is to evaluate and support teachers so that they meet both individual and school goals. The deputy principal, as an instructional leader,

needs to provide teachers with syllabi, timetables, room allocation, textbooks and other instructional materials.

Mhlanga *et al.* (2012) suggest three models of supervision namely; scientific supervision, human relations and clinical supervision. Sullivan and Glanz (2013) suggest that the 18th Century and 19th Century supervision models regarded teachers as incompetent, hence required strict monitoring. Supervisors looked for mistakes. A supportive model of supervision, which takes teachers as colleagues would be more desirable for reflective thinking.

Cogan (1995) argues that instructional leaders can use clinical supervision as a model for teacher development. He argues that clinical supervision is predicated on the idea that teaching and learning could be improved through formal cycles between the teacher and the instructional leader. Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski (1980) proposed five stages for administering clinical supervision as pre-supervision conference, conference, clinical supervision, analysis, post-supervision conference and post-supervision analysis. Sergiovanni (1995) argues that when administered in schools, clinical supervision enhances teacher development. For Beach & Reinhartz (2000) clinical supervision encourages teachers to reflect on their practice of teaching. Cogan (1995) states that face-to-face interaction, which is integral to clinical supervision, promotes collegiality between the supervisor and the teacher. Benard (2010) indicates that an instructional leader should be someone who is respected and trusted by the teachers. The five stages of clinical supervision are done jointly between the teacher and the supervisor and this helps to build a strong bond of trust between the two.

David, David & David (2014) state the following guidelines for heads and deputies; they must read extensively and be familiar with content of the curriculum offered at the school, they should attend seminars, workshops, and conferences on the current teaching methodologies and lastly, should avail journals with information that relates to the curriculum of the school. Steyn (2002) argues that deputy principals should be able to prioritise issues related to instruction and be firm believers that students are capable of learning and can achieve high levels given the right support. This quintessentially means that the deputy principal should be a facilitator of learning by supporting teachers (Gupton, 2010).

2.11.8. Action Research

Action research can be used as an approach to enhance quality instruction (Sagor, 2004). There are as many definitions of action research as there are authorities (Ferrance, 2000). Action research is a process in which teachers reflect on their teaching practices with the aim of improving them to enhance students' outcome (McNiff & Whitehead, 2011). Reason and Bradbury (2006) describe action research as an approach used by teachers to inform and influence practice. For Winter & Munn-Gidding (2001) action research is an approach used by classroom practitioners to improve practice. Elliott (1991) stresses collaboration in his definition of action research when he contends that it is a process by which classroom teachers work together in evaluating the effectiveness of their strategies with intent on improving them to impact positively on learner achievement. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2014) offer a comprehensive and practically useful definition when they argue for an on-the-site approach aimed at dealing with practical problems encountered by teachers in their course of teaching. Watts (1985) argues

that there are at least four assumptions of action research. Firstly, action research assumes that teachers and instructional leaders work maximally dealing with problems they have encountered themselves. Secondly, classroom practitioners and instructional leaders are likely to improve their effectiveness when they are motivated to critically examine their own work and encouraged to innovate. Thirdly, action research assumes that teachers and instructional leaders work jointly. Lastly, action research assumes that collaboration of teachers and instructional leaders aids professional development.

Chevaliar & Buckles (2013) point out that in action research, teachers may work as individuals or jointly with others and get support and direction from instructional leaders. Instructional leaders have a significant role to play in action research (Sax & Fisher, 2001). Ferrance (2000) outlines types of action research. Table 2.5 below shows the types of action research.

Table 2.5: Types of action research

	Single teacher	Group of teachers	School based	District based
Thrust	Classroom issue	Classroom issue/Many classroom issues	School issues	District issues
Support required	Teacher	Teachers rotating	School administrators	District team
Effect	Curriculum and instructional issues	Curriculum and instructional issues	School development issues. Policy issues	Allocation of resources
Side effect	Teaching practices informed by research	Team building	Team building	Team building

(Source: Ferrance, 2000)

Single teacher research aims at studying a problem within a single classroom. The classroom practitioner may be seeking solutions to problems related to classroom management, teaching strategies, use of instructional materials and learner learning (Leisha, 2014). The teacher seeks to solve a problem he or she is experiencing in the classroom.

Collaborative action research involves a group of teachers addressing a classroom challenge or a departmental issue (Pine, 1981). The problem can be a classroom or common among many teachers. Collaborative action

research enhances joint effort because it involves many teachers in a particular area of study. It offers opportunities for sharing and support from instructional leaders (Messiou, 2019).

In school-wide action research, every teacher in the school is involved (Chevaliar & Buckles (2013). Its main focus is on issues that affect each member of staff, for example, apathy by parents in school affairs (Pine, 1981).

District-wide action research focuses, overall, on the district and is more complex. The issues may relate to poor performance (McNiff & Whitehead, 2011).



Figure 2.2: Steps in action research

(Source: Elliot, 1991)

The steps in Figure 2.2 above involve identifying the problem to be researched, planning the course of action research to take, gathering data on the problem, examining data and examining and reflecting on the way forward. The deputy principal plays a crucial role in supporting teachers conducting action research (Elliott, 1991).

The first step in action research is to identify the problem (Mettetal, 2012). Definition of the problem can be based on students' achievement, curriculum, instruction, school culture and involvement of parents in the affairs of the school (Beaulieu, 2013). In this step, the researcher asks questions about the area of focus.

Step two involves data collection. The researcher collects data that assists in answering the research question asked in step one. The teacher can use surveys, observations or interviews to collect the data.

Step three is analysis and interpretation of data. The teacher identifies patterns and themes from the collected data.

Steps four and five are about the findings of the research while step six is about how the researcher deals with the results in view of the findings.

2.11.9. The Role of the Deputy Principal in Action Research

Like any school improvement effort, action research depends, for its success, on the support given by instructional leaders (Hewitt & Little, 2005). It is critical that instructional leaders, like the deputy principal, build a climate

that is congenial to inquiry and promotes teachers in daring research initiatives. The deputy principal has a challenge to provide instructional leadership that enhances action research. Calhoun (2002) lists the following guidelines for deputy principals to pave way for effective research; laying the foundation for action research, appreciating the importance of action research, overcoming barriers to action research, formulating objectives that include action research, giving support to teachers undertaking action research and granting opportunities for teachers to work in groups.

2.11.10. Laying the Foundation for Action Research

One of the key responsibilities of deputy principals is to instil interest in teachers about action research. Leh (2002) argues that the deputy principal can instil interest by asking thought-provoking questions to teachers during staff meetings or during pre-observation planning meetings. According to Hewitt & Little (2005), examples of questions that can be asked include the following; What teaching methods are we employing that bear positive outcomes on student learning? What teaching methods are we employing that bear negative outcomes on student learning? What should departments know for them to ensure that learners achieve their objectives? How can we tell when learners are accomplishing their objectives? It is crucial for the deputy principal to have sound knowledge of action research in order to explain how it affects teaching and learning. The deputy principal should read literature on action research to create a base of knowledge that assists him in allaying fears that teachers may hold on action research (Llorens, 1994).

2.11.11. Appreciating the Importance of Action Research

The deputy principal should appreciate the importance of action research so that he/she can assist in driving the action research agenda with teachers (Dana & Yendol- Silva, 2005). Elliot (1991) posits that action research aims to improve students' abilities. On one hand, (Pine, 1981) argues that teachers who engage in action research become divergent in their thinking and they are receptive to new ideas. For Messiou (2019) teachers who engage in action research are independent thinkers.

2.11.12. Formulating Objectives that Include Action Research

Student data is important for school improvement (Jansen, 2004). Effective instructional leaders use school performance data and classroom data to make decisions on how to improve the school (Edmonds, 1979). The deputy principal should use the decisions to formulate objectives that encompass action research. Strategic planning should be informed by student data (Panigrahi, 2016).

2.11.13. Supporting Teachers Who Undertake Action Research

Action research is conducted to give feedback on instruction (Hewitt & Little, 2005). Action research helps identify factors that foster improved learning. The success of action research depends largely on the support given by the deputy principal (Leh, 2002). Deputy principals need to support teachers if action research efforts are to be successful.

Calhoun (2002) identifies the following as support mechanisms that deputy principals can lend to teachers for successful action research; availing opportunities to teachers for action research, for example, examining student work, analysing mark schedules for learners after weekly or monthly tests,

encouraging dialogue among teachers about marks and making decisions about those marks.

Deputy principals can hire a mentor to assist in implementing action research (Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2005). The mentor guides and gives all the necessary information pertaining to action research. Because of the mentoring, teachers will be equipped with skills and competencies to carry out action research in their classrooms as individuals or collaboratively.

Deputy principals can support teachers by setting high expectations for both teachers and learners (Llorens, 1994). Teachers will be forced to investigate those practices that will assist in meeting high expectations. The deputy principal can support action research initiatives by planning departmental meetings where teachers will share and present their action research findings (Calhoun, 2002). Active participation in action research by deputy principals bodes well as support for teachers. Support, confidence and participation by the deputy principal are crucial elements for a school that seeks to carry out effective action research (Hewitt, & Little, 2005).

2.11.14. Modelling Good Teaching Behaviour

This is another instructional practice under the dimension of managing instruction (Hallinger & Murphy, 1982). Bryson and Hand (2007) define modelling as a teaching style in which the instructional leader demonstrates a new way to learning and teachers learn through observation. Gallimore & Tharp (1992) consider modelling to be a practice deliberately displaying particular instructional behaviour for promoting teachers' professional learning. Lunenburg (2011) argue that modelling explains the process of learning new knowledge through observation. Holland and Kabasigawa

(1980) succinctly state that acquisition of new knowledge or skills is the result of observation. Modelling allows teachers to imitate specific behaviours that encourage learning and that much of human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling (Bandura, 1986).

Salisu & Ransom (2014) identify four types of modelling as disposition modelling, task and performance modelling, scaffolding and student-centred modelling. In disposition modelling, instructional leaders model personal virtues like responsibility, integrity, trust and fairness. Deputy principals demonstrate responsibility by performing their duties, creating and maintaining a climate that is conducive to teaching and learning (Lumpkin, 2008). Deputy principals can also demonstrate responsibility virtue by attending to their classes and maintaining all the required teaching documents (Lickona, 2004). When deputy principals ensure provision of resources and support teacher initiatives, they are acting responsibly. Integrity can be demonstrated when deputy principals abide by school, district and national policies and regulations (Lumpkin, 2008).

Task and performance modelling occurs when instructional leaders demonstrate an activity like a demonstration lesson (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). This type of modelling, in most cases, precedes a demonstration. Teachers will, after the demonstration lesson, be expected to implement what they observed in their daily teaching on their own. Initially, teachers first observe so that they can try out demonstrated strategies (Bryson & Hand, 2007).

Scaffolding modelling is a technique where instructional leaders demonstrate or model the task to teachers then allow them to proceed with the assigned work at their pace (Salusi & Ransom, 2014). The role of the deputy principal in scaffolding is to give support to the teacher (Holland & Kobasigawa, 1980). Scaffolding can be used in demonstration lessons (Bryson & Hand, 2007).

2.11.15. Steps in Scaffolding

Scaffolding takes the following steps; deputy principal demonstration, collaborative activity, and teacher assignment (Zakariya, & Griffin, 2016).

Consistent with the steps above, the deputy principal demonstrates the expected activity before working out with the teacher. The third step requires the teacher to practice the activity with the support of the deputy principal where it is necessary.

In child-centred modelling, deputy principals assign tasks to teachers who demonstrated ability to do the task (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). Through lesson observation, the deputy principal might have seen this rare competency. The teacher is then asked to give a demonstration lesson. What is critical in this type of modelling is that the deputy principal identifies and engages the teacher with the requisite competency to demonstrate (Holland, & Kobasigawa, 1980).

Bandura (1986) succinctly observes that a major strength of observation is its ability to present knowledge required when solving challenges in some particular field. Teachers are expected to be effective in their teaching by modelling good teaching ethos from deputy principals.

2.12. CREATING A POSITIVE SCHOOL CLIMATE

Hallinger & Murphy (1987) state that the third instructional leadership dimension is creating a positive climate for teaching and learning. The dimension has three tasks that include providing incentives for learning, protecting instructional time and maintaining high presence in the school.

2.12.1. Providing Incentives for Learning

Provision of incentives for learners can be done on prize giving day functions where outstanding learners are given prizes for outstanding achievements. Parents can be invited at such functions. Incentives are likely to make learners value academic achievements.

2.12.2. Protecting Teaching Time

The principal should avoid interrupting issues unnecessarily for example, making long assembly presentations, and frequent staff meetings and inviting learners to the staffroom during lessons. Such practices have the effect of wasting time for learners and teachers.

2.12.3. Visibility

One of the often-ignored features in the affairs of a school is that the instructional leader should be visible (Cattaneo, Oggenfuss & Wolter, 2017). They are deluged with office work, disciplinary issues, telephone calls, among other things. The crucial place for an instructional leader is not his/her office, rather, the classroom and sports grounds (Whitaker, 2012). Hattie (2014) contends that instructional leaders can only be fully engrossed in the

school system when they participate in its activities. They should not remain loft and detached from the daily school activities (Cattaneo, Oggenfuss & Wolter, 2017).

Hewlett and Packard leaders introduced Management by Walking Around (MBWA) as a way to get leaders out of their offices to the shop floor (Anderson, Anderson & Parker, 2013). The philosophy behind MBWA is that highly effective company executives keep close to shop floor workers. Managers should be out of their offices 50% of their time (Buckner, 2008).

2.12.4. Values of MBWA

William *et al* (2012) contend that MBWA has three values namely, caring, openness and trust. Caring is about instructional leaders showing empathy and sympathy to teachers. It is also about instructional leaders and teachers subordinating individual goals to those of the organisation (William, Susan & Larry, 2012). Openness is when instructional leaders accommodate the views of teachers and trust is when teachers have confidence in their leaders (William *et al*, 2012).

While caring, openness and trust are key values, they cannot substitute visibility (Fisher, 2013). In the realm of education, walkthroughs are a key component of MBWA. Walkthrough is an instructional practice that engages teachers and account for instructional leaders' visibility (Fisher, 2013). Walkthrough may be regarded as providing feedback to teachers on matters related to instruction (Brown & Coley, 2011). Walkthroughs are also known as "informal observations, pop-ins, walk-ins or drop-ins" (Zepeda, 2005, p. 18). Other terms include "learning walks, instructional walks, focus walks, walkabouts, data walks, data snaps, learning visits, quick visits, mini-

observations, rounds, instructionally focused walkthroughs, administrative walkthroughs, supervisory walkthroughs, collegial walkthroughs, reflective walkthroughs and classroom walkthroughs” (Kachur, Stout & Edwards, 2010, p. 1). Although walkthroughs can be known by different names, their essence remain essentially the same, that is, to collect evidence on classroom activities that will inform instructional practice leading to school improvement and also illustrate the visibility of the instructional leader in the school (Garza, Ovando & O’Doherty, 2016). Walkthrough carried out by instructional leaders is aimed at teaching and learning and focuses on improvement of results and professional growth of teachers (Cudeiro, & Nelson, 2009).

Walkthroughs have the following characteristics “i). They are brief, lasting approximately 15-20 minutes, ii). They can occur at the beginning, middle or end of the period, and iii). They occur any time during the year”. On the duration of a walkthrough, Cervone & Martinez (2007) recommend 3-5 minute visits that look for how things are happening.

Moss & Brookhart (2013) list five major benefits of walkthroughs. The first benefit to instructional leaders is that they become conversant with the curriculum of the school and the teachers’ teaching methods. The second benefit to instructional leaders is that it can give them a hands-on appreciation of what is going on in the classrooms (Are learners provided with the opportunities to learn?). A walkthrough affirms instructional leaders as school leaders who can influence academic students’ achievement. The fourth benefit embraces both instructional leaders and teachers. Collegiality between teachers and instructional leaders is promoted. The last benefit

relates to learners in that learners can appreciate that instructional leaders and teachers value teaching and learning.

Literature suggests that walkthrough capacitates instructional leaders (Moss & Brookhart, 2013). Data obtained from walkthroughs empower deputy principals to make decisions on teaching and learning. For Fisher (2013), walkthroughs increase deputy principals' visibility in the school. Instead of confining themselves in their offices, walkthroughs provide deputy principals with an opportunity to have a graphic understanding of the goings-on in the school. Through walkthroughs, deputy principals acquaint themselves with the daily operations of the school. Walkthroughs, in addition, allow deputy principals to collect data to increase student outcomes and ultimately reduce school attrition rates (Ziegler, 2006). With regards to the purpose of walkthroughs, Brown & Coley (2011) argue that they aid mutual trust between deputy principals and teachers.

Ginsberg & Murphy (2002) summarise the benefits of walkthroughs when they note that instructional leaders acquaint themselves with how teaching and learning are taking place in the school. Instructional leaders also assert themselves as school leaders and mentors on a path to school renewal and learners viewing instructional leaders as people who value their learning.

2.12.5. Approaches to Walkthrough

Range, Holt & Young (2011) identify two approaches to walkthroughs. These are bureaucratic and collaborative.

2.12.6. Bureaucratic Approach

It typifies the bureaucratic nature of the school in that it identifies the principal and the deputy principal as the only persons reposed with the responsibility and authority to carry out walkthroughs and make recommendations on teaching and learning (Garza, Ovando & O'Doherty, 2016). The principal and the deputy principal are the authorities that provide feedback to the teacher who normally accepts and upholds the recommendations. The hierarchical layers represent knowledge. That is, it is expected that the principal and the deputy principal know more than ordinary teachers. The bureaucratic approach is consistent with the traditional view of instructional leadership. Marks & Printy (2003) view principals as the exclusive fountain of instructional knowledge. The bureaucratic approach stifles personal development on the part of the teacher (Shortland, 2010).

2.12.7. Collaborative Approach

As opposed to bureaucratic approach, the collaborative approach is consistent with distributed leadership tenets (Hallinger & Heck, 2010). Walkthroughs should be the responsibility of many actors (Moss & Brookhart, 2013). In addition to the principals, deputy principals, mentors and teachers may be part of the walkthrough team tasked to make classroom visits (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Collaborative approach holds the future for enhancing instruction (Rossi, 2007).

2.12.8. Conducting a Walkthrough

A walkthrough has a particular pattern. Before conducting a walkthrough, a team of the principal, deputy principal, and two to three teachers meet to discuss the purpose of the visit and give one another tasks (Downey, *et al.*,

2004). One looks at the classroom displays, the other looks at the chalkboard handwriting and the other interviews the learners what they are learning (Hopkins, 2007). When they are through with one classroom, the team briefly meets in the office briefing one another on their findings. After going through all the classrooms, they discuss the evidence they gathered (David, 2008). The focus of the visit is collection of data that informs instruction.

2.12.9. The Downey Walkthrough Model

The model was developed by Carolyn Downey with the aim of increasing instructional leader visibility in the classroom. It has four steps which are frequent 3-minute visits, identifying the focus of observations, collect data on classroom practices and reflective discussions (Ginsberg & Murphy, 2002).



Figure 2.3: The Downey model of walkthrough
(Ginsberg & Murphy, 2002)

The first step is a visit to gain information on practice. The visit is not a judgemental activity. The second step is to identify areas for observations. The objective is to ensure that teachers become responsible for their professional development. The third step is gathering data about what is happening in the classroom and its effect on student learning. The fourth step is reflective discussions. These are follow-up discussions with the teacher. Discussions may be held after a series of observations to enable meaningful feedback on instructional practice (Downey, Steffy, English,

Frase & Poston, 2004). The most effective walkthroughs provide classroom practitioners with relevant information about their practice.

Deputy principals' visibility can be demonstrated through walkthroughs (Fisher, 2013). Availability of the deputy principal at the school promotes teacher-deputy principal and deputy principal-student interaction. It also allows the deputy principal to visit classrooms frequently for him/her to understand what goes on in the classrooms. Based on his/her experiences, he/she can assist teachers and have focus on the goals of the school. Walkthroughs give the deputy principal a hands-on feeling of how teaching and learning occur in the school.

2.12.10. Raising High Expectations

Hallinger & Murphy (1987) observe that creating and sustaining a climate conducive to teaching and learning is one of the three dimensions of instructional leadership. They further note that one of the instructional practices under this dimension is raising high expectations among learners.

Cooper & Good (1983) describe school-wide expectations as inferences held by teachers about the future capabilities of learners. Hunter (2016) points out that one of the responsibilities of instructional leaders is to raise students' expectations so that they can improve their achievements.

Donna (2012) suggests that an instructional leader can assist in raising students' expectations by introducing policies that safeguard instructional time. Deputy principals can ensure that instructional time is not lost during assemblies and change-over of lessons. They can also ensure that there are

no disruptions of lessons during teaching and learning sessions (Murphy & Hallinger, 1982).

Instructional leaders should put in place policies that promote academic excellence (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). Deputy principals can assist by organising consultation days. These are days when parents are invited to the school for the purpose of discussing students' progress.

Donna (2012) argues that teachers' expectations about students have a bearing on their performance. A negative expectation may yield low students' performance. Deputy principals can inculcate, in their teachers, a sense of high expectations for themselves as teachers and accepting responsibility for students' achievement (Bookover & Lezotte, 1979; Edmonds, 1979).

Deputy principals can also assist in raising students' expectations by instilling a sense of order and discipline in the school (Edmonds, 1979; Newberg & Glatthorn, 1982). DuFour & Marzano (2011) summarise the role of the deputy principals in raising students' expectations when they categorically state that they should establish a reading culture, prioritise academic time and encourage teaching methods that focus on learners.

2.12.11. Building a Culture of Reading in the School

Igwe (2011) defines reading culture as instilling good reading habits to students. When students make it a habit to read books and other sources that are not necessarily part of their syllabi, they are said to have created a reading culture (Gbadamosi, 2007). For Ruterana (2012) reading culture is an aspect of the way of life for people in a society. In essence, a reading

culture is that kind of culture that views reading as a hobby and study as part of individual growth (Otikey, 2012). Reading culture is very important to a school since academic achievement cannot be realised without a culture of sustained reading (Ruterana, 2012). Libraries assist in creating a culture of reading in the school (Loh, Ellis & Paculdar, 2017). When students are involved in reading, they gain knowledge and seek to accomplish school goals (Daniel & Steres, 2011). What learners learn in class is further reinforced through extensive reading (Rosenberg, 2003). Students who do not engage in extensive reading lack location information skills, choosing information skills, assessing information skills and processing information skills (Ogbonna & Eze, 2015). Stairs & Stairs-Burgos (2010) understand reading as a vehicle for acquiring permanent knowledge and the acquisition of skills. They further point out that learners who read for examinations quickly forget soon after examinations. Libraries assist in enhancing learning in the school. Downgrading the importance of a library is counterproductive to school improvement efforts.

In Nigeria, for example, many schools have no libraries but reading rooms (Anyachebelu, Anyamene & Adebola, (2011). Eyo (2007) observes that the low levels of reading proficiency in schools in Nigeria could be accounted for on minimum funding of libraries. The instructional leaders should prioritise reading by allocating time to read in the library, accommodate students' interests in what they read and give all the necessary support (Getrost & Lance, 2014). Magara & Bukirwa (2004) emphasise adequate budgetary allocations towards the library. While agreeing with Chandrasekar & Sivathaasan (2016) that a library plays a crucial role in enhancing a culture of reading in the school, Goodman (2008) sees a quiet environment as

contributing to a culture of reading. Magara & Bukirwa (2004) acknowledges that e-books are gaining currency over basic textbooks. Considering maintenance, cost and user friendliness. Juma, Wamukoya & Wekullo (2014) prefer e-books over print textbooks. As a way of fostering a reading culture in the school, Parrott & Keith (2015) suggest staff developing teachers to man libraries. Instructional leaders should accommodate a wide variety of titles in their collection (Goodman, 2008).

2.12.12. Importance of School Libraries in Nigeria

Many schools in Nigeria have no libraries but reading rooms (Owate & Okpa, 2013). Eyo (2007) observes the importance of libraries when, by noting that the low levels of reading proficiency in Nigerian schools could be accounted for in part on lack of funding. Ogbonna & Eze (2015) identify four main benefits of school libraries in Nigeria. Firstly, libraries facilitate the development of reading skills and enhance life-long knowledge acquisition skills. Secondly, libraries offer wide reading materials other than those prescribed by the syllabi. Thirdly, a variety of reading materials allows for research and individual study. Finally, a wide variety of materials allows learners to read for leisure. Leisure reading promotes language acquisition, improves reading proficiency and increased acquisition of general knowledge.

2.12.13. Programmes for Reading Culture Development

Reading programmes are activities that a school can offer through its library to promote what the library has and to stimulate learners to read for leisure (Ogbonna & Eze, 2015). Reading programmes facilitate the development of

a reading culture. The reading programmes include providing access to reading sources, displays, exhibitions, telling stories, drama, debate, lending reading materials, book talks and professional librarian (Makatche & Oberlin, 2011).

One of the key functions of any library is providing access to books and other reading materials. An increasing body of literature indicates that learners develop interest in reading when reading sources and literature is easily accessible to them (Ogugua, Emerole, Egwim, Anyanwu & Haco-Obasi, 2015; Broeder, & Stockmans, 2013). Gabriel, Arlington & Billen (2012) echo similar sentiments when they point out that a school reading culture can be fostered when learners access textbooks and other reading sources. Instructional leaders should ensure the provision of reading materials that motivate learners. Instructional leaders can also invite authors of some books in the library to give presentations. This can motivate learners. The school library should avail literature that excites learners and provide fun so that interest to read is generated (Mahwasane, 2015).

Reading guidance is the other critical reading programme that fosters a reading culture in a school. Apathetic readers are stimulated to read when they are guided. Guided reading wets the appetite to read more (Ford & Opitz, 2011). Reading guidance is all about assisting readers on how to get the best book (Moruf, 2015). Instructional leaders can ensure guidance on reading by talking to students, issuing booklists and through displaying instructions in the library (Gabriel *et al.*, 2012). Gill (2004) confirms, in her study, that conversations with students increased confidence and usage of the library. Since libraries contain many books and publications, assisting

students by talking to them or issuing booklists available in the library helps them quickly access relevant books, creates interest in reading and avoids wasting a great deal of time searching for books (Gerick, 2001).

A reading culture can also be developed through displays and showcasing. These programmes are aimed at reaching out to students to inform them of what stocks are available in the library (Anunobi, 2005). The school can print posters and make use of bulletin boards. Showcasing helps advertising books to students (Avery & Avery, 1994).

Drama in schools can be used to strengthen reading (Gungor, 2008). Students are forced to read extensively when they dramatise short stories and plays. Successful dramatisation of a story is a culmination of extensive reading (McMaster, 1998). As an instructional leader, the deputy principal has a role to monitor instruction. The deputy principal can monitor instruction by promoting drama, which ultimately fosters a reading culture.

Quiz and storytelling, like drama, have the effect of demanding serious reading on the part of the learner (Hayashi, 1999). Speaker, Taylor and Kamen (2004) concur with the above view when they stress that storytelling demands reading with comprehension. Quiz is another programme a school can use to develop reading culture. Through quiz, learners are encouraged to read keenly (Otikey, 2012). The deputy principal has a role to facilitate quiz programmes in the school.

The library is a very important institution in the life of a school. An effective library is well resourced with a variety books and publications (Mokhtar &

Majid, 2005). Todd (2012) observes that the effectiveness of a school library depends, largely, on the calibre of the librarian. One of the responsibilities of the librarian is to help readers locate the books they want (Schultz- Jones & Oberg, 2015). The school library can assist teaching and learning when school management supervises the librarian (Todd, 2012). The deputy principal is an instructional leader in the school charged with the responsibility of all staff in the school.

Informative advertising is a strategy a library can use to draw the attention of readers. Kumah, (2004) argues that around 1870s, libraries were already marketing their services. Exhibitions became an integral technique for marketing by libraries (Schmidt, 2007). An exhibition is an expo for library books (Schaeffer, 1991). Exhibitions can be large or small. Velarde (2001) argues that irrespective of size, exhibitions require an area for displays in order to share information to the readers. A school can hold a small exhibition to market the books and other resources the library has (Velarde, 2001).

2.12.14. The Instructional Leadership Role in Creating a School Culture

McClesky (2014) holds the view that there is no universal definition of leadership. There are as numerous definitions as there are people who have tried to define it (Stodgill, 1974).

Fairholm (2015) posits that leadership is the capacity to influence a team towards the accomplishment of a set of goals. Harris and Jones (2019) stress that leadership is a process where one person, the leader, outlines the aim for others to follow. Heffernan (2018) indicates that leadership is the process of influencing other people to meet desired objectives. He further elaborates

that effective leaders create a vision for their school based on values. On the other hand, Silva (2016) offers a broader definition of leadership when he contends that, it is a two-way influence of the leader and followers in a given situation in which some people willingly accept someone as their leader to attain common objectives.

The above definition refers to five aspects of leadership. The first aspect is that leadership is a process (Kotter, 1988; Stodgill, 1974). Secondly, that leadership is characterised by a two-way communication between the leader and followers (Bass, 2010). Thirdly, that leadership occurs in a given situation and that if the situation changes, leadership process is affected (Kellermann, 2014.) The fourth issue relates to leadership as requiring people who accept leadership whether willingly (Kotter, 1988) or through coercion (Storey, 2011). Lastly, the definition mentions purpose. The aim of leadership is to achieve shared objectives (Stodgill, 1974).

Fullan (2010) lists key aspects that are necessary for instructional leaders to build a school culture. The list includes consulting senior members of the organisation, engaging in needs analysis and problem solving, initiating change, accommodating views to address challenges, commitment to change and developing a plan for execution. The above activities require collaboration in order to develop a strong culture of the school (Gruener & Whitaker, 2015). Hinde (2015) stresses that creating a school culture may not be the responsibility of one man/woman. The instructional leadership of the principal and deputy principal is instrumental for developing a culture of teaching and learning that ultimately improves students' achievement.

Hall & Hord (2015) give a typology of the best practices for creating a school culture by instructional leaders as; personal mastery, group learning and a shared vision.

2.12.15. Personal mastery

Personal mastery is about personal growth and acquiring knowledge (Retina, 2011). It is about developing a personal vision and directing others towards the achievement of that vision. Personal mastery increases connections between students and their teachers, curriculum and culture (McClure, Yonezaura & Jones, 2010). Students who manifest personal mastery are motivated to achieve school objectives (Moolenaar, Daly & Slegers, 2010).

Lynch, Lerner and Leventhal (2013) suggest ways instructional leaders can harness the skill to foster personal mastery that include creating an inquisitive mind, creating conditions for teachers to challenge the status quo, emphasising extrinsic motivation and role modelling. When instructional leaders, such as the deputy principal exhibit good behaviour they set as good examples for creating an effective culture of teaching and learning. Vos, Westhuizen, Mentz & Ellis (2012) identify features of leadership that promote a culture of teaching and learning that is likely to improve students' achievement. These characteristics are; engaging in objective formulation, creating an environment conducive to teaching and learning, maintaining healthy school and community relations, facilitating staff development and practising fair lesson observations.

2.12.16. Group Learning

Hall & Hord (2015) postulate that group learning is another practice that creates a school culture for instructional leaders. DuFour & Eaker (1998) define professional learning communities as creating a climate that engenders beneficial cooperation, psychological support and personal development for workers as they collectively work to achieve a common goal. Harris & Jones (2010) define professional learning communities as a way of exposing teachers to new instructional practices. Resnik (2010) further contends that one way of improving student achievement is to engage teachers in collaborative routines. A professional learning community is a robust strategy for school renewal (Hopkins, 2007; Stoll & Seashore Louis, 2007). The professional learning community is predicated upon urging teachers to work collaboratively (Darling-Hammond, Hyler & Gardner, 2017; Guskey, 1986). Shared decision-making has the effect of improving teacher efficacy. Professional communities that DuFour & Eaker envisage have characteristics that include a common vision and mission, collaborative groups, action oriented and results based. The role of the principal, deputy principal and parents cannot be underplayed (Harris & Jones, 2010).

Hord's (2004) dimension of a professional learning community includes the following; common vision, collaborative learning and conducive working conditions. Hord's model underlines interchange of ideas, congenial conditions and collective learning.

Extant literature shows that if instructional leaders incorporate professional learning communities they are likely to; enhance students' improvement, assist students aim higher, benefit from staff development and enjoy the

teaching profession (DuFour & Mattos, 2013; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Moolenaar *et al.*, 2010). Professional learning communities enable instructional leaders, such as deputy principals, demand accountability from their teams (DuFour & Mattos, 2013). It allows instructional leaders like principals and deputy principals to avail resources to teams so that they can achieve their goals. Lastly, through professional communities, principals and deputy principals get accountability from the teams (DuFour & Mattos, 2013).

2.12.17. Promoting a Positive School Culture

Culture is a very difficult term to understand. There is no globally accepted definition of culture. For the purpose of this argument, four definitions of culture will be presented to create a common view. Toom (2018) defines culture as a set of values, attitudes and behaviours shared and communicated from one generation to the other. Hongboontri & Keawkhong (2014) define culture as beliefs, behaviours and assumptions that give direction to organisation members. In addition to the above definitions, Schein (2010) offers a relatively accepted definition when he describes it as a way of assumptions developed by a group of people in an organisation as it grapples with its challenges. These assumptions are then passed onto new members as the norms of the group members.

Schein (2010) points out that there are three levels of culture in an organisation namely artefacts, values and assumptions. Artefacts include noticeboards displays, information pasted on walls, school rules and expectations. Artefacts also include learners' work, circulars and memos, activities of the school development committee, the school mission and vision. Teachers' dress code and how they interact are aspects of artefacts.

The second level of culture are values (Schein, 2010). Values guide organisation members as they discharge their duties. Values standardise the operations of the members. Values include the strategic plan of the school and the ministry goals. School goals need to be harmonised with those of the Ministry. This helps to bring a shared vision (Goldring, 2002). Schein (2010)'s third level involves assumptions. How organisation members grasp, rationalise and make an impression are assumptions (Schein, 2010).

School culture is crucial in creating an atmosphere which is conducive to teaching and learning (Cleveland, Powell, Saddler & Tyler, 2008). A large body of literature suggests that instructional leaders are culture builders (Deal & Peterson, 1994; Parish & Aquila, 1996). Deputy principals are instructional leaders, hence culture builders. Each school has a unique culture (Datnow, Hubbard & Mehau, 2002).

Wilmore (2002) observes that teachers are socialised in the school culture by instructional leaders, such as the principal, deputy principal and heads of department. Learners are also initiated in the school culture by these instructional leaders. School culture motivates teachers (French, Artkinson & Rugen 2007). For Kantabutra & Avery (2010), school culture accounts for the commitment, social relationships and work ethics of teachers and support staff. In other words, school culture explains how teachers deliver instruction and how learners learn. It is the duty of deputy principals to create a school culture that enhances teaching and learning. Spencer & Oatey (2012) posit that school culture depicts behaviours, beliefs and values of its

organisation members who include the principal, deputy principal, teachers and learners.

Teachers' commitment and motivation is partly shaped by the school culture (Kantabutra & Avery, 2010; Ohlson, Swanson, Manning-Adams & Byrd, 2016). Spencer-Oatey (2012) defines culture as assumptions, beliefs, behaviours and values.

2.12.18. Professional Development

The quality of teaching is a very important factor in determining student outcomes. In support of the above idea, Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012) posit that instructional leadership is second to classroom teaching in determining students' achievement. This has left instructional leaders and other stakeholders to ponder on the best possible ways to enhance quality in order to influence students' achievement. Pre-service training, no matter how effective it may be, cannot adequately address all the challenges that teachers may face in their careers. Faced with such a state of affairs, the education sector provides teachers with in-servicing opportunities to equip these teachers with skills and competencies to face the challenges. Teaching strategies used by teachers need to be improved for the benefit of students from time to time (Blaise, Blaise & Phillips, 2010). Guskey (1986) argues that one instructional leadership function is professional development of teachers.

Professional development of teachers can broadly be conceptualised as a process of sharpening the skills, competencies and capabilities of teachers (Postholm, 2012). Pedder & Opfer (2011) hold the view that professional

development is a practice for teachers that is aimed at improving standards in the face of global challenges. Civil Service Commission Vacancy Announcement No. 3 of 2010 states that deputy principals have the obligation to arrange professional development of teachers in order for them to improve their teaching.

Mitchell (2013) argues that there are three main objectives of professional development which are; to transform teachers' behaviours about their classroom teaching, to change their orientations and beliefs and improve students' achievement. Pedder & Opfer (2011) state that the purpose of professional development is, inter alia, to enable teachers adapt to changes in curricula and teaching practice, to re-equip teachers with skills, attitudes and strategies to face new curricula and educational trends, to enable teachers to interface and assist less effective teachers improve teaching practices.

2.12.19. Types of Professional Development

Mitchell (2013) identifies seven forms of professional development. These are; courses and workshops, seminars, qualifications programmes, visit to other schools, networks of teachers (professional learning communities), researches conducted by individual teachers or groups of teachers and action research.

Postholm (2012) contends that school leaders (principals and deputy principals), who are effective instructional leaders, appreciate the role of professional development and see their roles as critical in this regard. The

role of deputy principal is very critical in professional development (Day & Sachs, 2004; Fullan, 2010). Evans (2014) lists three main roles of instructional leaders in professional development. Firstly, the instructional leadership should plan professional development opportunities that seek to align individual teacher needs to those of the school and nation. The role of the deputy principal lies in identifying the most desirable form of professional development. These could be conferences, seminars and researches (Mitchell, 2013) that foster professional learning (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999).

2.12.20. Professional Learning Communities

Professional learning communities are a type of professional development (Jones, Stoll & Yarbrough, 2013). A professional learning community entails close interaction between teachers on matters regarding teaching and learning (Little, 2006). A professional learning community aims at promoting students' learning and teacher development. In a professional learning community, teachers are expected to share teaching methods and work collectively towards students' achievement (Schmoker, 2011).

Blankstein (2010) identifies six elements of professional learning communities. These are shared vision, maximisation of students' achievement, working collectively in matters regarding instruction, using classroom student data to make instructional decisions, supporting environment and securing stakeholder involvement. Dufour & Marzano, (2011) argue that prioritisation of learning for each student is critical for professional learning communities. The view resonates well with Blankstein (2010) who emphasises maximisation of students' learning. Little (2006)

stresses that professional learning communities are most effective when students' data are used to improve students' learning. This view is in sync with Blankstein (2010), who identifies professional learning communities with using classroom data to make instructional decisions.

Sicconne (2012) observes four techniques for professional learning communities. These are preparing the school timetable to accommodate time for staff meetings and planning, giving support to teachers in professional learning communities, allowing teachers in professional learning communities to start with topics they are familiar with before moving on to complex ones and getting feedback from each professional learning session.

Characteristics showing a strong professional learning community culture include potential to mobilise resources to achieve school goals, creating a culture of high expectation for teachers and learners alike, valuing teaching and learning, regularly monitoring students' academic progress and appreciating time as an important resource by ensuring minimum disruptions of lessons. Hipp & Huffman (2010) argue that instructional leaders facilitate professional learning communities. They play a supportive role (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace & Thomas (2006). In other words, instructional leaders, like deputy principals, play a significant role in the way they interact with teachers and learners. They can promote or stifle professional learning communities. Deputy principals encourage teachers to work collectively than as individuals (Markku, Ilomaki, Nuttila & Auli, 2018). Deputy principals, as part of instructional leadership, should foster a school culture that promotes professional development through shared vision, peer coaching and

provision of instructional material. Fullan (2010) supports the above contention when he argues that the instructional leadership of the school has a strong bearing on the culture of the school. McLaughlin & Talbert (2016) stress that instructional leadership should provide resources that facilitate learning. Loucks, Stiles, Mundry, Love & Hewson (2010) emphasise that instructional leadership should provide teachers with opportunities for experimentation. Experimentation can best be achieved when teachers engage in individual or collaborative researches (Hilton, Hilton, Dole & Goos, 2015). Deputy principals can also facilitate formation of professional learning communities (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2016). Deputy principals can take skills and knowledge audits to determine gaps and needs (Hilton, *et al.*, 2015).

Stoll, Bollam, McMahon, Thomas, Wallace, Greenwood & Hawkey (2006) identify two areas deputy principals can impact. Deputy principals can affect the climate in which teachers work. They can encourage dialogue among teachers, courses, workshops and conducting demonstration lessons. The second area relates to supporting teachers with instructional resources and action research (Law & Glover, 2000).

2.12.21. Visit to Other School

Visiting other schools is a type of professional development (Mitchell, 2013). Kennedy (2016) warns that visiting other schools for the purpose of professional development must have a purpose. The goal of the visit should be driven by evidence of student achievement, evidence that teachers work collaboratively and prioritise student success (Pedder & Opfer, 2011). The visiting school should choose a school that offers opportunities for learning (Kennedy, 2016). Evans (2014) provides a list of questions that assist the

visiting school obtain information that is critical for instructional improvement from the host school. For example:

- a) What is the vision statement of the school?
- b) What is the teacher-learner ratio of the school?
- c) How does the school deal with discipline?
- d) Does the school have a homework policy?
- e) Is there a library in the school?
- f) How wide is the curriculum?
- g) How does the school cater for the academically gifted learners?
- h) How does the school cater for the academically challenged learners?
- i) Is there a programme for the less proficient readers?
- j) What are some of the notable achievements and challenges for the school?

Evans (2014) suggests areas the visiting school should observe. These are;

- a) Classroom appearance and teacher displays
- b) Displays of the learners' work
- c) Teacher-learner rapport
- d) Learner responds to the bell at change-over of lessons
- e) Existence of the School Development Association (SDC)
- f) Involvement of the SDC in school affairs
- g) Infrastructural development
- h) Maintenance of resources
- i) Walkthroughs
- j) Teachers engaged in discussions of student progress
- k) Staff meetings

Specifically, for high schools Borko (2004) proposes the following questions.

- a) What are the career paths for learners?
- b) Is there a viable guidance and counselling programme?
- c) Is there provision for extra teaching?
- d) Is there a culture for high expectations for both teachers and learners?
- e) What is the attrition rate for the school?
- f) Does the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) programme exist?

Borko (2004) further suggests that the visiting team should be represented by stakeholders who may include teachers, instructional leaders, parents and support staff that prepares a school visit programme in conjunction with the host school.

2.12.22. Protecting Instructional Time

Time is a very important resource (Gahrman, 2002). An effective school can be enhanced by protecting instructional time (Hallinger, 2015). Behar-Horenstein, Isaac, Seabert & Davis (2006) define instructional time as time allocated to learners for the core purpose of learning. The core business of a school is teaching and learning and an erosion of anytime for teaching undermines the very existence of a school (Hanushek, 2015). Therefore, time allocated for classroom teaching and learning must be safeguarded from interruptions. Ayodele (2014) views instructional time as time allocated for teaching activities in the classroom, that is, the length of time of a lesson period. Lavy (2015) states that instructional time does not include teacher

meetings, lunch breaks and tea breaks, time for marking registers and co-curricular activities. There is no substitute for teaching time.

Misusing the school day has the consequence of diminishing instructional time. Time is one of the most important resources a school has to maximise students' outcome (Kuceris & Zakariya, 1992). The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 1993) contends that optimum use of instructional time has a strong bearing on students' achievement. There exists a link between time committed to learning and marks obtained by learners (Levin & Nolan, 2014).

Loss of instructional time is a perennial problem for many schools (Behar-Horestein *et al.*, 2006). A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform (1983) expressed concern over the loss of instructional time and directed that schools concentrate on their core duties. An increasing body of literature on the erosion of instructional time attribute it to class-changer over, break and lunch periods (Partin, 1987). Boyer (1983) argues that schools lose around fifty per cent of their time to non-instructional practices. On the other hand, several researches have concluded that instructional time is also lost when teachers engage in non-core duties (Metzker, 2003; Aronson, Zimmerman & Carlos, 1999). Behar-Horenstein *et al.* (2006) observe that the loss of instructional time has not been exclusive to the USA alone but to other countries as well. Unanticipated visits by parents, guardians, other stakeholders and learners were found to be some of the encroachers in Britain (Valley & Busher, 1999). In Canada, the Royal Commission Implementation Secretariat (1995) states that loss of instructional time was due to unscheduled interferences. France (2005) classifies the following as

external classroom encroachers; unplanned visits by learners, educators and parents, announcements, answering telephone calls and learner call-outs.

Saloviita (2013) attributes loss of instructional time to assemblies, unplanned disturbances and special functions like civvies day. For Walberg, Niemiec & Frederick (1994) loss of instructional time is a result of weak school codes of conduct. Leonard (2003) classifies external encroachment into two broad distinctions namely unscheduled encroachments exemplified by assemblies and scheduled encroachments comprising students and parents visiting classrooms.

2.12.23. Strategies to Protect Erosion of Instructional Time

Behar-Horenstein *et al.* (2006) argue that persistent loss of instructional time through external disruptions impact on teaching and learning. School leaders play a crucial role in protecting instructional time. Stringfield & Teddie (1991) posit that effective schools were administered by instructional leaders who upheld policies and regulations that prioritised educators' and learners' instructional time. Saloviita (2013) recommends joint effort by instructional leaders to prioritise teaching and learning and non-interference with students in class. This is most effective where schools spell out what should be done during lessons and protecting classrooms where learning will be taking place. Instructional leaders should work collaboratively with educators to prioritise instructional time (Behar-Horenstein *et al.*, 2006).

Zarlengo (1998) offers the following strategies to protect erosion of instructional time:

- a) Instructional leaders should allocate more time to teaching and learning.
- b) Time for non-core duties should be kept at the least possible.
- c) Allocating core subjects times that are least prone to disturbances.
- d) Avoiding calling teachers to the office during teaching time.
- e) Monitoring teacher and learner punctuality and absenteeism.

Biesinger, Crippen & Muis (2008) suggest block scheduling as a strategy to protect instructional time.

2.12.24. Block Scheduling

Block scheduling is a method of organising a typical school day into longer periods than the traditional 50-minute class, with a 4+4 block learners take four 90 minute classes each day allowing for finishing a course in one semester instead of a full year (Raines, 2010). Block scheduling allows for fewer classes each day for longer periods of time (Queen, 2000).

Literature on block scheduling posit that a significant portion of time is consumed by non-instructional tasks leaving, in some cases, about 25 minutes of a 45-minute lesson for teaching and learning (Robbins, Gregory & Herndon, 2000). In a normal eight period-day, educators are expected to prepare for eight subjects, resultantly, they may do it perfunctorily (Slate & Jones, 2000). Learners prepare for more subjects which can have adverse impact on their learning particularly in home work that teachers would cursorily mark in order to accommodate written work from seven or more classes on a given night rather than four (Reams, 2009). Cawelti (1994)

justifies the adoption of block scheduling by arguing that it offers fewer classes and longer class periods. Instructional leaders like deputy principals play a key role in protecting instructional time. Deputy principals can monitor teacher and learner punctuality and absenteeism (Zarlengo, 1998).

2.12.25. Incentives to Improve Teaching

Teachers across the globe are generally paid a fixed salary based on qualifications and experience (Dee & Wyckoff, 2013). There is growing criticism to a fixed salary. Johnson & Papay (2009) argue that such a conservative remuneration method may face challenges in its bid to attract new entrants in the system and retain existing staff in the field. Advocates of teacher incentives maintain that teachers can improve students' achievement (Sanders & Rivers, 1996; Chetty, Friedman & Rockoff, 2014). Despite mixed findings, a growing body of literature acknowledges the relationship between teacher incentives and students' achievement (Fryer & Dobbie, 2013; Glewwe, Ilias & Kremer, 2010; Glazerman, Protik, Teh, Bruch & Max, 2013; Eberts, Hollenbeck & Stone, 2002). Resultantly, schools have employed teacher incentive schemes as a vehicle for improved students' achievement.

Kenya, India, Israel and the USA, are some countries that have implemented teacher incentives (Glewwe & Kremer, 2010; Lavy, 2015; Muralidharan & Sundararaman, 2011). In Kenya, teachers are awarded prizes based on the national examinations and the prizes are offered by local communities (Glewwe & Kremer, 2010). Teacher incentives motivate teachers to commit effort to their work and be innovative in their teaching approach (Bond &

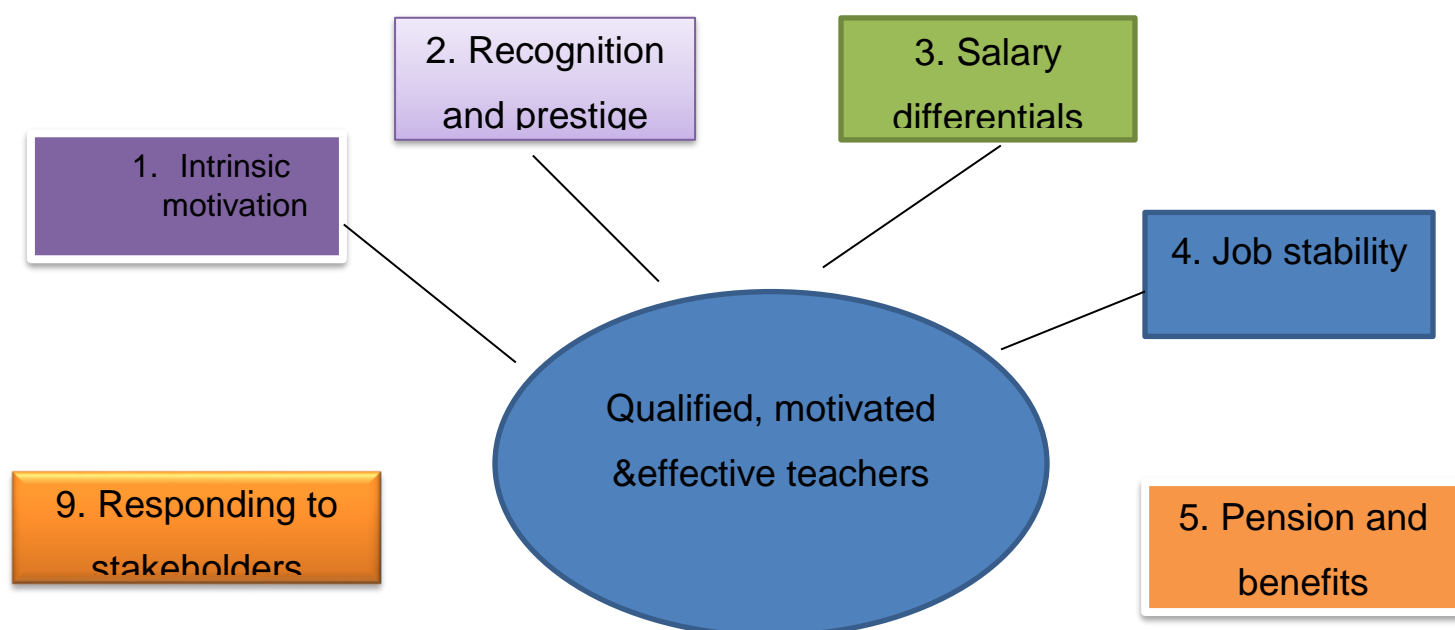
Mumford, 2018). Imberman (2015) identifies two forms of incentives namely, individual-based and group-based.

The individual-based incentive scheme rewards teachers based on how they increase students' achievement (Holmstrom & Milgrom, 1991). It fosters competition among teachers. Individual-based incentive appreciates that teacher motivation levels can be lowered if a scheme rewards all teachers equally.

On the other hand, the group-based incentive scheme rewards teachers as a group rather than as individuals (Prendergrast, 1999). They further argue that performance levels of team members are best known by colleagues than the principal. Group members can monitor, motivate and persuade colleagues to always exert pressure (Hehenkamp & Kaarbor, 2006). Cooperation and synergies symptomatic of the sector can also manifest itself in group-based incentive (Hehenkamp & Kaarbor, 2006). Lavy (2015) argues that in education, teachers are teams and as such, it is a challenge to measure an individual's contribution in relation to others. Observing the importance of group-based incentive, Ladley, Wilkinson & Young (2015) argue that whatever is good comes from teams. They further argue that team-based mechanisms work better than individual-based mechanisms. While critics of group-based incentive view it as constrained by free riders, Ladley, Wilkinson and Young (2015) see potential in self-sacrificers. They define self-sacrificers as workers who mobilise others to work hard and invoke high performance in other workers in the team.

Hallinger (2015) states that one function of instructional leaders is to provide incentives for teaching. The Oxford Dictionary (2018) defines incentive as something that stimulates action. Teacher incentives can be understood as schemes that arouse teachers to improve their performance and achieve overall school goals. Liang, Zhang, Huang & Qiao (2015) contend that teacher incentives have the potential to stimulate intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Makki & Abid (2010) perceives intrinsic motivation as inherent drives whereas extrinsic are external drives.

Dolan, Metcalfe & Navarro-Martinez (2012) argue that giving teachers incentives spurs them to work harder and improve students' achievement. The above notion is corroborated by Chakandinakira (2016) when he points out that, when teachers are generally satisfied, they tend to work hard to improve students' results. Sawanda & Ragatz (2005) indicated that in El Salvador, a school award system helped teachers to improve the quality of their teaching. Conteras & Talovera (2003) state that in Bolivia, the school award system enhanced the spirit of team work among teachers. Vergas (2005) summarises the types of incentives a school can give teachers to motivate their behaviour.



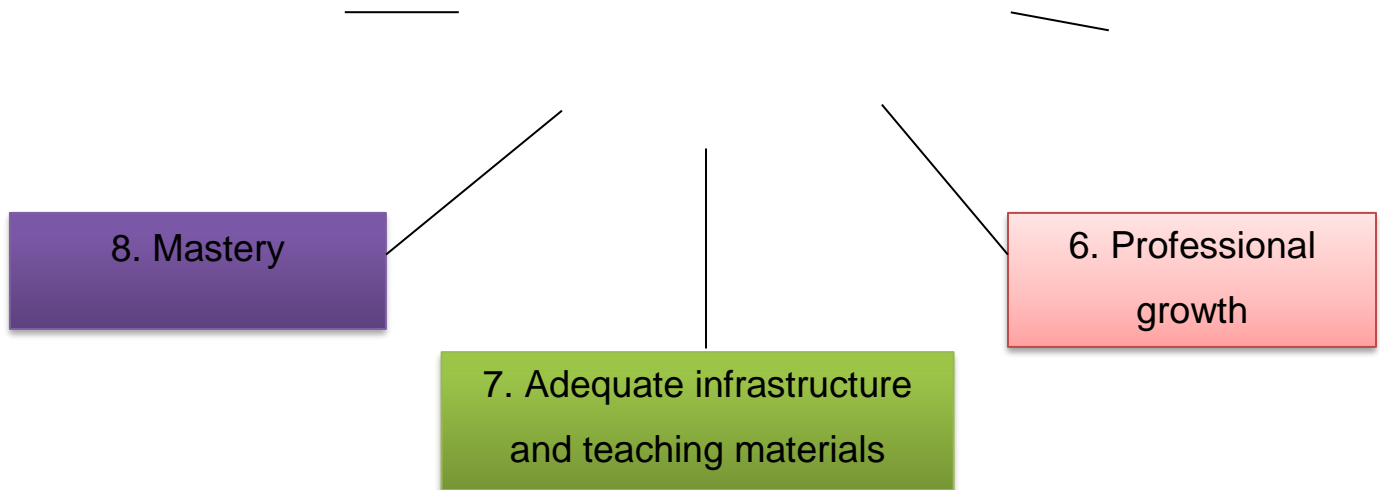


Figure 2.4: Types of incentives (Source: Vergas, 2005).

Figure 2.4 above identifies the types of incentives deputy principals can use to motivate teachers to improve academic performance of the learners.

At school, instructional leadership, including the deputy principal, can use intrinsic motivation, mastery, salary differentials, infrastructure and teaching materials to motivate teachers. Vergas (2005) suggests that deputy principals can assist create a culture that can motivate teachers to commit themselves to their work. Shared vision assists in motivating teachers to work hard. Professional growth, as a scheme, can help teachers work vigorously to improve their work.

2.13. CHALLENGES FACED BY DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

Despite its permanence in the realm of education, the position of assistant principal has remained ill-defined (Armstrong, 2014). Deputy principals' responsibilities are often not clearly defined leading to role conflict where there is a mismatch between the job description and what obtains on the

ground. In the majority of cases, deputy principals work at the pleasure of the principal (Glanz, 1994).

The other challenge faced by deputy principals is lack of administrative authority (Marshall & Hooley, 2006). The position of deputy principal is viewed as acting for the principal and not as second to principal and on the organisational structure wielding substantive authority. Principals are often opposed to a strong deputy principal leadership authority (Martinez, 2011).

From 1996, the workload for deputy principals in South Africa was substantially increased to include keeping portfolios for all students in the school (Potterton & Mackenzie, 2014). The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (Zimbabwe) Director's Circular Minute Number 15 of 2006 states twenty specific duties for deputy principals. Such a workload creates conflict between teaching and managerial functions. Increased workload and a challenge to balance their career and social lives add to the woes of their frustrations and conspire against their agitation to perform an instructional leadership role (Woods, 2012).

2.13.1. Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework can be viewed as a set of ideas that inform and guide the researcher from formulating the statement of the problem up to writing the final research report. This research employed symbolic interactionism as a lens to understand the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership (Berg, 2014).

2.13.2. Origins and Meaning of Symbolic Interactionism

The theory of symbolic interactionism was developed by George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) at the University of Chicago in the 20th Century. It is both a sociological theory and a knowledge theory, which illustrates the importance of action among humans in the creation, development and negotiations of meanings and reality. A contemporary of Mead and one of the pioneers of symbolic interactionism, Marx Weber (1864-1920), stressed the centrality of action between individuals (interaction) in the creation of meaning and interpretation of reality (Smart & Ritzer, 2001, p. 7). The theory of symbolic interactionism is a product of the Chicago School of Sociology which developed the qualitative research approach as an alternative to positivism, which was found unsuitable for researching social and educational phenomena. It contends that there is no objective reality which is divorced from the context in which it is rooted. Herbert Blumer, Everett Hughes, Howard Becker & Blanche Geer are some of the scholars linked to symbolic interactionism but largely drawing on Mead's work.

Symbolic interactionism is a sociological theory which examines how people interact in small groups to define their contexts (Haralambos, Molborn, Chapman & Moore, 2013). My study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership studied each deputy principal and his/her office as a micro-entity lending the study within the realm of a micro-scale group as the deputy principals negotiated to give meaning to the reality

of their instructional leadership role in their contexts. Symbolic interactionism is the manner in which we allocate meaning to the world around us through our own translation (Mackinnon, 2005). Our understanding of meaning of events and things is shaped by social interaction. Human beings then share the meanings in an interactive process (Cohen, *et al.*, 2014). When one wants to understand the behaviour patterns of members of the society, he/she needs to share these symbols. Language becomes the tool for constructing reality. When deputy principals gave accounts of their role and experiences with instructional leadership during interviews, they shared symbols with the researcher.

Social interaction directed the study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The theory asserts that people living in a society develop meaning of the world around them through the process of interaction (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013). This characteristic of symbolic interactionism enables the research to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Meanings deputy principals constructed during interviews and observations were the mainstay of this thesis. Thick descriptions of their experiences and opinions through interviews and observations made the accounts to be emic (Blaise & Blaise, 2010).

2.14. WHY SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM WAS PREFERRED

Symbolic interactionism was chosen for this study because of its tenets that are discussed below.

2.14.1 Small-scale Interaction

Symbolic interactionism was found most suitable in this study because it focuses on small scale interaction among individuals rather than the whole society (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013). My study examined how three deputy principals enact their role of instructional leadership. It explored how they interact with principals, teachers, learners and other stakeholders to create meanings of their role and experiences thus, giving an interactionist perspective. In a school set-up, the interaction circle of deputy principal, principal, teachers and learners resemble a micro-grouping.

2.14.2. Use of Symbols

Symbolic interactionism is a process where people communicate using symbols to create meaning. Through symbolic interactionism, human beings understand their experiences and those of others. In other words, symbolic interactionism, through symbols, links us to society and society to us. Understanding the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership involves creation, interpretation and negotiation of meaning between the deputy principals and the teachers making symbolic interactionism a suitable theoretical framework for this research. Through the use of symbols, I was able to understand the instructional leadership role and experiences of deputy principals. Before deputy principals responded to interview questions on their instructional leadership role, they first interpreted (gave meaning) to the question and then used symbols to respond to the interview question. Through the use of symbols, I was able to understand the instructional leadership experiences of deputy principals.

2.14.3. Individuality

Symbolic interactionism observes the importance of individual difference. Individuality gives effect to the notion that each person is different from the other (Serpe & Stryker, 2011). This study appreciates that each deputy principal is different from the other implying that, although they hold the same substantive posts, they can discharge the instructional leadership role differently. The meanings deputy principals attach to their instructional leadership practices vary from deputy principal to the other depending on their backgrounds and contexts they operated. In this study, each deputy principal was observed and interviewed at his/her school.

2.14.4. Self- concept

Interaction with teachers and other stakeholders allows deputy principals develop self-concept. Self-concept is the manner in which an individual views himself or herself. Haralambos *et al.* (2012) argue that self-concept results from the process of interaction and it shows the reaction of others towards the individual. In the process of interaction, a deputy principal who is referred to as performing or not performing instructional leadership role will behave in accordance with how society views. In other words, the concept of self is the characterisation of people, as a result of the process of interaction. Using multiple interviews, this study explores whether or not deputy principals enact the instructional leadership role.

Critics of symbolic interactionism condemn it for its focus on a fraction of the society rather the whole society (Haralambos, *et al.*, 2013). Symbolic interactionism operates on a micro rather than macro level. In spite of this criticism, symbolic interactionism was relevant for this study since I wanted to understand the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional

leadership. This provided an opportunity for me to understand the meanings deputy principals shared when they enacted the instructional leadership role.

Symbolic interactionism investigates individual patterns of behaviour in situ (McNeil, & Townely, 1986). Interviews and observations were used. This appealed to the sense of sight and hearing as they expressed their views and went about their duties.

2.15. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The study is guided by two frameworks, namely distributed leadership Hallinger (2015) and instructional leadership Spillane & Heck (2015). Instructional leadership can be achieved in many ways. Jones, Shannon & Weigel (2014) define instructional leadership as leadership that relates to those activities engaged in by the principal to create a conducive climate to teaching and learning. Essentially, the instructional leadership role of the principal is to provide resources to facilitate teaching and learning. For Hoy & Miskel (2012), the role of the instructional leader is to improve student achievement. Glickman, Gordon & Gordon (2010) identify instructional leadership tasks as working with teachers, facilitating staff development, and curriculum development. Harvey & Sheridan (2012) contend that instructional leadership focuses on instruction. This includes supervision of teaching and learning, initiating change, creating opportunities for staff development and fostering a climate congenial to teaching and learning. Instructional leadership works with teachers to improve student academic achievement.

There are three models of instructional leadership, according to Lunenburg (2011); Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012); Hallinger & Murphy (1987). Lunenburg's model of instructional leadership has five dimensions critical to school leaders, these are; learning, collaboration, use of data to inform learning, support to teachers and aligning the curriculum (see Table 2.3).

Leithwood & Seashore Louis's model has four dimensions for school leaders. The dimensions are, setting direction, staff development, aligning school goals and managing instruction (see Table 2.4).

Hallinger & Murphy (1987) identify three dimensions of instructional leadership and eleven tasks for school leaders. The dimensions are; defining the vision and mission of the school, managing pedagogics and creating an enabling school climate (see Table 2.2).

This study adopts Hallinger & Murphy's model of instructional leadership. Under each dimension, school leaders have certain tasks to perform. For example, under the dimension of defining the school vision and mission, school leaders are expected to perform the following tasks; formulating the vision and mission of the school and communicating these to stakeholders (see Table 2.2).

Instructional leadership has been heralded as the only way to improve students' performance (Hendricks, 2014). The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Director's Circular Minute Number 15 of 2006 states that instructional leadership is the function of the school head. In other words,

with regards Hallinger & Murphy's (1987) model of instructional leadership, all the tasks are carried out by the principal.

Spillane & Mertz (2015) advocate the inclusion of deputy principals and teacher leaders in instructional leadership. Jita (2010) argues for more players in dispensing the instructional leadership role. This view leads to the second framework that informed the study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, thus the distributed leadership. On the school's organisational structure, deputy principals are second to the principal. This study sought to investigate how deputy principals enacted and experienced the instructional leadership role as premised by Hallinger & Murphy (1987).

2.16. DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP

In addition to instructional leadership, distributed leadership forms the other conceptual framework underpinning this study. Baharuddin & Daud (2014) argue that, because of the complex role of principals, school leadership cannot be the task of only one person. Spillane & Mertz (2015) concur with the observation and maintain that the leading and administration of schools should not be the preserve of one person but many individuals. Jita (2010) also notes that leadership should involve many actors. Effective schools are associated with distributed leadership, making it an indicator of an effective school (Jita, 2010). Humphreys (2010), also contends that leadership can be formal or informal and cannot reside in an individual. Contemporary leadership configurations have changed from the chain of command where leaders occupy the top ranks of the structure to distributed leadership (Senge, *et al.*, 2005 cited in Baharuddin & Daud, 2014).

Bolden (2011) traces the history of distributed leadership as far back as 1250 BC. Gibbs (1954), cited in Bolden (2011), is the first author to popularise distributed leadership. For Bolden, distributed leadership is best understood as group activity. Today, distributed leadership has gained rather than lost prominence on the leadership landscape (Bolden, 2011).

Muranda *et al.* (2011) recommend that the principal of a school should involve other teammates, such as deputy principals, senior teachers and teachers to share the leaders' roles. Overall, the construct of distributed leadership views leadership as a shared responsibility (Goksoy, 2016).

An increasing body of literature has shown that there is a positive relationship between distributed leadership and student achievement (Bolden, 2011; Baharuddin & Daud, 2014). According to Humphreys (2010), leadership has a positive influence on students' outcomes. Spillane & Mertz (2015) argue that the hallmark of distributed leadership is its focus on instruction. Humphreys (2010) sums up the importance of distributed leadership by positing that distributed leadership works with teachers, who in turn work with learners to influence their performance.

The study examined the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. It is the contention of this study that, if deputy principals perform an instructional leadership role, there is a likelihood of improved student achievement in schools. Deputy principals will be complementing principals' efforts in performing instructional leadership to improve students' results.

Distributed leadership is a marked departure from the trait leadership theory (Spillane & Mertz, 2015). Trait leadership theories view a leader as a hero and a person endowed with unique leadership characteristics (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011). The characteristics and conduct of individuals is emphasised (Bolden, 2011). Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube (2015) share this view when they state that the notion of school leadership is restricted to lone individuals on the bureaucratic structure, referring to single leadership. Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (Zimbabwe), Circular Minute Number 15 of 2006 refers to the principal of a school as the single instructional teacher.

The lens of distributed leadership examines leadership as a shared responsibility (Goksoy, 2016). It is not the concern of one person at the top levels of the institution (Jita, 2010). According to Spillane & Mertz (2015), two advocates of distributed leadership, conceive it as integral to teaching and learning and concur that it involves all organisational members. Spillane *et al.* (2015) reinforce the above view when they state that in distributed leadership, the leader distributes tasks to the organisation members.

The view is also shared by Elmore (2002), who argues that in distributed leadership, the distribution of school functions affects all members of the organisation. Bennet, Wise, Woods & Harvey (2003) posit that leadership should be conceived as a group of activities and that it should not be the province of a single individual. Educational needs of the 21st Century require leaders who capacitate others, and one thing is patently clear that leaders who single-handedly run the affairs of the school will not transform these

institutions (Spillane, Mertz, Jones & Harris, 2015). Advocates of distributed leadership affirm that collaborative leadership is most prudent in schools because of the complex nature of tasks (Goksoy, 2016). Hoy & Miskel (2012) attest that the responsibility of handling a plethora of tangled tasks is shared amongst organisational members. Spillane & Mertz (2015) justify the involvement of organisational members by arguing that leadership practices are too complicated to be left to an individual. Duignan (2012) supports the contention that the idea of distributing leadership across all organisation members is prudent because of the complex nature of the challenges schools face today.

Leithwood & Seashore-Louis (2012) argue that the rationale behind collaboration is the marshalling of ideas to optimise organisational effectiveness that leads to improved student achievements. Lone leadership becomes the antithesis of transforming schools to face 21st Century challenges.

The principal of the school is the principal officer who leads instructions in the school (Qutoshi & Khaki, 2014). The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, Director`s Circular Minute, 15 of 2006 states that the principal of the school is the sole instructional leader in the school. However, Muranda *et al.* (2011) conclude that principals have a multitude of responsibilities that constrain them in discharging instructional leadership. Baloglu (2011) shares the same sentiments that teachers and parents agree that principals of schools have many responsibilities, resulting in them sacrificing instructional leadership.

Distributed leadership could be the remedy to the effectiveness of principals in discharging their instructional leadership role. Barrett & Breyer (2014) recommend that school leaders should appoint other department members to assist in instructional leadership. Paulsen & Martin (2014) argue that collaboration between administrators and teachers can assist in combining efforts towards improving learner outcomes. Hallinger & Heck (2010) also see the importance of involving teachers and administrators towards school improvement. Muranda *et al.* (2011) suggest that the principals of the school should involve other functionaries, such as deputy principals, senior teachers and teachers in instructional leadership. The deputy principal occupies the second layer on the hierarchical structure of the school (Oplatka, 2010).

Hallinger & Heck (1987) identify three dimensions for school leaders. Each dimension has tasks that the principal is expected to perform. Muranda *et al.* (2011) argue that deputy principals are instructional leaders. Consequently, they are expected to carry out instructional tasks. This study seeks to explore whether or not deputy principals enact instructional tasks as part of distributed leadership.

2.17. SUMMARY

This study, on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, is informed and anchored on the theory of symbolic interactionism. The theory holds that individuals living in a society develop meaning of the world around them through the process of interaction. The theory stresses the importance of interaction between deputy principals and stakeholders in creating and negotiating meanings on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Symbolic

interactionism observes the tenet of individuality and that, therefore, the meanings deputy principals attach to their instructional leadership practices vary from one deputy principal to the other. The discussion of literature revealed that deputy principals enact the instructional leadership role although they face challenges.

The review of existing literature revealed that scholars have different views on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The discussion of extant literature also showed that the discourse on the role and experiences with instructional leadership is going on. This research was conducted as an instalment to the on-going debate. The next chapter, chapter three, presents the research methodology and design adopted for this research.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS AND DESIGN

3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the research methods used to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. The chapter begins by discussing the research design and research paradigm. It also explains the sampling procedures and data collection techniques and instruments. Furthermore, it explains how data were analysed. Issues of trustworthiness and research ethics are also discussed before a summary of the whole chapter is presented.

A summary of the research questions that directed this study is imperative for comprehending the research methodology employed. The main research question was; how do deputy principals experience instructional leadership roles in Zimbabwe? To address the main research question adequately, the research was guided by the following sub-research questions:

- 1) What are some of the practices of instructional leadership that deputy principals in Zimbabwe engage in?
- 2) How do deputy principals experience the practice of instructional leadership?
- 3) What are the opportunities and challenges of instructional leadership practice?
- 4) How can the experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe be understood and/or explained?

3.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM

Cohen *et al.* (2014), define a paradigm as values shared by investigators on how research should be conducted. Barker (2003) cited in Vosloo (2014), views a paradigm as a set of beliefs for collecting and analysing data. It is a worldview used by researchers to create knowledge. A paradigm can also be understood as a lens through which one can see and understand the world. A paradigm reflects societal beliefs about the world. The beliefs and values that researchers hold when they want to investigate the roles and experiences of deputy principals with regard to instructional leadership reflect the paradigm.

Adil-Abdul & Khalid (2016) define a paradigm as a pattern of beliefs and values held by researchers when they seek to find solutions to problems. The beliefs and values that researchers share when they inquire into the roles and experiences of deputy principals in respect of instructional leadership in Zimbabwe relate to a paradigm. Frequently used paradigms in research include pragmatism, realism, interpretivism, positivism and post-positivism. The present study employs interpretivism as its paradigm. Provided below is a rigorous discussion of the basic tenets of interpretivism and its justification for its adoption in the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe.

Myers (2009) observes that understanding of reality is drawn from societal constructions like language and collective meaning. Interpretivism is rooted in observation and interpretation. Information about events is gathered through observation and is interpreted through meanings people attach to them. Interpretivism emphasises that the world is better perceived from the

experiences of the subjects. It, therefore, follows that a better understanding of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership is best understood from their experiences using instruments like interviews and observations that depend on the subjective union between the researcher and the participants.

3.3. RESEARCH APPROACH

In order to adequately answer the research questions of this study, a qualitative research approach was employed. Castellan (2010) defines qualitative research as an investigation of the expressions of individuals' understandings of themselves and that of their environment. The research is qualitative because data gathered often come in more detail. The goal of qualitative research is to obtain an understanding from individuals about the world around them (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Harwell (2011) describes qualitative research as aiming at gathering expressive data in its context.

The aim of the study and the type of data required to address the research questions led to the adoption of the research approach. In the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, interviews and observation enabled the researcher to obtain thick data in the natural environment of deputy principals. The researcher conducted interviews and observed deputy principals at their schools performing their routine duties. Bodnarchuk (2016) argues that qualitative research is generally carried out in an environment that allows contact or close communication with the respondents. Thomas (2010) argues that qualitative research is realistic and graphic and it strives to investigate people in their normal habitats. Denzin & Lincoln (2011) point out that qualitative

researchers aim to determine the perceptions of informants rather than impose their own on participants.

Thomas (2014) states that the qualitative research is intended to assist researchers to get to know people and their backgrounds. In the current study, observation presented an opportunity for the researcher to understand deputy principals and their contexts better. Denzin & Lincoln (2011) summarise the features of qualitative research when they posit that qualitative researchers investigate people in their environments, striving to understand and explain events in the context of these people.

The qualitative approach was suitable for this study because I wanted to investigate real experiences of deputy principals in situ. The approach allowed me to understand what deputy principals really do and not rely on second hand accounts (Cohen, *et al.*, 2011). In this research, participants were afforded an opportunity to explain reality and the researcher made sense of that reality in their context. Herbert Mead's symbolic interactionism theory informed this study. Symbolic interactionism examines how individuals interact in small groups to define their contexts (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013). Overall, qualitative approach is suitable for investigations that aim at gaining in-depth insights into how participants develop meaning and how they explain their experiences, a characteristic which may be difficult to achieve in quantitative approaches (Barbour, 2013).

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

Harwell (2011) postulates two views of research design. The first view refers to research design as the total research journey from the conception of a

problem through to conclusions and recommendations. The second view relates to research methodology, specifically, data gathering and data analysis.

This study adopted the view that research design refers to research methodology. The view is supported by Khumah (2012), who states that a research design shows and describes how data are collected. A research design can be conceived as a blueprint or a detailed plan for how a study is to be conducted, from selecting a sample of interest to the study to collecting and analysing data.

Denzin & Lincoln (2011) argue that the research design shows all the phases of a study from the sample to data collection, data analysis and conclusions. In other words, research design shows the direction of the study. Kerlinger (1986) in Khumah (2012) defines research design as the complete scheme or programme of research, which includes an outline of what the investigator will do from writing hypotheses to the final analysis of data.

Neuman (2014) emphasises the collection of data when he defines research design as the conceptual structure with which a study is conducted. A research design can, therefore, be viewed as a road map towards an enquiry, with the intent of answering specific research questions. Research questions give impetus to the choice of a research design. That is, what a house plan is to a builder, a design is to a researcher.

Cooper and Schninder (2001) cited in Neuman (2014), posit that despite different views on research, there are common features across definitions.

These include the idea that the research design should address research questions. A research question should guide the nature and type of data collected. It also guides the sampling procedure. The critical feature of the research design is that it should be able to define the road map that seeks to answer the research questions adequately.

This study was guided by the research plan, which included sampling procedures, data collection, data analysis, conclusions and recommendations. The study employed purposive sampling. The qualitative approach guided the data collection process to answer the research questions.

The design used for this study was the case study. That is instructional leadership is viewed as the case for improving students' achievement and deputy principals constituting the case material. A discussion of the design follows.

3.4.1. The Case Study

This study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership was conducted using a case study design. The case study design helped the researcher in laying and carrying out the research in a manner that ensured valid findings (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2015). The thrust of a case study is to understand people in their social setting by interpreting their actions and relationships. Deputy principals were studied while performing their routine role in the schools they deputised and their actions were interpreted.

Merriam (2002) indicates that there are several definitions of case study. Yin (2014) defines a case study as a deep analysis of a single entity, which could be a person or institution. Stake (2010) views a case study as an investigation of participants where relationships may appear to be unclear. Simons (2009) argues that a case study is a deep and thorough investigation from many perspectives of the intricacy and distinctiveness of a phenomenon in actual situations. It can also be viewed as a comprehensive description and analysis of a bounded object under study. A case study pays attention to a particular phenomenon and that the product of that exploration should be descriptive. It is most suitable when questions of how and when are asked. I adopted a case study design to get in-depth insights into the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Data on the deputy principals' instructional role and experiences were obtained in Gutu District only. The case study design gave me an opportunity to explore deputy principals' instructional leadership practices as a bounded system for a specific duration using two data collection tools within its context (Yin, 2014; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

A case study research design was deemed suitable for the study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership because it was current phenomenon (Hamel, 1993). Instructional leadership role of deputy principals is an under researched field of inquiry (Glanz, 1994), hence its utility remains a contemporary phenomenon. In actual fact, there is paucity of knowledge on the role and experience of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The case study research enabled me to study deputy principals' role with instructional leadership in situ (Gerring, 2004).

My choice of the case study was also informed by its ability to use multiple sources of data found in the context. My aim was to use interviews and observations to gather empirical evidence from the data sets. The gathered evidence was collated to obtain optimum answers to the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. This helped me develop a deeper understanding of how deputy principals perform their role and what gaps need to be studied rigorously in future.

The nature of the research question allowed the case study design to be the most suitable because it provided a proper way to collect and report findings giving an opportunity to better appreciate a problem in a broader context. Data on the role and experiences of deputy principals were systematically collected resulting in better understanding of the context in which deputy principals operate.

My desire to obtain beliefs and experiences about the instructional leadership role of deputy principals from different sources motivated me to consider the case study research. My goal was to gain insights into the experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership and be able to describe them. Verbatim expressions that sought to answer research questions, it was hoped, would best be captured through a case study research. As indicated in Chapter 1, this study is anchored in symbolic interactionism, which contends that human beings develop meanings through communication. As Chapter 1 indicated, there is paucity of literature on the instructional leadership role and experiences of deputy principals, hence, it became expedient through the case study, to investigate deputy principals. As an under researched field of inquiry, it was intended that the

case study research would bring new knowledge and stimulate other researchers (Flyvberg, 2006).

Despite their promise to explore phenomena within their real life situations (Simons, 2009), case study researches have inherent limitations. Their reliance on single cases, their generalisability challenges and difficulty in replication has attracted wide spread criticism as too selective, subjective and amenable to halo effect (Simons, 2009). As a way of mitigating criticism against the use of case study in this research, I used two data collection instruments, interviews and observations (Stake, 2010). Additionally, the purpose of the research was not to generalise the findings of the study to all deputy principals in Masvingo, but to develop an in-depth understanding of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership.

3.4.2. Research Population

Decisions about the population are crucial in any research. Kawulich, (2012) defines a research population as people from which a sample can be chosen. A researcher usually intends to obtain information from this target group on a phenomenon he/she wants to research (Tuckman, 2011). The study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership was meant to be narrative, hence a qualitative research approach was deemed suitable. Qualitative research approach generates large volumes of data, which, if many participants were sampled, would result in the researcher being deluged.

3.5. SAMPLING PROCEDURES

A sample of three deputy principals in this research may sound small, however, the researcher went back and forth a couple of times to gain deeper

understanding of issues and probing on unclear situations (Ritchie & Lewis, 2013). The study employed purposive sampling to choose research subjects. Cohen, *et al.* (2014) argue that purposive sampling is suitable for qualitative research. Wagner, *et al.* (2012) state that in purposive sampling, the researcher handpicks certain groups or individuals to include in the sample based on their relevance to the problem under study. They further indicate that the rationale for purposive sampling lies in selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study. Participants for this study were purposively sampled to draw on those who were likely to provide information necessary to address the research questions.

3.5.1. Sample Selection

Etikan, Musa & Alkassin (2016) define a sample as the group or cases (individuals) selected from all the possible respondents in a population in which the study is being conducted. These are participants or informants selected from a research population who are representatives of that population. Bell (2010) views a population sample as a fraction of the total population. A sample reduces travelling costs that would be incurred when researching the entire target population. The sample of this study is three deputy principals deployed in Gutu District of Masvingo Province. Deputy principals, who were substantive and with at least three years' experience as deputies, were chosen because I wanted participants who would provide extensive and relevant information. The deputy principals worked at schools that fall under different responsible authorities. One was a government school, the other, a church-run school, while the other was a rural district-run school. A responsible authority has influence on enactment of instructional leadership, consequently, it was an important factor in sampling.

The quality of any research effort, to a considerable extent, depends on the sampling strategy used (Cohen *et al.*, 2014). A good sample should be representative of the population. This argument is consistent with qualitative research, which emphasises that the sample should be characteristic of the target population (Best & Khan, 2006).

Stake (2010) suggests that qualitative research relies on collection of thick and rich data and so any sample size that is capable of meeting the criterion is recommended. For me, thick data could be elicited from deputy principals who were substantive and with at least three years' experience. These could be more informed about their role with instructional leadership and with sufficient experience to share. The researcher was contending on getting thick and rich data from three (3) deputy principals. The other factor I considered in coming up with a small sample was that I wanted to get original thick data. Identification of the research population facilitates the choice of the sample. Etikan, Musa & Alkassin (2016) define a population as people or objects from which samples are taken for research. Bell (2010) views a population sample as a fraction of the total population. The population of this study was thirty (30) substantive deputy principals from Gutu District high schools. Deputy principals were the focus of this study because they were both teachers and leaders (Hallinger & Heck, 2012) and for that, had a hands-on approach and not completely detached from the classroom experience.

3.6. RESEARCH SITE

The study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership was conducted in Zimbabwe, a country with ten provinces that includes Masvingo. Budgetary constraints led me to choose Masvingo Province. Masvingo Province has seven districts, Gutu being one of them. Through National Association of Secondary Heads (NASH) meetings, I had collected that Gutu District had more substantive deputy principals than any other district. These NASH meetings also highlighted that Gutu District always came first in national examinations, making it a better choice for the study. Moreover, the choice of Gutu District as a research site was consistent with literature which argues that only relevant sites that generate experiences should be integrated in qualitative research (Ritchie & Lewis, 2013; Creswell, 2014). Consequently, Gutu District was chosen as the research site for the study.

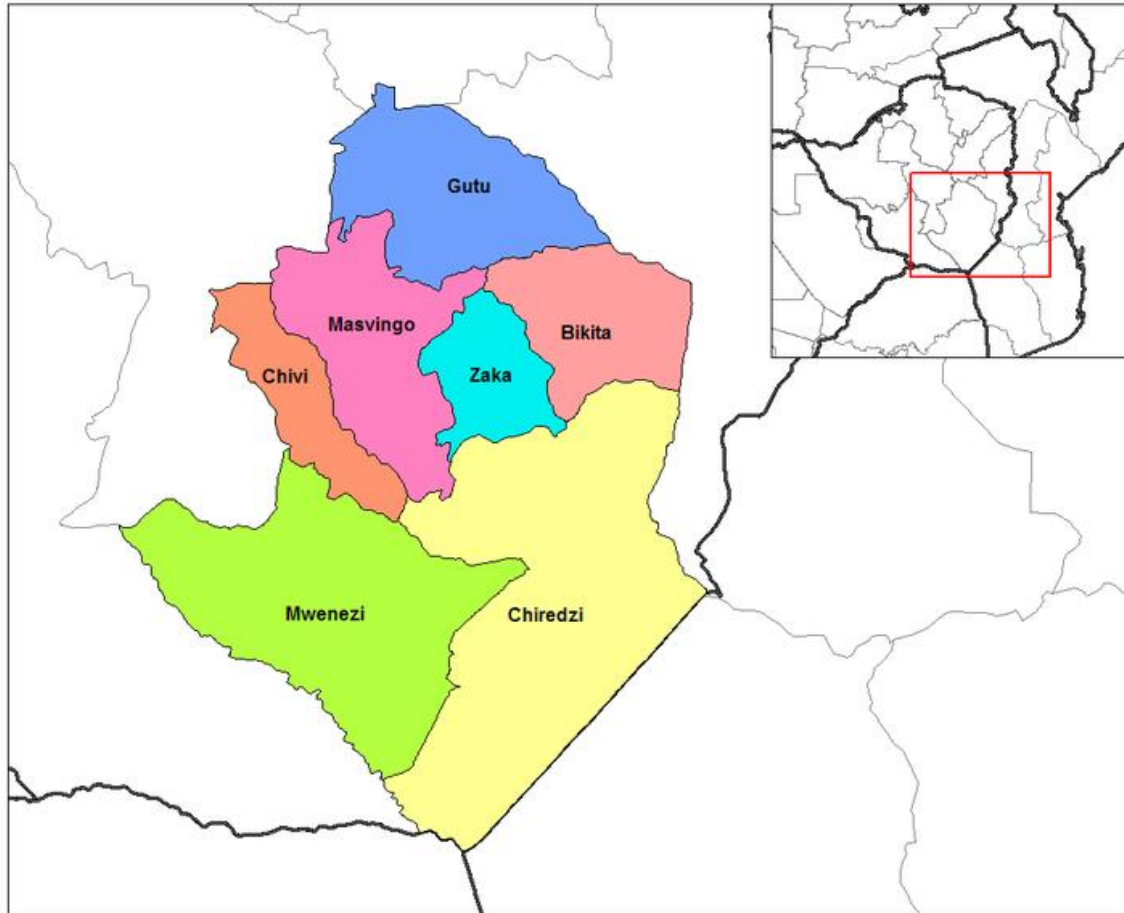


Figure 3.1: Map showing the seven districts of Masvingo Province

According to the Masvingo NASH Provincial Chairperson, through an informal conversation on 7 February, 2017, Gutu District has the highest number of substantive deputy principals and these invariably, were more experienced than the other deputy principals.

3.7. RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

This study used interviews and observation to collect data from the respondents in order to answer the research questions. To test these

instruments, a pilot study was done. The following is a discussion of the pilot study.

3.8. DATA COLLECTION

Authentic and organised data collection are key in research (Kumah, 2012). Data gathering enables the researcher to collect information required to address research objectives. After I made a decision on the research design, I now focused on data collection instruments. Frequently used data gathering tools in qualitative research include interviews, observations, focus group discussions and document analysis (Locke, Silverman & Spirduso, 2010). Austin & Sutton (2014) caution that when used in a study, all tools are equally significant. No tool could be given more weight. Arthur, Waring Coe and Hedges (2012) argue that whatever data collection tool, the process leads to vast amounts of data generation. This study used semi-structured interviews and observations as its data collection tools. The two instruments assisted in gathering mixed data sources that was required for triangulation. Cohen *et al.* (2014) suggest that the researcher can also act as a critical data collection tool. I relied on my experience as deputy principal of more than fifteen (15) years at both primary and high schools to rationalise on what could be accurate and systematic data concerning the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Relying on my experience as deputy principal at both primary and secondary schools, I could pick salient ideas during interviews and observations to make logical conclusions.

The observation protocol and interview schedule were pilot-studied with one deputy principal from a district that was not part of the research site. The pilot study helped test the lucidity of the questions and time taken to carry out the

whole research interview. Three PhD colleagues in my cohort further enhanced the data validity of the data collection instruments by examining them. Finally, my research supervisor assessed the suitability of my instruments.

3.8.1. Semi-structured Interviews

An interview is a verbal interchange, often face-to-face (although the telephone may be used) in which an interviewer tries to elicit information, beliefs or opinions from the person. Doody & Noonan (2013) view an interview as a data gathering experience in which the interviewer asks a respondent some questions. In other words, an interview is an interface between a researcher as an interviewer and a respondent as an interviewee. Englander (2012) posits that the purpose of interviewing is to find out what is on someone's mind and to review respondents' views and experiences about a phenomenon under review. As alluded to in the section above, the semi-structured interview protocol was pilot tested with a deputy principal from a district which was not part of the research site. It was further validated by three PhD colleagues and my supervisor. The only adjustment made after validation was time taken to carry out the interview. The interview with each participant lasted one hour instead of 30 minutes as initially suggested.

After pilot study and validation, semi-structured interviews were conducted. The duration of the interviews lasted for six months. The researcher used an interview schedule to elicit information from respondents (Ritchie & Lewis 2013). In the pre-set questions, deputy principals were asked instructional leadership practices they engaged in. Pre-set questions had room for probing to seek more information or seek clarifications. Interview questions

covered all the three research questions (questions 1-3). All interviewees were asked similar questions to ensure responses from the same questions in order to facilitate theming and coding. Semi-structured interviews were preferred for the following reasons: To begin with, semi-structured interviews allowed deputy principals freedom to express their views and understanding of their role and experiences with instructional leadership, thus, they allowed an opportunity to understand the world from their perspective (Barbour, 2013; Creswell, 2012). Secondly, semi-structured interviews gave me room to probe issues that required clarifications (Merriam, 2002). The researcher probed further instructional practices and other areas which appeared unclear to him. Thirdly, semi-structured interviews encouraged a two-way communication (Nieuwenhuis, 2012). Interviewees had an opportunity to ask the researcher where they felt it unclear to them. This made the interview reliable, and evolve to reality. In addition, semi-structured interviews offered a degree of flexibility for the interviewer. The researcher could easily deviate and skirt around sensitive issues. Lastly, as semi-structured interviews are pre-set, this allowed the interviewer to be prepared and appeared competent during the interview since pre-set questions guided focus. Offering controlled answering order gave the interviewer an opportunity to make meaning of non-verbal communication like facial expressions and other body language.

All three semi-structured interviews were conducted at schools where deputy principals worked. Participants were contacted by cellular phone to make prior arrangements that would avoid disrupting the normal running of institutions. Deputy principals were substantive and with at least three years' experience as deputy hence they were deemed information rich (Creswell, 2014). The pre-set semi-structured interview questions were drawn from the

three (3) research questions. Furthermore, the semi-structured interviews were in tandem with Herbert Mead's symbolic interactionism theory, which holds that human beings develop meanings through communication. I constructed meanings deputy principals had on their instructional leadership role and experiences. Extensive data were generated and ambiguous issues were further probed to enhance accuracy of data.

Semi-structured interviews have limitations as qualitative data gathering instrument. As a deputy principal with knowledge of some instructional leadership practices, it was possible for me to give clues, follow up nuances and leading questions to attract responses that I deemed correct. I overcame this limitation by changing the sequence of questions on the interview schedule during interviews to ensure response consistency. Responses from interviewees on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership were compared with what was seen during interviews.

Semi-structured interviews draw a lot of uneasiness on the part of interviewees. As they try to answer the interview questions, they try to infer whether or not the response meets with the expectation of the interviewer. This naturally breeds uneasiness and anxiety to the interviewees. This could become worse with an inexperienced researcher who would be directing and leading the interview. To counteract this limitation, I started the interview by greeting the informants in a culturally acceptable way, explained the purpose of the study, explained that I was cleared to conduct the study and then I asked for their consent. I initiated the interview by asking ordinary questions like their background in an attempt to create good rapport that allows free

flow of ideas and opinions (Yin, 2014). Each interview lasted an hour (Doody & Noonan, 2013) and there were interludes of jokes to break tensions created by interviews. Interviews were audiotaped and field notes taken on body language that could be crucial during data analysis.

3.9. OBSERVATION

Observations are a qualitative data-gathering tool (Best & Khan, 2006). They are crucial to researches of narrative descriptions. Observations provide researchers with an opportunity to understand what participants would not ordinarily discuss in an interview (Silverman, 2013). The device afforded me with a chance to learn and understand what deputy principals would not ordinarily discuss in interviews with regards their role and experiences with instructional leadership. For example, during interviews, deputy principals were asked whether or not their principals supported them. Observations enabled me to make sense and seize the context with which deputy principals interacted (Bryman, 2008).

Kumah (2012) defines observation as a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place. Creswell & Plano Clark (2015), on the other hand, view observation as a way of collecting first hand data by observing individuals at their workplaces. In essence, observation involves watching a participant going about his or her activities that are of interest to the study. This was very crucial to this study as it sought to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Kumah (2012) argues that observation is most appropriate when a researcher is more interested in the behaviour than in the perception of individuals, or when subjects are so

involved in the interaction that they are unable to provide objective information about it. Observations at research sites are one of the best methods to understand human activity.

Observations were also conducted to get first-hand experience within the context of deputy principals that provided an opportunity to discover what deputy principals do and how they experience their instructional leadership role (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

In this study, three deputy principals were observed in three main activities. These activities were supervision, teaching and administration (see Appendix 8). The observation protocol made my observations simple to carry out since I had already targeted areas for observation ahead of the actual observation process. My PhD colleagues reviewed the observation protocol before final approval by my supervisor. During observation, the researcher can be a participant or a non-participant (Khan, 2014). In this study, the researcher was a non-participant observer. A non-participant observer is not immersed in the activities of the participants. Rather, the researcher watches, pays attention and writes notes on their activities. Non-participant observation gave the researcher a natural feel for the situation under investigation. Deputy principals were observed without interacting with them. This allowed the observer to experience a natural setting where deputy principals were engaged in their instructional activities.

During the observations, the researcher was a data-gathering tool, as postulated by Sani (2013), who indicates that qualitative researchers are data collection instruments. Each deputy principal was observed for five days

at their schools. A danger with observation is that respondents may behave in a manner that suits the observer (Bell, 2010). In other words, the respondents may be observer-conscious, a situation that would distort the process of observation. The researcher's primary task, as an observer, was to take detailed field notes. Primarily, the observation technique in this phase was more interested in the behaviour than in the perceptions of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Through observation, the researcher gained first-hand experiences of the activities of deputy principals.

One of the challenges of observation as a research tool is the obtrusiveness factor (Khan, 2014). To minimise the effect of this factor, I emphasised, to the participants before delving into the interview, that I was a deputy principal; thus, I was one of them.

A second limitation of observation is personal bias on the part of the researcher (Babbie, 2010). Dealing and interacting with deputy principals could invoke bias on my part as the researcher. This limitation was dealt with in two ways. Firstly, instructional leadership practices of deputy principals were promptly recorded in the field notebook as they performed them (Sanger, 1996). Secondly, I confined myself to the observation protocol in order to avoid distraction by issues that were not the primary concern of observation. Another limitation of observation is loss of control over the activities by the researcher (Babbie, 2010). In all the three observations I conducted, I had to put up with watching deputy principals engaged in non-instructional leadership activities.

3.9.1. Document Analysis

Documents are a vital source of data that can aid researchers understand better the issue under investigation in qualitative research (Creswell, 2014). As sources of data, documents include newspapers, books, minutes of meetings and internal memos. Babie (2010) adds the following to the list of documents, mission statements, vision statements, clients' charter and pictures of buildings. Specifically, in this study, supervision reports, scheme-cum-plans, pictures of libraries, school reports, continuous assessment forms, minutes of the school development committees, internal memos and vision statements constitute the documents (see document analysis protocol Appendix 9). These documents helped unravel the instructional leadership practices and the nature of interactions within the school.

Although document analysis is time consuming, it was expedient for me to do it because it gave me insights in the instructional leadership practices of deputy principals. It also gave me an opportunity to discover the policy position with regards to the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Another strength of document analysis is that it allows for good flow of the interview process. The flow of the interview process was, for instance, uninterrupted because there would be no need to ask for meanings of some words and spellings of certain words.

After analysing documents, it became relatively easy for me to understand the instructional leadership practices of deputy principals in their schools. Documents are a source of original evidence since they express the language of the participant (Yin, 2011).

Pictures of libraries were analysed to establish their existence and also their facilitation to developing a culture of reading in the school. The school development committee agenda and minutes were analysed to locate the authority to grant incentives to teachers and the amounts. Documents augmented data collected through observations and interviews.

3.9.2. Pilot Study

A full-scale research study was preceded by a pilot study. Pilot testing is important in any research. Hazzi & Maldaon (2015) warn that while a pilot study does not guarantee success in the main research, it does, however, enhance the chances of success.

Hassan, Schattner & Mazza (2016) define a pilot study as a trial run of what is intended to be a large-scale project. A pilot study is a small-scale study that precedes a larger scale study. Simon & Goes (2013) state that miniature studies are aimed at pre-testing data gathering tools; gauging the workableness of the full-scale study; evaluating the intended data analysis techniques and familiarising the researcher with the procedures of the research.

The pilot study phase saw one deputy principal observed and interviewed. The pre-study helped unravel potential challenges and issues that would militate against a successful large-scale study. Because of the study, unclear questions that would yield ambiguous responses were rephrased in order to capture correct responses that would answer the research questions. The adequacy of the data collection instruments was put to the test.

The major aim of the pilot study was to generate protocols, interviews and observations that bring required data to answer the research questions. The researcher also wanted the pilot study to assist in deciding on the optimal data analysis procedure. Teijlingen & Hundley (2002) in Simon & Goes (2013) declare that a pilot study corrects any wrong assumptions a researcher may hold. In this study, the interviews were scheduled to last thirty minutes. However, the pilot study projected approximately an hour for each interview. It was also discovered, during the pilot study, that deputy principals were always too busy with their routine duties. Because of this hindsight, during the pilot study, prior appointments were agreed upon as a matter of principle. The pilot study is a significant stage that leads to a quality study.

Sensitive questions were avoided altogether as these would attract agitation. Permission to carry out a pilot study was sought from the Provincial Education Director (see Appendix 3). Consent forms were distributed to respondents. One deputy principal was interviewed in the pilot study. The participant was selected because he had indicated that he engaged in instructional leadership. He was videotaped and transcriptions coded into themes and categories. Because of the pilot study, some questions were discarded and this strengthened the interview protocol. For example, there was the question; what do you do when the principal allocates you a duty that is not part of your job description? The participant was not at ease with the question. The researcher felt that such a question would not invite an honest response for fear of relations with the principal. One participant was observed carrying out his duties. Observation enabled the researcher not to

interfere with the participants in order to create a natural setting for the activities.

3.10. DATA PRESENTATION

Data collected was presented as discussed below.

3.10.1 Transcribing

All the three interviews were audiotaped with my cellular phone, Samsung Galaxy J2 (Babbie, 2010). All audio recordings were transcribed verbatim. Sutton & Austin (2015) define transcribing as changing the spoken word to a written form to help analyse data. I listened to deputy principals describe their role and experiences with instructional leadership and converted the audio recording into written word. As I listened, I did the following; punctuated the texts, put pauses, laughter and any signs of uneasiness to the text. I also anonymised the transcript to remove identification insinuations linking to names (Merriam, 2002). During the process of listening and transcribing, I got the feel of deputy principals' experiences with instructional leadership and this helped me shape the next interviews. In other words, the interview informed the other until the saturation level was reached (Silverman, 2013). My major goal in transcribing was not just to make a presentation of what the participants said but getting the deeper meaning and sense of what the deputy principals' experiences were in their view.

3.10.2. Coding

After all interviews have been transcribed and checked, the next stage is coding. Glaser & Laudel (2013) define coding as singling out topics, issues,

similarities and dissimilarities that are shown through the respondents' narratives and interpreted by the researcher. During interviews on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, deputy principals' narratives of similarities and dissimilarities were picked. This process assisted the researcher develop an understanding of the experiences of deputy principals from their perspective. Coding was done by making notes in the margin of the exercise book (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

3.10.3. Theming

After coding, the next stage is theming (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Theming refers to putting codes from a single or more transcriptions to represent the findings in a logical and systematic way (Guest, Namey & Mitchell, 2013). One narrative that cuts across deputy principals' experiences with instructional leadership was how they participated in staff development programmes. This common narrative was themed as deputy principals' experiences with staff development. The significance of going through this process lies in the fact that, at its conclusion, it would be easy to present data from interviews using citations from the individual transcripts to illustrate the source of the researchers' interpretation. Each theme became a heading in my presentation. Below each theme were examples from the transcripts and my own interpretations of what these themes meant. Conclusions I drew were supported by direct quotations from the respondents and this way, it made clear themes that emerged from the participants' interview and not my own (Larkin, Watts & Clifton, 2006).

3.11. DATA ANALYSIS

This section describes how data were gathered and analysed. Mills, Abdula & Cribbie (2010) define data analysis as applying procedures and techniques that help extract and describe information, detecting and describing patterns. On the other hand, Creswell (2012, p. 461) succinctly describes data analysis as “organising, accounting for and explaining the data in terms of participants’ definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities”. In the process of research, volumes of data are collected and unless these data are analysed, they do not have meaning. The crux of any analysis procedure is the link between the data collected and the research questions (Glaser & Laudel, 2013). In this study, data collection was done concurrently with data analysis. This approach helped me pick areas that required more clarification and further detail. This approach also kept me focused on the study of the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Since this study adopted a qualitative approach, qualitative data analysis was used.

Creswell & Clark (2015) define data qualitative analysis as a process of deriving meaning from participants’ views and perspectives of situations, patterns and themes. Khumah (2012) corroborates the above idea when he argues that qualitative methods are concerned with meaning of particular events and circumstances. Nieuwenhuis (2012) emphasises that qualitative analysis is on-going and interactive.

This research adopted a six-step qualitative analysis. The steps include the following; defining and identifying data, data collection, data reduction and coding. In the defining and identifying stage, I identified data on the role and

experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership by soliciting data that addressed the three research questions. The research questions helped define the data that I wanted.

In the second stage, I collected data using interviews, observations and documents as data gathering instruments. Interviews were recorded using Samsung Galaxy J2 cellular phone. Observations and my own reflections were kept in my field notebook.

In stage three, the vast amount of data I collected were reduced by sifting irrelevant data from the relevant data. Data which did not address research questions was deemed irrelevant. In other words, data which did not encapsulate the essence of instructional leadership of deputy principals was filtered.

The last stage was laying out and coding data. Before transcribing audiotapes verbatim and going over field notes many times, I listened to them repeatedly. Creswell & Clark (2011) emphasise the importance of the researcher in carrying transcriptions personally. Transcribed data were sent back to participants for validation (Yin, 2014). Instructional leadership practices for deputy principals were captured and correctly transcribed (Attride-Stirling, 2001). After structuring, data were coded. During coding, vast amounts of texts are given codes that are related to themes that are to be developed (Punch, 2005). In this study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, codes that could be identified include role in staff development, modelling good teaching behaviour and supervision of lessons. Data coding was significant in facilitating theming. Data that carried the same meaning were allocated a similar code. Themes

that were generated from data categorisation assisted create a story about the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership.

3.12. SAFEGUARDING CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE FINDINGS

One of the concerns of qualitative research is about the reliability of the interpretations and presentation of the respondents' narratives. Unlike in quantitative research where statistical tests can be used to check validity and reliability, qualitative research has none. Lincoln & Guba (1985) suggest that there are ways to build confidence in the veracity of the findings. They further posit that there are four criteria of trustworthiness namely; credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. Trustworthiness is a term used to describe that qualitative research is rigorous and credible (Yin, 2014). This study embraces all the four criteria in the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe.

3.12.1. Credibility

Guba & Lincoln (1985) describe credibility as confidence in the veracity of the findings. The issue about credibility is whether the findings are a true representation of the perspectives of the respondents. Trustworthiness argues that there should be uniformity between respondents' views and the researcher's presentation of those views (Shenton, 2004). Strategies like member-checking, triangulation and thick descriptions were used to lend credibility. Merlens & Hesse-Biber (2012) view triangulation as gathering data using many techniques. On the other hand, Neuman (2014) defines it as a method of looking at a phenomenon from many different perspectives. The two definitions above, concur that triangulation involves using a multiplicity of data collection sources in a study in order to gain a deeper

understanding of it. Williams (2011) state two types of triangulation. These are triangulation of sources and triangulation of perspectives. This study used triangulation of sources since it used interviews, observations and document analysis. In addition, I included four reviewers and my supervisor to analyse my data. The reason for using triangulation in research is the argument that one method cannot convincingly address a phenomenon. Data from interviews, observations and document were compared to ascertain whether they aimed at the same conclusion. This assisted to make sure that the findings were credible.

Member-checking was another technique I used to ensure credibility of findings. Harvey (2015) refers to member-checking as informant feedback or respondent validation. Harper & Cole (2012) describe member-checking as a technique used by the researchers to help improve credibility. As the name implies, in member-checking, findings of the research are returned to participants to validate correctness and resonance with their experiences (Carlson, 2010). Findings and interview transcriptions on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership were sent back to the three deputy principals to check errors of omission or commission. Member-checking aided the veracity of my interpretations of deputy principals' experiences with instructional leadership.

Detailed descriptions of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership generated during interviews, observations and document analysis aided the credibility of findings. Thick descriptions convince the readers of the true experiences of deputy principals. The three deputy principals who were interviewed were the same who were observed.

In other words, the continued engagement with participants enhanced triangulation.

3.12.2. Transferability

Transferability implies that the findings of the study can be applied or generalised in other contexts (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). Transferability is the extent to which the findings of a study are applicable beyond the precincts of the research. Denscombe (2010) questions the transferability of qualitative research on the basis that they are based on small-scale projects. This study resonates with Denscombe's intention. In this study, I interviewed, observed and analysed documents from three deputy principals. Since it was a qualitative study, the study was not meant to generalise findings beyond its scope. Essentially, the rationale of the study was to gain an in-depth understanding of the instructional leadership role and experiences of deputy principals.

Sutton & Austin (2015) argue that a level of transfer is feasible all the same. A clear and thick description of the study allows other researchers to manage transferability to other situations. Anney (2014) highlights areas that require clarity before generalisation. These are the number of research sites for the study, participants and data collection. In the study, the number of research sites is clearly stated. The respondents are clearly defined and the suitability of their inclusion in the study is not questionable. The research tools to collect data are also clearly given.

3.12.3. Dependability

Dependability refers to the repeatability of results (Moon *et al.*, 2016). A clear road map of the research process ensures dependability. Given the road map or the scheme of the research, another study should be able to repeat the research process. The headings and the subheadings of this research lend themselves to repeatability by any other would-be researcher. The headings allow readers to comprehend the research procedures undertaken. The flow of the research from the statement of the problem to recommendations would be grasped, such that other researchers, based on the research, can locate and situate their researches accordingly.

3.12.4. Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the extent to which the findings of a study can be confirmed or corroborated by other scholars (Moon, Brewer, Januchowskii, Adams & Blackman 2016). Confirmability prioritises, establishing that research data collected and interpretations of the findings are not hunches of the researcher but are rooted from the data (Guba & Lincoln, 1985). In this study, I employed the following techniques to ensure confirmability, audit trail, reflexive journal and triangulation (Bowen, 2009; Koch, 2006). I used audit trail to provide readers with cogent evidence from the conduct of research on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership to the findings that I did not find what I wanted. I provided evidence that would enable any prospective reader trace all through the decisions I made (Bowen, 2009). Another technique to ensure confirmability is reflexive journal (Koch, 2006). I kept all documents that contained all events of what happened in the field during interviews and observations including my own personal reflections.

3.13. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical practices embody the basis of good quality research (Smith, 2016). Webster`s Dictionary (2015) defines ethics as what is morally good or bad behaviour. Smith (2016) refers to research ethics as principles of good behaviour of researchers. Qualitative research is very prying because of its naturalistic tendency. When conducting research, the researcher should have respect for humankind. In the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership, I endeavoured to uphold principles of good behaviour by not causing suffering or distress to the participants (Akaranga & Makau, 2016). In this study, ethical issues formed the core of the process. Ethical issues were given due consideration as follows:

3.13.1. Clearance Letter

In order to undertake research in a targeted area, there is need to get permission from relevant authorities (Kour, 2014). Pertaining to this study, the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe, I secured ethical clearance from the University of the Free State. In my application to the University of the Free State, I committed myself to the protection of human dignity of the participants (Kour, 2014). I used the clearance letter to seek permission to conduct my research. Permission to conduct the research was granted by the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, Zimbabwe. The Provincial Education Director, Masvingo and the District Schools' Inspector, Gutu cleared me in their respective areas. The principals of the three deputy principals cleared me to conduct the research in their schools. The deputy principals consented

to participating in the research. I was transparent with them on how the study would be carried out. With profound knowledge about the research, every participant volitionally participated in the study.

3.13.2. Informed Consent

Sieber & Tolich (2013) contend that respect for human dignity is of paramount importance in any scientific research. Before conducting my study, deputy principals' rights in the study were explained. This was aimed at granting the deputy principals' independence of participation (Akaranga & Makau, 2016).

To ensure that my study was authentic, I gave participants consent forms that contained my supervisor's credentials, which included name, e-mail address and cellular phone number. The deputy principals were advised to contact the supervisor in the event of any breach of ethics. I also furnished deputy principals with my personal details in case there were issues they wanted clarification on or making follow-ups. Deputy principals were also known to me personally since they were colleagues working in the same district with me.

3.13.3. Anonymity and Confidentiality

The researcher should not tell or insinuate which responses come from which respondents (Bell, 2010). Anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed by ensuring that data collected were exclusive to the participants, supervisor and researcher (Saunders, Kitzinger & Kitzinger,

2014). Pseudonyms were applied in respect of deputy principals and schools.

3.13.4. The Right to Withdraw from the Study

Respondents were informed about the rationale of the study and the benefits accruing from it (Sieber & Tolich, 2013). It was hoped that such information would aid decision-making on participation or non-participation. They were also informed that their participation was voluntary and that there would be no retribution should they want to withdraw participation at any stage of the research process, despite having signed the consent form.

3.13.5. Honesty and Integrity

Integrity is a critical element in all research effort. Deception is a bad practice in research (Cheng-Tek-Tai, 2012). Deception dehumanises participants and may lead them to refuse to partake in any future research endeavour (Kour, 2014). I treated participants in the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe with respect and complied with ethical considerations. I was transparent throughout the research process. Formalisation of my study and conducting it in the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, which is my employer, meant that I was bound by the regulations governing all civil servants. Deception is an act of misconduct in the Public Service.

3.13.6. Harm

One of the basic issues in research is that no participant should be harmed (Stake, 2010). Harm does not confine to physical pain but also embraces humiliation, shame and disgrace (Akaranga & Makau, 2016). To avert harm,

a pilot study with deputy principals who were not part of the sample was conducted. This helped clarify issues that would scupper a full-scale study (Cohen *et al.*, 2014).

3.13.7. Dissemination of Results

Participants were informed that findings from the research would be shared with them. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education, the Provincial Director, Masvingo Province and the District Schools' Inspector were also assured that they would be given the findings of the research.

3.14. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

Chapter Three presented the research methodology that was employed in this qualitative case study. The study used observation, interviews and document analysis as data gathering instruments. The whole idea was to get deep insights into the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. The chapter also focused on the research approach, research design and purposive sampling. Ethical considerations, which included informed consent; anonymity and confidentiality; dissemination of results; and voluntary participation, were explained.

Chapter 4 addresses data presentation, analysis and discussion on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Graphic descriptions of how deputy principals understand their role is given. Data analysis and presentation is done to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 described the research design and methodology used in the study. A qualitative research approach, in the form of a case study, was employed towards the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe to be carried out in its natural setting (Maree, 2008). The present Chapter presents the data and findings of the study. The study was guided by sub-questions which sought to explore deputy principals' instructional leadership practices, how they experience the practice of instructional leadership in selected schools and how the practices of deputy principals could be understood and/or explained. In view of the large volumes of data generated from interviews and observations, it was prudent to organise it thematically. Three deputy principals from three high schools participated in the study. The three deputy principals were subjected to multiple interviews. Interviews were followed up with observation to enable respondents to be seen in situ (Cohen *et al.*, 2014). For ethical reasons, research participants were identified by pseudonyms (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Table 4.1: below shows the demographic data for deputy principals.

Table 4.1: Demographic data for deputy principals

Participant	Sex	Qualification	Experience	Status	Authority	Enrolment	Staff
P1	F	BA, Graduate DE	3	Day	Government	596	33
P2	M	MEd	4	Board	Church	1060	45
P3	M	MBA	3	Day	RDC	508	31

Key: BA Grad DE: Bachelor of Arts + Graduate Diploma in Education. MEd: Master of Education. MBA: Masters in Business Administration. RDC: Rural District Council

Table 4.1 above shows that deputy principals had a minimum qualification of at least a first degree, and at least three years' experience as deputy principals. This shows that deputy principals sampled had experience with instructional leadership. The table also shows the pseudonym of the participant, status (type) of the school, the student enrolment and staff complement for each school. The student enrolment and staff complement shows the volume of work for each deputy principal.

Deputy principals who were actively engaged with instructional leadership were sampled from government schools, church-run schools and rural district council schools. A qualitative sample should be diverse within the confines of the defined population (Sutton & Austin, 2015). Responsible

authorities that administered schools became pertinent after the researcher discovered that they influenced allocation of resources and the duties of deputy principals. Thus, schools are further identified by the acronym Govt (for Government School), CRI (for Church Run Institution), and RDCS (for Rural District Council School).

4.2. OVERVIEW OF THE EMERGING THEMES

Table 4.2 below provides a summary of the themes, sub-themes and categories that came out of data analysis generated for this research.

Table 4.2: Themes, sub-themes and categories

Theme	Sub-themes	Categories
Theme: 1: The deputy principals' instructional leadership roles	Sub-theme 1.1: Goal setting	Category 1. Vision statement
	Sub-theme 1.2: Supporting quality teaching and learning	Category 1. Supervision of lessons
		Category 2. Monitoring students' progress
		Category 3. Modelling good teaching behaviour
Theme: 2: Deputy principals' experiences of the practice of	Sub-theme 2.1: Creating a culture conducive to teaching and learning	Category 4. Action research
		Category 1. Incentivising teachers
		Category 2. Protecting teaching time
		Category 3. Visibility

instructional leadership		Category 4. Building a culture of reading
Theme: 3: Challenges and opportunities faced by deputy principals	Sub-theme 3.1: Role ambiguity	Category 1. Many duties
	Sub-theme 3.2: Principal's disposition	Category 1. Allocation of duties
		Category 2. Role expectation

4.3. THEME 1: DEPUTY PRINCIPALS’ INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES

Extant literature discusses the role of the principal in improving students’ achievement (Hendricks, 2014; Bush & Glover, 2014). There is very limited research concerning the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership (Marshall & Hooley, 2006) notwithstanding the fact that, hierarchically, they are second on the school’s organogram (Yu-Kwung & Walker, 2010).

Theme One captures the practices of deputy principals with respect to instructional leadership roles. The theme is further divided into subthemes namely, goal setting, supporting quality teaching and learning.

4.3.1. Sub-theme 1: Goal Setting

The first sub-theme to be discussed is that of goal setting, with its category of vision statement.

4.3.1.1. Vision statement

I began my interview by asking P1 about his contribution in the formulation of the vision statement of the school. She responded as follows:

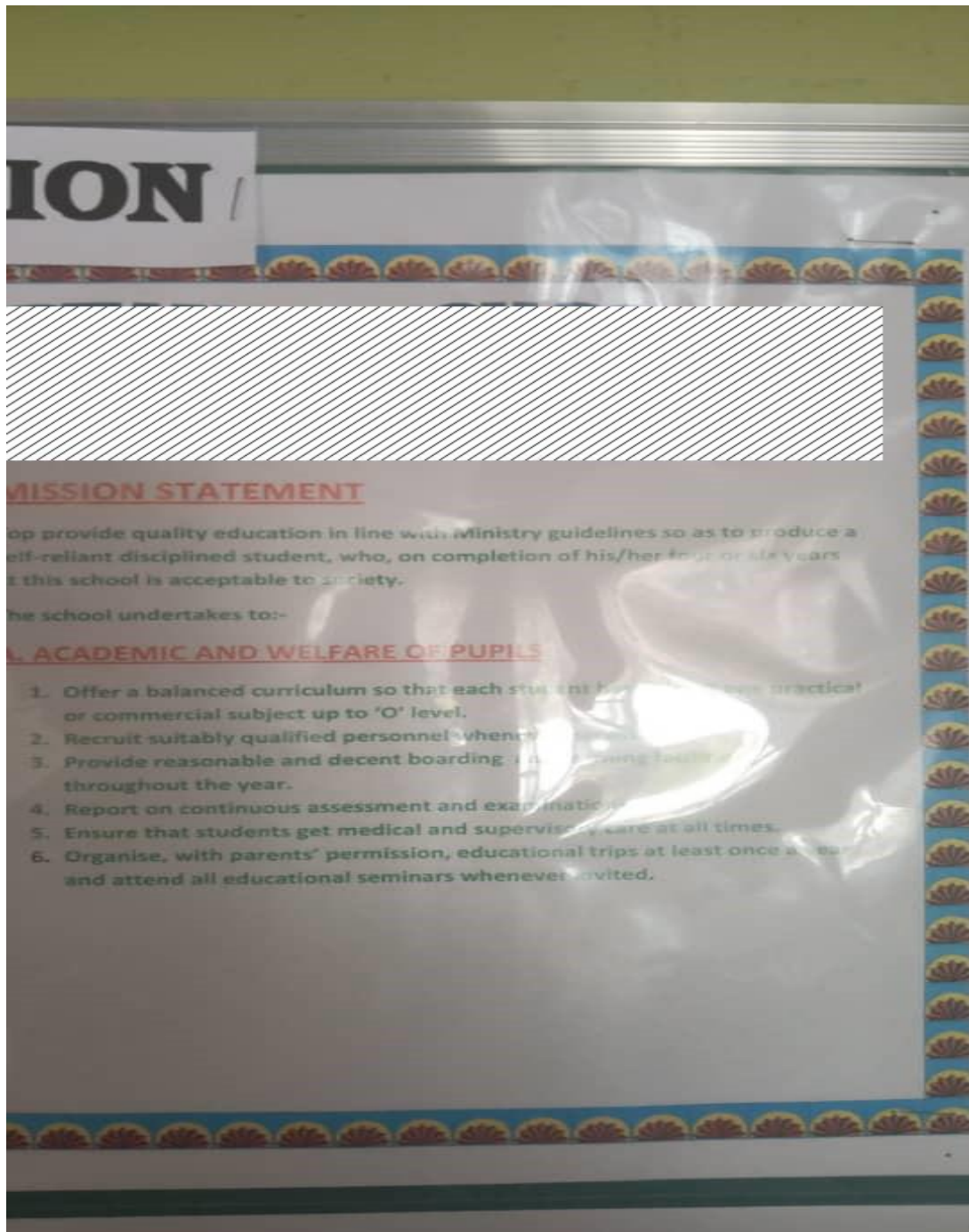
Yes, I contribute towards formulating the vision statement of the school. We do it as a team comprising the principal, senior master, senior woman and myself. We brainstorm as a committee and then come up with the vision. After discussing as a team of administrators, it's now left to me to write the vision of the school and ensure that the vision is displayed in every office. You see that vision (pointing at frame with the school vision) that is my language. Every office here including the reception, has the vision statement.

Asked about her role in marketing the school vision, P1 said:

I have ensured that the vision statement is displayed in each office including the reception so that all the visitors can easily see it. Apart from that, we have a consultation day once per year, on this day, parents come to get feedback on the progress of their children and I have always been asked to address them before they see their children's work. I take advantage to explain the vision statement.

The above quote suggests that P1, in addition to contributing to the formulation of the vision statement as a team of administrators, she is given the responsibility of framing the vision in her own language and ensuring that it is placed in each office of the school.

Picture 4.1 below shows the vision statement that P1 framed herself and hung in each office of the school.



Picture 4.1: Vision Statement of P1's School

Harris & Lowery (2004) identify a three-step vision development process, which are formulation, marketing and implementation. Evidence from interviews confirms that the participant is involved in the development and

marketing of the vision statement (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2007) by displaying it in offices and addressing parents.

Responding to the same question P2 explained his direct contribution by saying:

I am the one who drafted the vision statement. I am the one who framed it. I was given the responsibility to formulate the vision and present it to the rest of the teachers for discussion. I am the one who led that discussion. Of course, the teachers made a few observations. The staff discussed, made some changes and agreed on it, I cannot say it is my brainchild. It is our product together. Let me hasten to tell you that, as a church-run school, the church gave us its core values, like Christlikeness and uprightness. So our vision is a product of the ministry, the school and the church as the responsible authority.

Probed on how he has helped market the school vision, he had this to say:

I have helped market the vision statement by explaining it to the parents on prize-giving days. Many parents attend this day to see their children receive prizes. It is my responsibility to see to it that every office in the school has the vision statement. In addition, I have helped introduce a school magazine, The Guide Post. The editorial body comprises three teachers and two students and I am the chief editor. We publish the magazine once a year and launch on the prize-giving day.

From the quotes above, it seems that P2 contributed to the formulation of the vision statement of the school and presented it to the teachers for discussion.

He acknowledges that the core values are a product of the Ministry, the school and the church. The core values derived from the church, as the responsible authority are faith and hope, those derived from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education are transparency and diligence, and finally those values P2 assisted in formulating are honesty and teamwork. P2 has used visiting days, prize giving days and the school magazine to market the vision of the school.

Picture 4.2 below shows six core values.



Picture 4.2: Core Values of the School

The contents of the school magazine, The Guide Post, include history of the school, teachers and their qualifications, support staff, school results for the year and infrastructural developments.

Responding to a question about his contribution to the formulation of the school vision, P3 replied:

Ummmm yes, I can say I contributed to its formulation in a way. The thing is, I attended the meeting that was chaired by the Principal to formulate the vision. In fact, the Principal called for a meeting whose agenda was to discuss the vision of the school. However, we were guided by the Ministry's vision. What happened is that the Ministry sent us its vision and we formulated ours around the one we were given by the Ministry. You see the vision up there, it's a product of the Ministry and the school.

When asked how he helped to market the vision of the school, he responded as follows:

When the staff agreed on the vision statement, we sent it to the Computer Department for typing. My major role was to explain the vision to the students during assembly. I was also given the responsibility to explain the vision to the School Development Committee. As I am talking to you right now, I can safely say the members of the school committee know our vision.

What seems to emerge from the three interviews is that deputy principals do contribute towards vision formulation in their schools. The duty to explain the vision to learners and parents, as stakeholders, also seems to be allocated largely to the deputy principals. In his own words, P3 said "... *my major role was to explain the vision to the students during assembly ...*" This is in line with the view by Bush & Colemann (2000) who contend that the school vision

should have a buy-in from the stakeholders to secure their commitment. Powers (2012) underlines the need for collaboration in vision development when he stresses that collaboration in the development of the vision is very important. Evidence from conversations suggests that participants were involved in various marketing strategies through means other than social media (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2007).

4.3.1.2. Sub-theme 1.1: Discussion of findings

The findings show that interviewees, P1, P2 and P3 contributed to the development of the vision statements of their schools. Defining the mission or setting the direction is an important instructional leadership practice (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Lunenburg, 2011). Duignan (2012) argues that deputy principals can be considered instructional leaders when they engage in formulating vision and mission statements. These deputy principals seem to be highly involved in formulating vision statements, mission statements and core values at their schools. The participants narrated how they were involved in vision development. The predominant role seems to be that they chaired staff meetings that debated the vision, mission statements and core values. P1, for example, revealed that she wrote the vision statement after discussing it in staff meetings. During observations, the researcher did notice that all the offices of the participants had vision statements, mission statements and core values as shown in Pictures 4.1 and 4.2 above. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Director's Circular Minute Number 15 of 2006 identifies "assisting the principal in framing clearly defined goals of the school" as one of the duties of the deputy principal. This is in sync with Bush & Colemann (2000) who state that the vision statement should have a buy-in from stakeholders like learners and parents, the

deputies were largely responsible for selling the vision of the school to the stakeholders. DeZarn (1999) contends that schools should also embrace technology like Twitter, Facebook and websites in their marketing efforts. The interviews and observations seem to suggest that participants relied mostly on telling parents and children and through the school magazine to market the vision of the school (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 1999). In the context of the school magazine, Bell (1999) suggests that the school magazine should be run by the marketing club of the school. The club should be charged with the responsibility of spearheading all marketing efforts of the school.

4.3.2. Sub-theme 2: Supporting Quality Teaching and Learning

The second sub-theme focused on supporting quality teaching and learning by deputy principals. This dimension focuses on the instructional leader's monitoring of the core business of the school (Bass, 2010). The sub-theme is divided into four categories. These are, supervision of lessons, using performance measurement to improve teaching, modelling good teaching behaviour and action research.

4.3.2.1. Supervision of lessons

Supervision is the process of working with teachers to improve teaching and learning (Mhlanga *et al.*, 2012; Jita, 2010). I found it necessary to investigate, using interviews and observations, how deputy principals enacted their instructional supervisory role, if at all. I began my interview by asking whether P1 carries out lesson supervision for her teachers. She had this to say:

Oh, yes I do. It is one of my major tasks. I am given a group of teachers to supervise, for example, in this case, I supervise

Heads of Department and there are six of them. I use a structured supervision instrument.

Asked further how often she supervised the Heads of Department (HODs), this is what she had to say:

I supervise them twice per term, if I am not disturbed. However, sometimes I am disturbed in my programme and I fail to meet my target. I draw up my supervision schedule at the beginning of each term and follow it. Last term I supervised all the Heads of Department in the first round. I only managed three in my second round. This means I failed to supervise the other three and I have to make a plan to visit them this term.

From the above interview with P1, what seems to emerge is that the participant engages in lesson observations for teachers and that she uses a structured supervision instrument. She prepares a schedule which she follows, although sometimes she fails due to many other competing duties she has to perform.

P1 was probed on what follow-up activities she executed after lesson supervision. She replied:

I write reports on my observations during lesson supervision. I then discuss one-on-one with the supervised teacher. If my observations are similar across all Heads of Department, I call for a meeting with all of them where we discuss my concerns. If need be, I may, with the knowledge of the Head, convene a staff meeting where my observations are discussed and a common position is adopted by the school. If I see serious methodological challenges after lesson observation, I may call for a demonstration lesson. A Head of Department who would have conducted a successful lesson is called upon to give a

demonstration lesson. After the demonstration lesson, then teachers discuss the lesson.

What also emerged from the interview with P1 is that the participant embarks on a number of follow-up activities after lesson supervision to enhance instruction. After lesson supervision, the interviewee discusses her observations with the teacher concerned. She may, depending on how common among teachers the challenges are, convene meetings or facilitate demonstration lessons to staff in order to improve instruction.

Asked the same question, on the supervision lessons for teachers, P2 and P3 agreed that they supervised lessons for teachers. They only differed on whom exactly they supervised. P2's response was:

I supervise senior teachers only using a structured format. There are ten senior teachers in the school. These teachers do not require a lot of supervision such that even if I fail to supervise their lessons, we will be convinced that learning will be taking place.

On the other hand, P3 indicated that:

I supervise junior teachers mostly. These are newly appointed teachers who require a lot of supervision. We have eight such teachers in the school. They need to be assisted in teaching strategies and class control.

Participants also differed on the question relating to the frequency of supervising. P2 noted the following:

Ummmm I supervise these teachers once per term. Remember I have just said these are senior teachers who are self-starters. They do not require a lot of supervision. Sometimes we just

supervise them to meet requirements; otherwise, they can deliver even without our supervision.

Responding to the same question P3 said:

I supervise junior teachers twice per term and there are eight of them. Since they are junior teachers, they need a lot of supervision for them to be effective. I use an observation protocol for the lessons. Sometimes I do not supervise them twice per term because of the nature of my duties. I do many activities here so sometimes I fail to meet my supervision programme.

Responding to a question on the follow-up activities done after lesson supervision, P3 explained:

After lesson supervision, I discuss with the teacher using notes made during the lesson. After the discussion, I then compile a report, I ask the teacher to read the report and then allow him/her to sign it. I finally ask the teacher to pay particular attention to recommendations that I would have made. Let me remind you that I supervise senior teachers who are very experienced.

On the same question relating to follow-up activities after lesson supervision, P3 indicated that:

After lesson supervision, I discuss my findings with the teacher and write a report. My follow up activities depend on my recommendations. If a teacher fails to deliver an effective lesson, I may schedule another supervision lesson early to address the anomalies. This is common with junior teachers. If I discover that teachers have a common problem, we organise a demonstration lesson. We have once done it when we found out that teachers were using rote learning.

The narratives from P1, P2 and P3 suggest that participants engaged in supervision of lessons for teachers. It was noted that P1 supervised about

six Heads of Department, P2 about ten senior teachers and P3 about eight junior teachers. The differences in the categories of teachers supervised by participants and the differing number of times they supervised prompted me to find out whether or not there was a Policy Circular to guide these instructional leadership practices. Interviews revealed that there was actually no policy circular that directed who should be supervised by deputy principals and how many times per term. Each principal used his or her discretion for the allocation. The supervision seemed to be aimed at teacher growth and the realisation of school goals. Mhlanga *et al.* (2012) argue that teachers need to be supervised so that they can improve their effectiveness and realise both institutional and private goals. Mead (2011) also contends that supervision of teachers is important because it provides for teachers to grow professionally and promotes student achievement.

During the observation phase, I was able to observe all the participants supervising lessons for teachers. This is consistent with Permanent Secretary's Circular Minute No. 15 of 2006 that lists supervision of teachers' professional work as one of the duties of deputy principals.

In one such instance of my observation, I witnessed P1 supervising a lesson by one Head of Department. The teacher was teaching a Religious Education lesson whose topic was "*The Parable of the Sower*" Matthew 13 verses 1- 23. See inset below for the supervision report.

Appendix 18: Report by P3

1

SUBJECT: Religion in Class 4 DATE: 11/11/13
 TOPIC: St. Ignace COMMENTS: 1-23

1. PREPARATION/DOCUMENTATION (40)	COMMENTS
(a) Today's lesson plan (b) Plans: objectives: concept development: skills/content appropriateness; (c) Reflective Evaluations: reflectiveness, follow-up, maturity of suggested solutions, honesty, strengths and weaknesses (d) Themes- concept/content breakdown skills development, depth, sequencing, comments, infusion of E/E (e) Use of media/tools/apparatus, creativity (f) Progress and other records (g) Marking of pupils' work	objectives were clearly stated in behavioural terms to explain ideas a parable is. The teacher had all the documents. This is good.
2. TEACHING PROCEDURES: (80)	
(a) Introduction: innovativeness, appropriateness, duration (b) Concept/skills development, variety of methods; (c) Curriculum: knowledge of subject matter, use of appropriate subject terminology, appropriateness of methods (d) Learner-centredness; individual work/teacher/pupil/pupil interaction, etc. (e) Control and supervision, techniques used, guiding, assisting, monitoring, encouraging, etc. (f) Discussion: appropriateness, comprehension, application enlightening, etc. (g) Effective use of media/apparatus/tools, creativity; (h) Chalkboard work, voice projection (i) Effectiveness of conclusion, timing/duration for consolidation, overview, summary, further probe etc.	The introduction was relevant. It stimulated the learners. The teacher has effective class control. The chalkboard was effectively used.
3. OTHER PROFESSIONAL ATTRIBUTES (10)	
(a) Appearance/Behaviour (b) Consistency and conduct (c) Attitude/commitment to duty (d) Rapport with pupils (e) Involvement in co-curricular activities.	The teacher was smartly dressed.
SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS (To include strengths and weaknesses in all areas)	
The lesson was a success. The teacher used a parable to enhance his teaching. It is suggested that the teacher should emphasise the parable's meaning. The parable he showed was assumed that all the learners understood.	

Picture 4.3: A Supervision Report

Sub-headings for the narrative report contained five main sections. The first section contains the name of the teacher, subject taught, topic of the lesson, class taught and the date of observation.

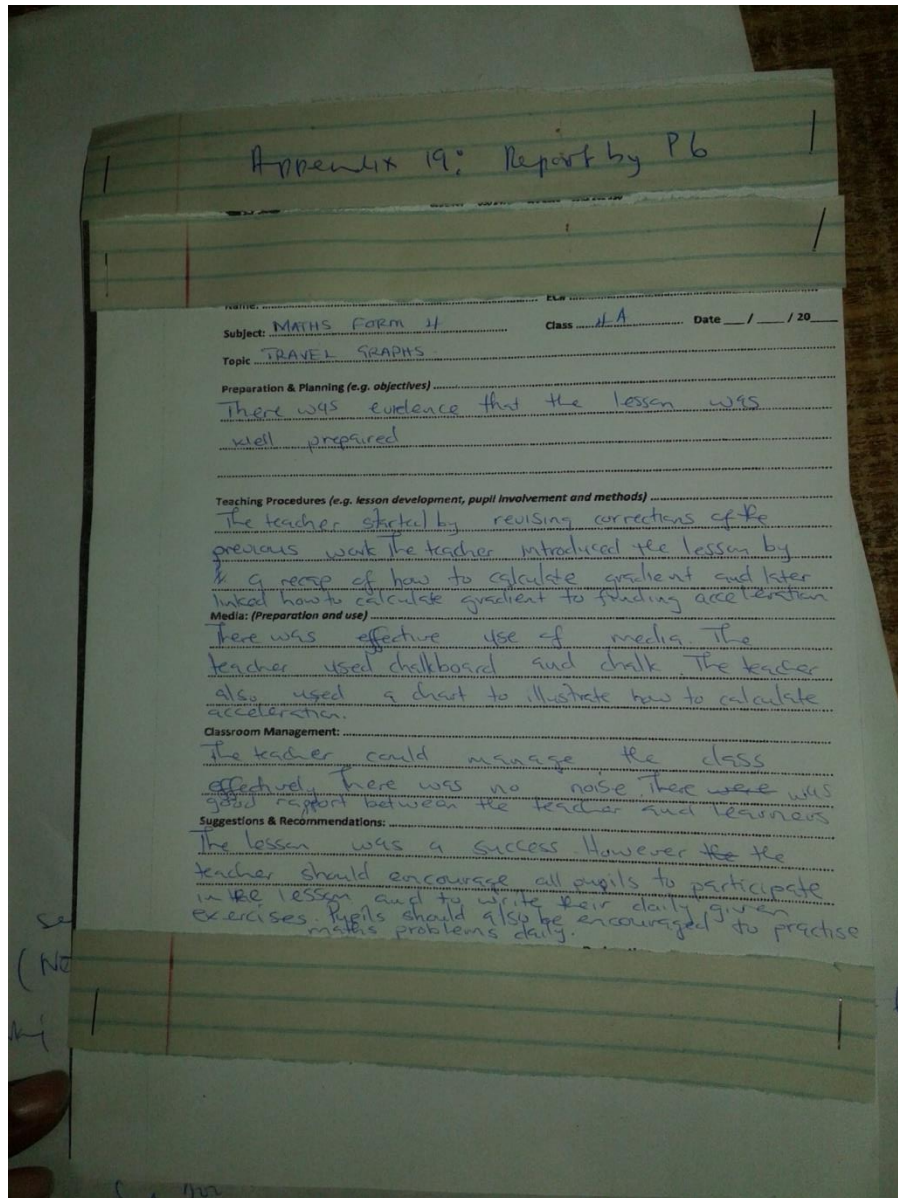
The second section requires information on the teacher's preparation and the documents. The focus was on the teacher's level of preparedness and the availability of records and instructional media. Zvobgo (1999) tells us that instructional media is very important in teaching for it enhances understanding.

The third section of the narrative report focuses on teaching procedures which include, how the teacher introduces the lesson, concept development, methods used, questioning technique and class control. This is the stage where teaching and learning take place (Chivore, 1985).

The fourth section deals with other professional attributes, such as involvement of the teacher in co-curricular activities, commitment to work, attitude to duty and the teacher's department.

The last section is for suggestions and recommendations. Here the deputy principal focused on the strengths and weaknesses of the Head of Department. The deputy principal also gave suggestions for improvement. In the supervision report by P1, (See insert above), she suggested that the lesson was a success and went further to commend the teacher for using media in the lesson. She also recommended that the teacher should have emphasised the heavenly meaning of the parable.

Similarly, P2 observed a teacher teaching Maths to a Form Four class. The topic of the lesson was "*Travel Graphs*". The narrative report contained the following sub-headings: Name of teacher, subject, topic, class, and date. The inset below shows the narrative report.



Picture 4.4: A Narrative Report

The narrative report above has five main headings as shown below:

1. Planning and preparation
2. Teaching procedures (lesson development and methods)
3. Media, preparation and use
4. Classroom management

5. Suggestions and recommendations

P2 recommended in his narrative report that the lesson was a success. However, he recommended that the teacher should encourage all learners to participate in the lesson and ensure that they write given exercises.

P3 observed a teacher teaching Geography to a Form Six class. The lesson topic was “*Green Revolution.*” The inset below shows the lesson supervision report.

P7 Appendix 21

LESSON SUPERVISION REPORT

Name of teacher:

Class: E6 45

Subject: GEOGRAPHY Topic: GREEN REVOLUTION

OBJECTIVES:
The objectives were clearly stated. Preparation and planning was done in line with objectives of the lesson. The lesson addressed all the objectives given by the teacher.

INTRODUCTION:
Effective introduction was done by the teacher with content relevant to real life situations.

LESSON PRESENTATION:
The teacher grouped the pupils so that each group would look at issues in line with the objectives. e.g. one group was dealing with the packages of the green revolution. The teacher would then comment at the end.

CONCLUSION:
At the end of lesson, the teacher gave pupils some written work.

SUGGESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS:
The media used by the teacher was very relevant. However, the class is too big such that there is need of splitting the class.

Picture 4.5: Lesson Supervision Report

Under suggestions and recommendations, P3 wrote that the media used by the teacher was very good. He suggested that the class was too big, hence should be split into two.

What emerged from all these observations is that the three participants used pro forma, which contained the same sub-headings. The deputy principals filled in appropriate sections of the observation forms. The last section of each of the pro forma was for suggestions and recommendations.

What also emerged from the observations is that the protocols used by the participants (see narrative reports for P1, P2 and P3), seem to pay more attention on the teacher than on the learners (Good & Brophy, 2000). It also appears as if the protocols were stand-alone instruments which did not integrate neither pre-observation nor post-observation (Chism, 2007). It also emerged from observations and interviews that participants observed lessons without any prior arrangements. This approach to observation is at variance with the principles of clinical supervision as popularised by Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski (1980) who suggest that there should be collaboration between the supervisor and the supervisee.

4.3.2.2. Monitoring students' progress

The third category of sub-theme 2, supporting quality teaching and learning, relates to monitoring students' progress. Rothmans (2000) infers that one of the indicators of a successful school is the extent to which the instructional leaders give assessment to learners in order to pick up on their strengths and weaknesses. Wildy (2012) contends that tests written by learners can be discussed by all the teachers with a view to align their teaching in

accordance with the gaps noted. Marks obtained by learners in daily or weekly exercises, monthly or termly tests are important to learners, teachers and instructional leaders. With this background, I explored the role of deputy principals in the assessment and evaluation of students. I also sought to find out how deputy principals addressed the issue of monitoring student progress. I started the interview by asking P1 how student progress was monitored in the school. Here is how P1 responded:

We give our students daily exercises, weekly essays and termly tests but these depend on the subject. For example, Maths is daily while English compositions are given on a weekly basis and we give termly tests. That is how we monitor our students. We record marks obtained by students in a book called Record of Marks. We maintain a profile of marks for each student. At the end of the term, we give tests in all subjects and record marks on a mark schedule. The marks from the mark schedule are transferred to each student's school report which is taken to the parent. There is a section on the report where a parent or guardian signs to confirm that they have seen the report.

On the conduct of continuous assessment, she indicated that:

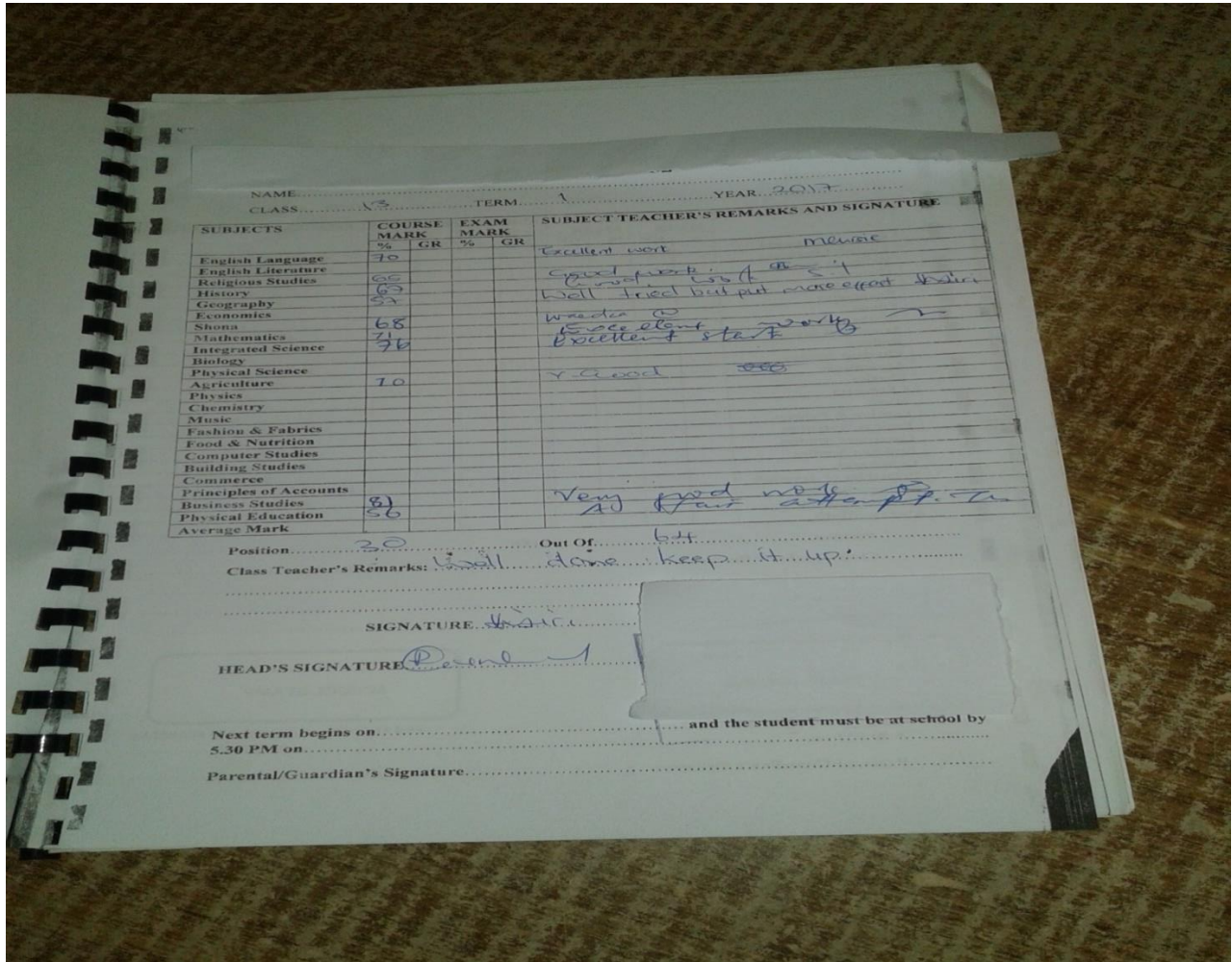
We have continuous assessment in practical subjects like Agriculture and Fashion and Fabrics. In these subjects, they do projects that are marked at the school by the class teacher and a mark is given. In the case of Form Four candidates, the mark contributes 30% of the final external examination.

Asked about her role in monitoring student progress, she noted the following:

My main role in monitoring is checking on mark schedules and reports. I sign reports for the Form Three and Form Five classes. I make sure that every student has a report.

The above revelation suggests that the school monitors student progress by giving monthly and term tests. Marks are recorded in school reports.

The photograph below shows a school report where term marks are recorded.



Picture 4.6: A School Report where Term Marks are Recorded

The school's approach seems to support the view by Cotton (2003) who posits that effective instructional leaders put in place mechanisms to monitor student progress both at classroom and school levels. According to P1, classroom teachers administer daily and weekly exercises and tests are run by the school and there is a timetable for that. It also emerged from the interviews that the participant monitors both formative and summative

assessments (Neimeyer *et al.*, 2016). Continuous assessments are done for Agriculture and Fashion and Fabrics.

Responding to the same issue on how students' progress is monitored, in the school, P2 had this say:

We give tests at two levels. Level one is done at departmental level. At this level, tests that are given are guided by the departmental policy. Some departments give fortnightly tests in addition to weekly exercises. Some departments give monthly tests. Level two are tests run by the school. These tests are given at the end of the term. Therefore, we have three tests, end of term one, end of term two and end of term three. However, forms Four and Six write external examinations at the end of term three.

On continuous assessment, P2 indicated that:

We have practical subjects like Agriculture, Fashion and Fabrics, Foods and Nutrition and Physical Education, Sport and Mass Display. These subjects use continuous assessments. Academic subjects do not use continuous assessments. When I say they do not use continuous assessments, I mean that the marks we give here at school, do not contribute towards the final examination. In the case of practical subjects, students do projects that are marked here. At Form Four, the marks are sent to ZIMSEC to contribute towards the final mark.

When I asked P2 about his role in monitoring student progress, he noted that:

I check school reports, mark schedules and record of marks. At the end of the term, we discuss the performance of the students in a staff meeting. We will be reviewing their progress. When a student transfers from the school, I give the receiving school the mark profile for the student.

The above response suggests that P2 monitors students' progress mainly through summative assessments (Chakanyuka, 2015). Continuous

assessments are restricted to practical subjects contrary to views of Ali, *et al.*, (2010) who argue that continuous assessments need to complement high stakes examinations without restrictions to practical subjects.

The picture provided below shows a ZIMSEC form used for recording continuous assessment marks for practical subjects like Physical Education, Sport and Mass Display.

ZIMBABWE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL
 PHYSICAL EDUCATION SPORTS AND MASS DISPLAYS (4002/4) PROJECT REGION _____ SHEET NO. 1 OF 3
 SCHOOL G

Centre No	Candidate No	Names	History Of Game	History Of Game In Zim	Basic Rules Of Game	Field of play's m	Basic skills	Terms appropriate for the arena	Warm up activities	Common injuries	Prevention management of injuries	Equipment and size	Types of tournaments	Top Personalities	Model	Write Up	Total	Mod	Comment
	3004		5	2	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	3	2	20	30			
	3014		5	2	3	4	3	5	5	5	5	4	3	0	18	22	90		GOOD
	3018		5	2	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	2	0	17	27	91		GOOD
	3025		5	2	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	2	0	19	24	89		GOOD
	3031		5	2	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	3	0	15	24	81		GOOD
	3033		5	2	5	5	3	4	5	5	5	4	3	0	20	29	97		GOOD
	3045		5	2	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	3	0	17	27	89		GOOD
	3052		4	2	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	3	3	0	15	22	82		GOOD
	3053		5	2	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	0	17	23	82		GOOD
	3054		5	2	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	0	19	18	83		GOOD
	3057		5	2	4	5	3	5	5	5	5	4	3	0	18	20	84		GOOD
	3060		4	2	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	0	18	20	82		GOOD
															20	22	86		GOOD

SUBJECT TEACHER _____ MODERATORS NAME _____ SIGNATURE _____

Picture 4.7: Sample of a ZIMSEC Form for Recording Continuous Assessment Marks

Expressing similar sentiments on how student progress is monitored in the school, P3 stated that:

Our school policy is that we give tests fortnightly, monthly and termly. At the end of every term, we give tests to all classes. Marks are recorded in the record of marks, school report and mark schedule. Anybody who has interest in the marks can access the marks. During lessons, I monitor progress when I go for lesson observations. I check on participation of the students.

When I probed on how continuous assessments were conducted, P3 responded as follows:

Ummmmm, continuous assessment (shaking his head) is not done to all subjects. It is done to practical subjects only. We have only two practical subjects in the school. These are, Agriculture and Fashion and Fabrics. The Ministry policy has guidelines for practical subjects only.

Asked for his views on his role in monitoring students' progress, P3 submitted that:

I support monitoring students' progress by ensuring that teachers have record of marks and mark schedules while students have school reports. I check all the end of term tests to ensure compliance with the school policy.

The responses from the deputies confirm that they monitored student progress through formative and summative assessments (Fafunwa, 2010). The monitoring is done through weekly tests, end of term tests and end of year tests (Chakanyuka, 2015). It emerged from interviews that continuous assessment has not been embraced fully in all subjects of the curriculum. Muskin, (2017) argues for the adoption of continuous assessment in all subjects of the curriculum when they contend that it is a first-class appraisal model whose measurement results reflect an individual's knowledge, competencies and values as defined by the national syllabus. For Kapambwe (2010), continuous assessments foster learners' grasp of actual

world tasks where learners apply knowledge, competencies and values assimilated during teaching and learning.

4.3.2.3. Modelling good teaching behaviour

The fourth category of sub-theme 1.2, supporting good teaching and learning is modelling good teaching behaviour. Bryson & Hand (2007) define modelling as a teaching method in which deputy principals demonstrate a new way of acquiring knowledge through observation. Holland & Kobasigawa (1980) argue that new knowledge and competencies can be acquired through observing others. Deputy principalship is a senior and promotional post in a school and the incumbent acts in the position of the principal in his absence (Permanent Secretary's Minute No. 15 of 2006). I found it necessary to explore the teaching values they possessed that could be emulated by juniors in the quest to improve teaching and learning.

P1 had this to say about modelling good practice:

I am always exemplary. The fact that I was promoted to deputy principal is a sign that there is something in me teachers can learn. I am very fair when I observe lessons for teachers. I do not reprimand them. I encourage them to work hard. I am a man of his word. Once I promise them anything, I will keep my word. When I promise to look into the issue brought by a teacher, I do act. My office is a public office. I maintain an open door policy. Besides, I keep a lot of confidential information about teachers. I do not disclose anything private about teachers.

Probed further about how she has modelled teaching practices that benefited teachers, P1 noted the following:

Oh yes, I have a teaching load. I have twenty periods. I teach History (Forms Four and Six). I have also conducted a demonstration lesson for all the teachers. It was a lesson on the causes of the First World War to the Form Six class. It had a lot

of talking points. I used group work, involved all the students and at the end of the lesson, students were given written work. Students were put into six groups. Group one looked at how Germany contributed to the outbreak of the war, Group two looked at the role played by Austria-Hungary, Group three looked at the role of Serbia, Group four focussed on Russia, Group five, France and Group six examined how Britain contributed to the outbreak of the first World War. I can assure you teachers benefited quite a lot. After the lesson, teachers discussed the lesson pointing out the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson. The lesson was used as a reference to guide teachers in their daily teaching. As for the records, I have a scheme-cum-plan, tests record, record of marks and lesson notes. I maintain these records for my teaching.

The sentiments above seem to suggest that the participant has particular values she feels can be emulated by teachers to improve teaching and learning. The participant modelled dispositions she felt were important for teachers (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). They include fairness, honesty and responsibility, which she mentioned. In addition, the participant suggested that she has a teaching load and maintains teaching records to facilitate her teaching. By conducting demonstration lessons, P1 implemented what is usually referred to as task and performance type of modelling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014).

Asked a similar question about the values he possessed, P2 remarked that:

I think I have all the values that if teachers copy from me, they can be very effective and be promoted early (laughing). I am very punctual for lessons. Lessons start at 0730h but I am always here at 0700h to ensure that everything is in place before lessons start. I am an early bird. Apart from being punctual, I am very fair. I am the Chairperson of the Procurement Committee and we deal with budgets. I try as much as possible to be fair in budgeting for departments. I do not favour any department including my own. The last thing I will talk about is welfare of teachers. I am very

concerned about the welfare of teachers such that we have a bereavement committee that I chair. The committee sits to assist any teacher who loses a relative. We do these things to motivate our staff.

Asked about specific teaching practices he models for the benefit of teachers, P2 had this to say:

I have twenty-two periods. I teach Maths (Forms Four, Five and Six). My teaching load is similar to Heads of Departments. I can say I have a full load and that is a lot of work as you can see. Besides, I am a ZIMSEC assistant examiner. I mark 'O' Level Maths. During my lesson observation routines, I discovered a teacher who delivered a very successful lesson that I felt our teachers would benefit. I asked the teacher to plan a demonstration lesson. The lesson was on fencing and the subject was Agriculture. The teacher was teaching a Form Three class.

The evidence from the interview with P2 suggests that he holds values commensurate with disposition modelling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). The good teaching habits, if copied by teachers, could most likely lead to improved teaching and learning. Values, such as punctuality, empathy and responsibility create a climate conducive to teaching and learning. Evidence from interviews indicate that the participant used the teacher-centred type of modelling good teaching behaviour (Holland, & Kubasigawa, 1980). During his observation, the deputy principal discovered a teacher who delivered a successful lesson and asked the teacher to plan a demonstration lesson.

Below are the reflections of P3 when asked what good teaching values he prioritises. He indicated the following:

I teach Business Studies, twenty-two periods per week, to the Form Four, Five and Six classes. That is a full load. Heads of Department have a similar load. I have produced very good

results over the years. Last year (2015) I had 100% pass rate at 'O' level and fifteen students' with grade 'A' for that. In 2016, 'A' level results were good as well. I had a 100% pass rate with five students' recording 'A's. I am the best Business Studies teacher in the district and for that, I was given a certificate. I conduct my lessons professionally. I thoroughly prepare for my lessons, I scheme and prepare teaching notes, etc. As for my department, I always neatly turn out for lessons.

When asked to share teaching practices that he modelled that could potentially benefit teachers, P3 remarked:

I can give you two examples. I have conducted a Business Studies demonstration lesson on financial motivators. All the teachers attended and after the demonstration lesson, we discussed the lesson. The teachers appreciated my effort and recommended that the lesson was a success. The second example is when I asked the Physical Education teacher to conduct a demonstration lesson. After the lesson, teachers discussed the strengths and areas of improving the lesson.

What seems to emerge from the excerpts and observation is that P3 demonstrated disposition modelling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014) and child-centred modelling (Holland & Kobasigawa, 1980). He produced very good results for the school. He prepared for his lessons and maintained the required teaching records. By carrying a full load and producing good results, the participant wanted to demonstrate practically the possibility of achieving good results through hard work (Bandura, 1986).

Emerging from the series of interviews is that participants made an effort to model good teaching behaviour (Lunenburg, Korthagen & Surennen, 2007). They demonstrated disposition, task, and performance modelling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). The types of modelling demonstrated by participants have a general weakness in that they do not seem to offer a lot of collaboration

opportunity between the deputy principal and the teacher as would scaffolding for example (Zakariya & Griffin, 2016). Modelling good teaching behaviour works even better when it incorporates scaffolding (Bryson & Hand, 2007).

4.3.2.4. Action research

Category four of subtheme 1.2, relates to supporting quality teaching and learning through action research. Action research can be used as a facility to enhance quality instruction (Sagor, 2004) if undertaken in a school environment (Ferrance, 2000) often as an individual or collaborative activity among teachers looking for solutions to problems they face (Reason & Bradbury, 2006). I investigated deputy principals' understanding of action research and the role they played in promoting it in their schools, if at all. I started my interview by asking participant P1 about what she understood by action research. P1 said:

Action research is a way of solving problems we as teachers face in the course our teaching. As we conduct our lessons, we face many problems. We may not wait for the principal or the district inspector to come and solve such problems for us. We, as teachers, try and solve such problems in our own way. We use action research. One of the big challenges we face, as a school, is lack of interest in the affairs of the school by our parents. We invited parents to the school for a meeting. Very few came despite the fact that I sent letters of invitation. This has become our worry. I have engaged village heads to find the way forward but this strategy has yielded very little positive results. I am battling with this problem up to now. That is my understanding of action research.

Asked how she has conducted action research in the school, P1 had this to say:

I have told you one of our problems is lack of interest in the affairs of the school by our parents. As a member of the School Development Committee, I have initiated a study I can call action research. I asked those parents who had come for the meeting why many of them do not attend meetings. Up to now, I have not yet received a good answer because many of them still do not attend. I have also solicited the assistance of the village heads but still the response is not very encouraging.

Interviewed on her role in action research in the school, she indicated the following:

I have encouraged teachers to undertake action research at classroom level. After lesson observations, I make recommendations on those areas that need improvement for example, in one of my narrative reports to a teacher, I recommended that he should have emphasised the heavenly meaning of a parable. I will expect the teacher to look at the lesson again. If my lesson observations reveal a common mistake among departmental members, I recommend that the whole department meets to share how best to improve the area.

On the benefits of action research, P1 noted that:

Action research is very important because it helps teachers solve problems they meet in their daily teaching. Teachers can solve these problems alone or they can discuss with other teachers. Through action research, we may find out why parents may not be interested in the affairs of the school.

The quote above seems to agree with the views of Beaulieu (2013) who argues that action research can be used to investigate instructional practices and parental involvement in the affairs of the school. What seems to emerge from the interview is that there has not been favourable response by parents towards attending meetings. The method of inquiry adopted by the participant to find out reasons for the apathy seems not to follow the six-step cycle adopted by Mettetal (2012). What seems to emerge from the excerpts is that the participant supports individual and collaborative action research

(Chevaliar & Buckles, 2013). Interview reports seem to suggest that the participant may not have given detailed support to the teachers. Hewitt and Little (2005) list several strategies a deputy principal can use to support action research efforts by teachers which include, availing teachers' opportunities for action research, hiring mentors, setting high expectations for both teachers and learners, and planning departmental meetings. In this case, P1 seems to employ one method of support, that of availing teachers' opportunities for action research.

P2's response was almost similar:

Action research (closing his eyes and holding his chin with his left hand) yes! It is a process of solving challenges teachers face when they conduct lessons. The aim is to enhance teaching. Therefore, when they try to solve these challenges, that is, action research. The new curriculum wants teachers to use continuous assessment as part of final evaluation of learners. It is a new form of assessment to the Geography department.

Probed how he has conducted action research in the school, P2 noted that:

Recently, I asked three of our Geography teachers to conduct action research on teaching map work to all our Geography teachers. During my lesson supervision in the department, I discovered that many of them had challenges in teaching map work. I chose those I found to be the best to conduct action research. I chose three because I wanted it done thoroughly. Teachers benefitted from this approach. In short, that is how I would answer your question.

Probed on his role in action research in the school, he had this to say:

My role is to create an environment that allows action research to take place. Teachers know exactly what they want and how they want it done. I am very helpful when it comes to the Maths department because that is my area of specialisation. I support by setting tests for all levels in the. This is something I would not do with any other subject like Shona or Commercial. The Head

of Department for the Maths Department invites me whenever they have a meeting. They want my contributions.

According to P2, action research aims to enhance teaching. Action research is a way of solving specific problems in a way that enhances teaching and learning. This is in line with Sagor (2004)'s contention that action research is a vehicle to assist teachers unpack strategies to improve instruction. The approach is consistent with Pine (1981) who argues that action research can be adopted to address departmental challenges. Strickland (1988) suggests that collaborative action research offers better opportunities for sharing. What seems to emerge from the interview and observation is that the action research steps used by P2 are not in accordance with those postulated by Mettetal (2012). The interview seems to reveal that the participant supports teachers by setting high expectations (Llorens, 1994) and planning departmental meetings (Calhoun, 2002). Laying the foundations for action research, formulating a school vision that encompasses action research, giving support to teachers who undertake action research and appreciating the role of action research are the roles of deputy principals in action research (Calhoun, 2002). What seems to emerge from interviews is that P2 insists on only one role, giving support to teachers who undertake action research. Evidence from interviews suggests that the other components are not given attention that could have a bearing on the effectiveness of action research in the school. Hewitt & Little (2005) list other strategies a deputy principal can employ in a bid to support teachers carry out action research.

This view of action research is shared by P3 in his understanding of action research. In his own words, P3 notes the following:

My understanding of action research is that it is a method used by teachers to solve common problems they face when they

teach children. Teaching is a complex thing. You meet so many challenges that require immediate redress. That is where one can apply action research. You teach a class and at the end of a teaching unit, you give them a test, they perform poorly. What do you do? You may do action research to find out why they perform poorly. You may then meet with colleagues to discuss. It could be a teaching strategy that is not delivering in which case it would need to be changed.

Asked about his role in action research in the school, P3 answered:

I have helped all the teachers who want to carry out action research. We encourage our teachers to be creative. My role is merely to support. Otherwise, the initiative comes from the teacher who wants to improve his teaching so that he can compete with other teachers in the school and district.

The response by P3 brings in a dimension of a teaching strategy when he questions its effectiveness. He seems to link students' poor performance to an ineffective teaching strategy. This view resonates with what Sax & Fisher (2001) postulate when they argue that action research can be used to evaluate a teaching method. What can be gleaned from the interviews is that P3's primary role in action research is providing a supportive role to teachers. Deputy principal support and mutual trust are crucial elements for the success of action research (Hewitt & Little, 2005). Giving support to teachers is not the only role for the deputy principal (Hewitt & Little, 2005).

Emerging from the above responses is the fact that participants had similar perceptions of action research. They perceive action research as a process done by a teacher or collectively with the aim that the research will inform and change instructional practices. Interviews from the three participants revealed that supporting teachers is one of a few roles for the deputy principal. Hewitt & Little (2005) identify other roles like laying the foundation

for action research, acknowledging the importance of action research and incorporating action research in the school vision.

4.3.2.5. Sub-theme 1.2: Discussion of findings

Findings from this sub-theme are presented following the order of the five categories that emerged during data analysis and presentation as given above. The main findings seem to suggest that deputy principals engage in various instructional leadership practices.

The first finding shows that deputy principals engaged in supervision of lessons for teachers. They supervised lessons, especially for Heads of Department, senior teachers and junior teachers. After lesson observations, they prepared narrative evaluative reports.

These findings are consistent with the expectations of the Permanent Secretary's Minute No. 15 of 2006 which stipulates that deputy principals need to supervise teachers' professional work. An increasing body of literature also supports the view that instructional leaders, like deputy principals, need to engage in observation of lessons for teachers (Mead, 2011; Mhlanga *et al.*, 2012).

It was also established that deputy principals did write narrative reports based on observation of teachers. Samples of narrative reports for Form Four Religious Education lesson, Form Four Maths lesson, Form Six Geography lesson are shown in paragraph 4.5.2.1. The narrative reports appear to be consistent with a scientific model of supervision (Cogan, 1995). The model generally views teachers as lazy and requiring close supervision. In addition, the model looks out for teacher mistakes. This model of supervision is different from the clinical model of supervision (Goldhammer,

Anderson & Krajweski, 1980). Literature abounds on the effectiveness of clinical model of supervision in enhancing teacher development and promotion of collegiality between the supervisor and the teacher (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Cogan, 1995; Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski, 1980; Sergiovanni, 1993).

The second finding is that all the protocols paid greater attention on the teacher almost at the expense of the learners (Good & Brophy, 2000). The reports by the participants P1, P2 and P3 seem to overemphasise the role of teachers and focus less on learners. This would seem to contradict Hora, Oleson & Ferrare (2013) who suggest that the hallmark of classroom observation need to be on learner response.

The third finding is that the protocols (paragraph 4.5.2.1) were developed as stand-alone instruments that do not appear to be integrated with pre-observation interviews and/or post observation interviews (Partee, 2012). Chism (2007) argues that pre-observation interviews combine well with classroom observation to give a holistic picture of the classroom dynamics during lesson delivery.

The fourth finding is that not all the three protocols seem to capture details of the subject matter. All teaching and learning should have regard on subject matter (Neuman, 2014). Classroom observations that only focus on the external behaviours of teachers and/or learners without capturing the content being taught is likely to lead to a decontextualized description of the teaching and learning process (Cohen & Ball, 1999).

The fifth finding is that all participants inspected teaching records of the teachers. This finding is consistent with the findings of Chivore (1985) that

as instructional leaders, deputy principals engage in inspection of records for teachers.

The sixth finding is that all teachers who were observed by participants used the scheme-cum-plan record as opposed to a separate scheme book and plan book. This approach resonates well with the view of Coppola, Scricca & Conners, (2004) who advocate for a scheme-cum-plan book to combine the scheming and planning activities.

For a photograph of a scheme-cum-plan, see the inset below. As can be seen from the photograph, the topics from the scheme-cum-plan were taken from the scheme book and the plan book, hence scheme-cum-plan. The headings for the scheme-cum-plan are week ending, topic, objectives, source of material, activities, individual comments and general comments.

WEEK ENDING	TOPIC AND CONTENT	ASSUMED KNOWLEDGE	OBJECTIVES	COMPETENCIES	S.O.M	MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY	METHODS AND ACTIVITIES	EVALUATION	
								GEN.	IND.
14	-THE ROZVI STATE -Origins	-Learners have the knowledge on the factors for the rise of the Rozvi state	-Trace the origins of the Rozvi state	-Tracing -Appreciating	-Teacher's file -Dynamics of History 1	-A chart showing the locations and extents of the Rozvi empire	-question and answer -class discussion -Notes		
06	-ORGANISATION -Political Organisation of the Rozvi State	-Learners knows the items surrounding Political history	-the political hierarchy of the Rozvi state. -Name govt officials of the Rozvi state.	-Naming -Describing -Explaining	-Teacher's Resource Notes -Dynamics of History 1	-A chart showing the political structure of the Rozvi state	-Question and answer -class discussion -Teacher explanation of the concepts -Notes writing		
19	-political organisation of the Rozvi -the duties of the king and of the army	-learners have knowledge of the political org of pre-colonial states.	-to describe duties of the king To describe duties of the army	-comprehension -descriptive	-tr's file.	-chalkboard	-tr exposition -question and answer. -class discussion.		
	-Exercise	-Have knowledge of answering ZJC questions	-Answer all questions asked by the teacher.	-Answering	-Past exam qsn pprs -Tr's File	-Past exam qsn papers -Chalkboard illustration	-Individual written exercise on the given exercise guided by the teacher		

Picture 4.8: A Scheme-cum-plan

The seventh finding is that participants tended to monitor students' progress through formative and summative assessments (Fafunwa, 2010). Evidently, despite its ability to measure a learner's competencies and knowledge as defined by the syllabus, continuous assessment does not seem to have been embraced beyond practical subjects in the cohort globally (Birhanu, 2013) and continentally, continuous assessment has been adopted in all subjects with remarkable success (Chirwa & Naidoo, 2015).

The eighth finding from the data reveals that the participants seemed to model good teaching behaviour. The interviews uncovered evidence of what appeared to be practices of modelling good behaviour. Lickona (2004) identifies values of teaching that are important for modelling good teaching behaviour as empathy, reliability, honesty responsibility. Evidence from conversations with participants suggest that they prioritised some of these values, for example, P1 said, *"I am very fair when I observe lessons"* This illustrates the value of fairness. P2 stated, *"I am very concerned about the welfare of teachers"* showing empathy. By illustrating the virtues, participants were using the disposition model type (Lickona, 2004). Upholding the virtues, helps create a culture conducive to teaching and learning (Lumpkin, 2008). In addition to disposition modelling, the findings show that participants also demonstrated what could be called deputy principal-teacher centred modelling and task and performance modelling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). Even while scaffolding modelling offers better opportunities for modelling good teaching behaviour (Bryson & Hand, 2007), it does not appear to have been used in these cases.

The ninth finding seems to show that participants had similar perceptions of action research. Overall, participants understood action research as a

process of solving challenges teachers face when conducting lessons. This view resonates well with Sagor (2004) who asserts that action research is a vehicle that assists teachers to improve strategies to teaching and learning. The participants described how action research was conducted in their environments. This involves individual teachers in their classrooms or a team of teachers working together to solve challenging classroom problems. Ferrance (2000) identifies four types of action research that include single teacher action research, team action research, school based and district wide action research. Evidence from the conversations suggests that supporting teachers was a major role of the deputy principals. Hewitt & Little (2005) also mention other roles of deputy principals in action research, such as formulating school objectives that include action research, appreciating the importance of action research and laying the foundation for action research.

Participant 2 was, for example, involved in team action research in Geography. Teachers had identified challenges in the teaching of map work to students. P2 confirmed that *'teachers benefitted a lot'*. Watts (1985) emphasises the benefits of team action research when he argues that working with colleagues assists teachers and instructional leaders in professional development. P1 on the other hand, undertook action research to establish why parents seemed apathetic to school affairs. In both cases, the action research steps taken were not entirely consistent with those outlined by McNiff & Whitehead (2011). The steps include identifying the problem, collecting data, interpreting data, implementing action research, evaluating results and dealing with the results. P1 did not follow any steps at

all. After having identified the problem of apathy, she simply wrote letters inviting parents to the meeting.

On the other hand, P2 realised after lesson observations that many Geography teachers struggled with teaching map work. He then asked three teachers to conduct action research. The interviews confirmed that the dominant role played by participants was that of supporting teachers to conduct action research (Hewitt & Little, 2005). Calhoun (2002) contends that deputy principals have the role of laying the foundation for action research, formulating a school vision that embraces action research and appreciating the importance of action research (Hewitt & Little, 2005). There are several strategies a deputy principal can use to support teachers who undertake action research. These include availing opportunities for action research (Calhoun, 2002), hiring mentors (Dana & Yendol-Siva, 2005) as well as setting high expectations for both teachers and learners (Llorens, 1994) and planning departmental meetings (Calhoun, 2002). The data suggests that setting high expectations and planning departmental meetings were the more common strategies used by participants.

4.3.3. Theme 2: Deputy Principals' Experience of the Practice of Instructional Leadership

Deputy principals are often second in command on the school's organogram. They are expected to be instructional leaders at the school. Theme 2 sought to investigate through interviews and observations, how deputy principals experience the practice of instructional leadership.

4.3.3.1. Creating a conducive culture to teaching and learning

The subtheme has six categories that include incentivising teachers, incentivising learners, protecting teaching time, visibility, raising expectations and professional development.

4.3.3.1.1. Incentivising teachers

Teachers contribute significantly to students' performance (Chelty, Friedman & Rockoff, 2014; Fryer & Dobbie, 2013). Thus, Hallinger (2015) suggests that one function of instructional leaders is to incentivise teachers. Teachers' incentives have the potential to stimulate intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Stringer, Ballou, Hamilton, Le, Lockwood, McCaffey, Pepper & Stecher 2010). Given this background, I developed the interest to explore how deputy principals, as instructional leaders, provided incentives to teachers to improve teaching and learning.

The interview began by asking P1, what type of incentives she gave to teachers? Her response was that:

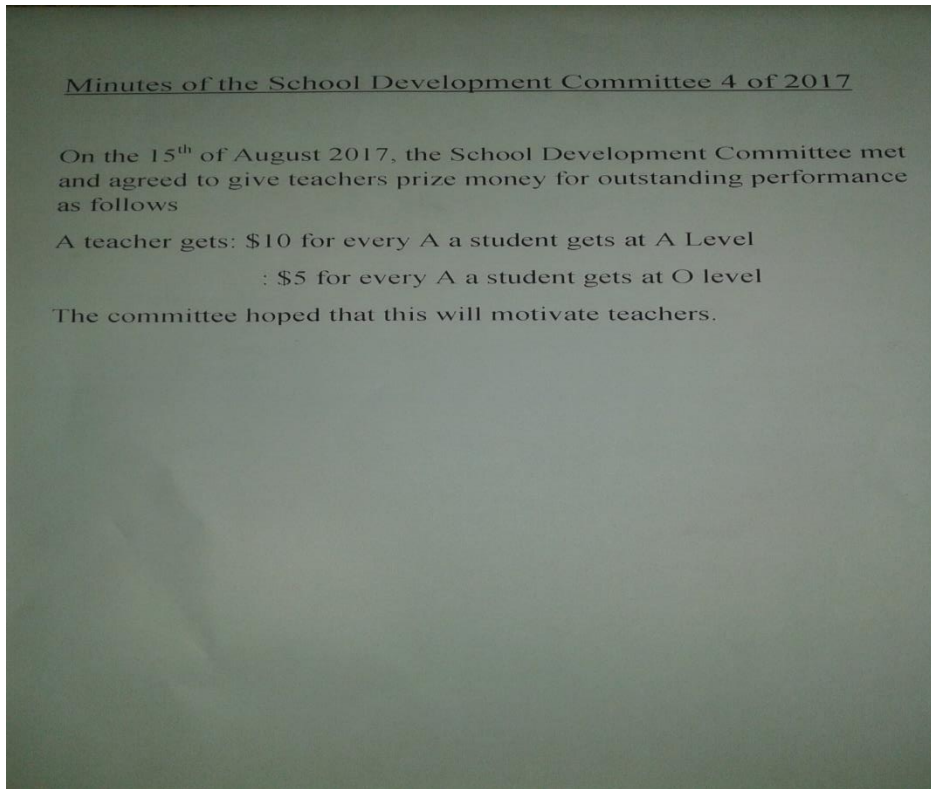
(With a frowning face) Ummmm we do quite a lot to boost the morale of our teachers. As the Chairperson of the Housing Committee, I make sure that teachers are comfortably accommodated. It is the duty of my committee to see to it that teachers are given decent accommodation. I am also the Chairperson of the Procurement Committee. The committee buys all stationery and teaching requirements of teachers. In addition, it is the culture of the school to reward teachers who produce good results. We honour these teachers at our annual Prize-giving Day in October by giving them prize money.

Asked about how the prize money was given to teachers, she indicated the following:

We focus on ZIMSEC results, that is, we deal with teachers who teach Form Four and Form Six. We reward \$10,00 for every 'A' grade a teacher produces at 'A' level and \$ 5,00 for every 'A' grade a teacher produces at 'O' Level. We focus on these classes because, for example, 'O' Level leads to 'A' Level and 'A' Level leads to tertiary institutions. We do not reward any other symbol. The Finance Committee of the school determined the amounts given to teachers. The Finance Committee is a sub-committee of the School Development Committee that is chaired by the Principal and in his absence, I chair it.

The quote above suggests that both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives were used. Evidence from interviews suggest that the monetary incentives are individual-based (Holstrom & Milgrom, 1991). It also emerged from the conversations that the School Development Committee provided the money for rewards.

The inset below shows minutes of the School Development Committee authorising payment of incentives and stipulating the amount to be paid.



Picture 4.9: Minutes of the School Development Committee

Responding to the same question on the motivation of teachers, P2 concurred with P1.

We give a variety of incentives to our teachers and I play a very important role. Some of the incentives we give are professional development, personal growth and giving our teachers monetary rewards when Form Four and Form Six results are out and this is in February every year. We give teachers who produce outstanding results. In other words, we give the teacher \$30,00 for every 'A' symbol obtained by a Form Six student and \$15,00 for every 'A' symbol obtained by a Form Four student. The prize money is given to the teacher who was teaching the class. The School Development is very helpful since it provides the money. Teachers are forced, through the money, to work very hard. If you come here in the evening, all the teachers teaching Form Four and Six classes will be here. That is what we want.

What seems to emerge from the interview is that teachers are given incentives (Dolan, Metcaffé & Navarro- Martinez, 2012). The incentives are consistent with some of the types suggested by Vergas (2005). The incentive scheme is individual-based. In all cases, P1 and P2 seem to acknowledge the role played by the School Development Committee in rewarding the teachers.

The picture 4.10 below shows a schedule of incentives used by P2.

SCHEDULE OF TEACHERS WHO GOT FINANCIAL REWARDS FOR OUTSTANDING PERFORMANCE

KEY \$30 FOR EVERY A AT "A" LEVEL
\$15 FOR EVERY A AT "O" LEVEL

SUBJECT	LEVEL	NO OF "A"	AMOUNT
MATHS	O	5	\$ 75 - 00
ENGLISH	A	6	\$ 180 - 00
HISTORY	A	9	\$ 270 - 00
GEOGRAPHY	O	13	\$195 - 00
PE	O	10	\$150 - 00
AGRICULTURE	A	5	\$ 150 - 00
SHONA	O	10	\$ 150 - 00
CHEMISTRY	A	3	\$ 150 - 00
F/F	A	2	\$90 - 00
MATHS	A	2	\$ 60 - 00
COMPUTER	O	1	\$60 - 00
B/S	A	3	\$150 - 00

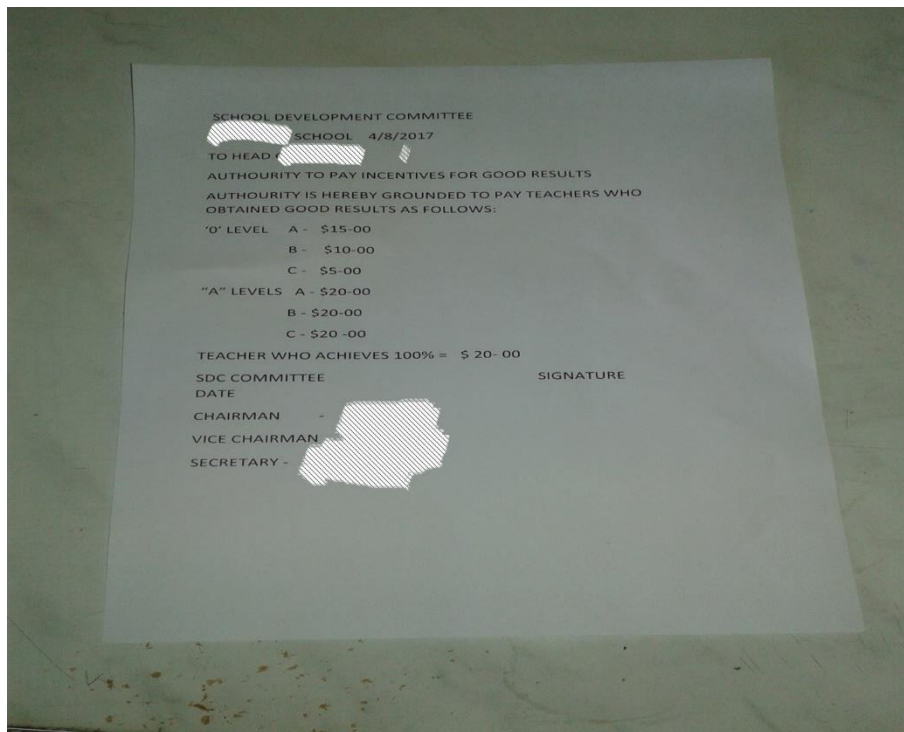
Picture 4.10: A Schedule of Incentives

When P3 was asked to explain the type of incentives given at the school, he had this to say:

As a rural day high school, we try as much as we can to give our teachers incentives. Our major incentive is monetary rewards.

We give the incentive as soon as Form Four and Form Six results are out. The School Development Committee sits down to discuss how to give the awards. As a school, we have a policy of rewarding teachers. Therefore, when the committee sits down it is only a question of reviewing the figures. This year, 'O' Level teachers were given prize money for students who got 'A', 'B' and 'C' in their subjects and they were rewarded \$15.00, \$10.00, and \$5.00 respectively. 'A' Level teachers got money for each student who got an 'A', 'B' and 'C'. For every student who got an 'A' the teacher was given \$20.00, for a 'B' \$ 15.00 and for a 'C', it was \$ 10.00. Each teacher who achieved 100% in his/her subject was \$20.00. We have been able to do it for the past five years. Teachers appreciate the effort we make for them to be rewarded the prize money.

The picture 4.11 below shows a letter written by the School Development Committee authorising payment of incentives by P3.



Picture 4.11: Letter from the School Development Committee

What emerged from the discussions and documents is that teachers often received incentives to improve results (Bond & Mumford, 2018). The incentives are individual based. Literature suggests that the incentives could include monetary rewards, accommodation, teaching materials, professional development and personal growth (Vergas, 2005). It appears from the participants that monetary rewards were common to them and that they used the individual-based incentive scheme. Prendergrast (1999) argues that another form of incentive scheme that is increasingly becoming popular is the group-based. Arguing in favour of group-based incentive, Ladley *et al.* (2015) indicate that whatever is good comes from groups. Details of the group-based incentive scheme shall be discussed in Chapter 5.

4.3.3.1.2. Protecting instructional time

Time is an important resource (Gahrman, 2002) and the effectiveness of a school can be enhanced by safeguarding teaching time (Hallinger, 2015). Teaching time is time allocated to learners for the core business of learning. For Hanushek (2015), the core business of a school is teaching and learning and protecting teaching time is an indicator of an effective school (Partin, 1987).

I began the conversation about the protection of teaching time by asking P1 what she understood by instructional time. She explained her understanding as follows:

I understand instructional time as time for teaching students. There are many activities we do here, for example, including sports and teaching. Instructional time is the time that we spend teaching the students.

I then followed-up with a question on what activities may erode instructional time in the school; to which she responded:

In the course of our teaching, we meet so many challenges. We can be called for a staff meeting during lessons. Sometimes these meetings are long such that they can take more than two hours. Assemblies also take instructional time. We have assemblies on Mondays and Fridays. Although assembly time appears on the time table, sometimes we extend into the first period of the day. After assembly, teachers meet in the staffroom for briefings. Assemblies and briefings may take long such that we get into the second period of the day. Classes take time to settle down when changing over classes particularly when they come from laboratories and practical subjects like Agriculture. It is some distance, hence teaching time for the next period is taken away.

With these possible obstacles in mind, I probed further on how she has safeguarded instructional time at the school:

I have always allocated time for assemblies but we tend to always extend beyond the times. For example, on our timetable, our assembly starts at 0700h and ends at 0720h but we have always gone beyond that. Staff briefings, according to the timetable, are supposed to start at 0720h to 0730h. Many times the two activities have gone beyond 0800h which affects the smooth flow of the timetable. I check punctuality and movement of students and teachers, especially when we change periods.

P1 understands that instructional time is time allocated for teaching. What also emerged from the interviews is that there is often teaching time lost during the course of the teaching day. This is indicated in the statement that, “Assemblies and briefings may take long such that we get into the second period of the day.” This seems to confirm the observation by France (2005) that assemblies tend to be external encroachments that consume instructional time. Although the participant claims that she has a timetable

for assemblies and briefings, the evidence suggests that it is not always followed strictly. Furthermore, what also emerged is that the mediating strategies used by the participant were not that effective in protecting instructional time. Even when the assembly period was scheduled, it was still difficult to protect.

Asked for his understanding of instructional time, P2 had this to say:

Ummm, ndingangoti (I can say) instructional time is time taken teaching students. In my case here, our periods are 0035h; the time I take teaching the students is instructional time. The actual time that I teach is my understanding of instructional time.

On what erodes instructional time in the school, he revealed the following:

Several things can take away instructional time. For instance, extended tea break and lunch break. Students can go for lunch and find out that it is not ready. It then delays everything affecting lessons. Since this is a boarding school, parents come during lessons to see their children. Although we have a school policy that parents come only on visiting days, they sometimes come during lessons. Teachers also visit their colleagues sometimes to share jokes or to share information from newspapers. Occasionally, the bursar calls students to check on their fees balances. I sometimes call all students, especially candidates to verify examination statements of entry. The hostel matrons may call students back if they did not make their beds or cleaning toilets if it was their duty. The principal can call a teacher for one reason or the other.

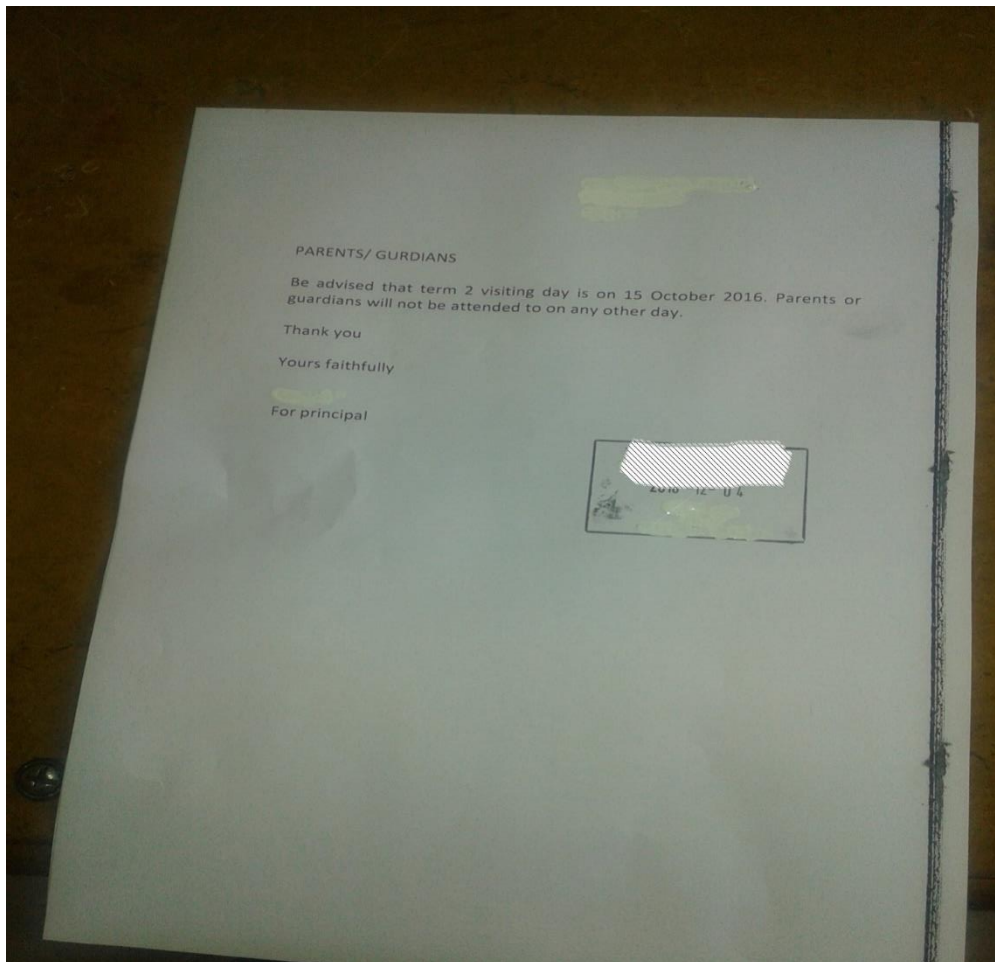
Asked to explain how he safeguarded instructional time, P2 said:

Teaching time is important. We do not want students to be disturbed during lessons. I have called on all our departments to observe time. I have always emphasised that we are a system; if one department malfunctions, it affects the operations of the other departments. I ensure timeous supply of provisions to the kitchen by supervising the staff. I have written parents a circular informing them that they should only visit the children on a

prescribed visit day. As a school, we have rules that students and teachers should not leave their classes during lessons.

The response indicates that P2 understands the importance of instructional time and acknowledges that despite supervision policies that call for non-interference of students in classes and having sent a circular to parents advising them of visiting days, loss of instructional time continues to be a challenge at the school.

In my analysis of documents at the school, I came across a letter, which P2 had written to parents in an attempt to protect teaching time.



Picture 4.12: Letter Advising Parents to a Visit Day

Biesinger, Crippen & Muis, (2008) advocate for block scheduling as a holistic strategy to protect instructional time. Literature on block scheduling confirms that in traditional scheduling, a great deal of time is often consumed by non-instructional tasks (Robbins, Gregory & Herndon, 2000). Block scheduling allows for fewer classes each day, but for longer periods.

P3 seemed to experience similar challenges on instructional time. He explained his approach to instructional time as follows:

My understanding of instructional time is that it is when the teachers and students do the core business. We have core and non-core business. When teachers and students are allocated time to do their core duty, that is, teaching and learning, that is, instructional time.

On the activities that erode instructional time, he replied that:

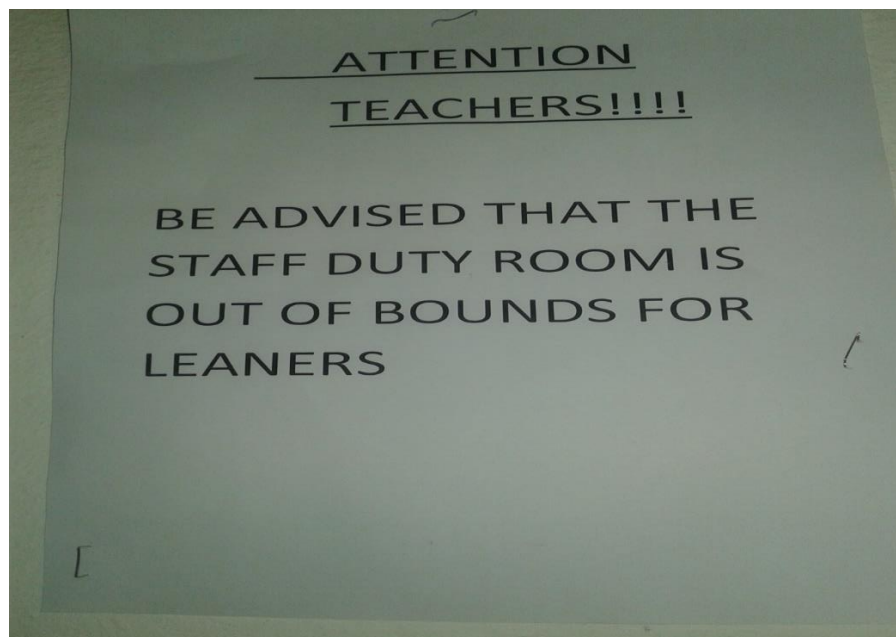
Part of instructional time is wasted when students or teachers change classes. We have two systems, one where students change classes and the other, when teachers change classes. Whichever system, time is lost. Teachers sometimes call students to the staffroom for various reasons. We have instances where some stakeholders come to the school, for example, recently, the National Blood Transfusion organisation came to get blood from the students. We had to assemble the students and appeal for blood donors. Sometimes we host cluster, district and provincial competitions. On such occasions, we do not attend lessons.

When P3 was asked on how he safeguarded instructional time, he responded by saying:

We have allocated more time for teaching and learning on our timetable. Other activities that have nothing to do with teaching are as indicated, given little time. I monitor students and teachers during changeover sessions to ensure minimum wastage of time.

As a matter of school policy, we do not allow students in the staffroom. I have put up notices on the bulletin board that students are only attended to during break and lunch times. Despite the strategies that I have told you, we seem to have failed to deal decisively with the loss of instructional time.

Once more, P3 seems to understand what is meant by instructional time, even as he confirms that instructional time is often eroded in the school. Evidence from interviews shows that the participant had tried several strategies to protect instructional time. For example, Picture 4.13 below shows a notice posted on the bulletin board to indicate that students were not allowed in the staff room during teaching time.



Picture 4.13: Notice on the Bulletin Board

Allocating more time to teaching and learning is another strategy that deputy principals may use to protect loss of instructional time. Literature recommends block scheduling as a strategy to allocate more time for instruction (Biesinger *et al.*, 2000; Zarlengo, 1998). I will return to the issue of block scheduling again in Chapter 5.

4.3.3.1.3. Visibility

Literature on visibility contends that instructional leaders can only be fully engrossed in the school system when they participate in its activities (Cotton, 2003; Hattie, 2014; Whitaker, 2012). The most important part of the school for the leader may not be the office, but rather, the classrooms and sports grounds (Blaise, Blaise & Phillips, 2012). Whitaker (2012) posits that instructional leaders should be highly visible in the affairs of the school to influence student learning. One way a deputy principal can demonstrate visibility is by conducting walkthroughs (Fisher, 2013). Walkthroughs are a way of taking deputy principals out of their offices. Against this backdrop, I asked P1 about where she spends the greater part of her time when not teaching in the classroom.

Ummmmm, apart from teaching, ndingangoti (I can say) much of my time is spent in the office and outside of office. In the office, I will be doing a lot of work. I write reports like supervision reports, mark students' work, prepare lessons, attend to parents and other stakeholders. This is the time I chair meetings. In fact, after teaching I spend part of my time in the office. I frequently move around the school maintaining order and discipline. I will be checking on those learners who do not attend lessons. If the yard is dirty, I may ask those learners who will be having free periods to clean. I also hear teachers teaching as I pass by, the moment they see me passing through, they become alert.

Asked on her understanding of walkthroughs and how she conducted them, she explained, thus:

Walkthrough is a process where the principal or the deputy principal walks about the whole school ensuring that everything is in order. There are no papers, there is no unnecessary movement by students. In fact, that there is order in the school, teachers' teaching and students learning. As I move round, students, teachers and support staff will be seeing me. Those

who will be playing begin to work. When they see me outside, they feel my presence. When I hear a lot of noise in and outside the classrooms, I come out of my office to check on what is happening. Once they see me, through the windows, there will be absolute silence by the whole school. I move around the classrooms. As they see me through the windows, even those teachers who will be seated stand up to teach. Students who will be basking in the sunshine run to their classrooms or go briskly where they will be going. Sometimes I do not have to wait to hear noise so that I move round the school.

I asked P1 whether she saw any value in the walkthroughs. She indicated the following:

Oh, yes! There has been a lot of value. The whole school will be quiet and this creates a good teaching and learning environment. There will be order making the environment good for teaching and learning. Those teachers who will be idling will begin to teach and that is what we expect as a school. One visitor commended me when she found the whole school quiet. So in short, I will say that walkthroughs force teachers to do their work. You know some of these teachers are lazy and so when they are monitored that way they work.

In the responses cited above, P1 emphasised that after teaching, she mainly resorted to doing office work. However, she made time for walkthroughs in the school. Her perception of the walkthrough revolved around being seen outside by learners, teachers and support staff. This view is contrary to ideas proffered by Moss & Brookhart (2013) who argue that walkthroughs allow deputy principals to be conversant with the curriculum and the teaching methods used by teachers. The impression from the conversations is that the participant sought to create fear in the minds of teachers and students. Contrary to this view, Moss & Brookhart (2013) perceive walkthroughs as an opportunity to promote collegiality between deputy principals and teachers. P1's allocation of time also seems to run contrary to Buckner (2008) who

suggests that deputy principals, as managers, should try to spend half of their time outside. Furthermore, the participant's walkthroughs do not seem to fit into the Downey model (Downey *et al.*, 2004) which argues that walkthroughs are a three-step process, which includes discussing areas to observe, collecting data on what happens in the classroom and discussions. The participant seems to rely on what is referred to as the bureaucratic approach to walkthroughs (Range, Holt & Young, 2011).

When I asked P2 where he spends the greater part of his time besides teaching, he had this to say:

I spend much of my time in the office attending to my other duties. This school is a boarding school. We have 1060 learners, 45 teachers and 26 support staff. You can imagine the kind of paper work required. Teachers bring in professional and personal problems. Students bring different cases to me for settlement. Just before you came in, I was solving a case of a stolen cellular phone between two students. All the support staff report to me. Therefore, as you can see, I have to spend a great deal of my time in the office.

Probed on his understanding of walkthroughs, and how he conducts them P2 remarked:

Walkthroughs are situations when the principal or the deputy principal walks round the school checking if things are in order. When I walk around the school, I do not have anything in particular. I attend to whatever is not in place. If I come across litter, I call upon any student next to me to pick. If veranda lights are not switched off, I switch off or tell someone to do so. When I come across students outside classrooms, I ask them why and tell them to go where the time table directs them to go. I pass by classrooms checking what is going on. I don't get in the classroom to see what is going on. When I want to understand what is going on, I observe lessons. With walkthroughs, I just pass by. When they see me walking, both teachers and students

know that I mean business. Sometimes I find teachers loitering around and advise them to attend to their classes. When I get tired of sitting in the office, I conduct a walkthrough. I move round the whole school checking order and monitoring discipline. In most cases, I conduct my walkthrough in the morning monitoring punctuality. After meals, students take long to settle down for their lessons or study. Walkthroughs assist me to get these students back to the classrooms.

On the value of walkthroughs to teachers and learners, P2 replied that:

There has been a tremendous benefit from walkthroughs. Firstly, when they see me outside, there is order in the school. Even teachers can confirm that. Actually, the principal constantly reminds me to conduct these walkthroughs. Secondly, when teachers see me passing by their classrooms, they begin to work. Even the support staff, when they see me, they increase speed. When the dining hall is dirty, they begin to sweep and make everything tidy.

What seems to emerge from the interview is that, as with P1, the participant spends much of his time in the office attending to teachers, learners and support staff. P2's understanding of walkthrough is that of physically moving around the school, monitoring punctuality and being seen by teachers, learners and support staff. Again this view sharply differs from the view by Garza, Ovando & O'Doherty (2016) who maintain that the essence of walkthroughs is to collect data on classroom activities that will inform instructional practice.

P3 echoed similar sentiments to P1 and P2 when asked the same question:

Much of my time is spent in the office and moving around the school grounds. Our school has an enrolment of 508 students. Teachers and students bring various issues. Stakeholders also drop in inquiring on a variety of matters. I also refer some cases to the principal.

Called upon to explain his understanding of walkthrough and how he does it, he had this to say:

My understanding of walkthrough is that these are times when I move around the classrooms ensuring that there is order in the school. Sometimes I get in the classrooms, but mostly, I will be walking outside just to have a feel of the atmosphere. I only get in the classrooms when I hear students making noise or there is something that draws my attention. I will not take long since my main aim is to check on what is going on outside. When I get into the library and find students making noise, they keep quiet and begin to read. Those students who will be playing outside are forced to go either into the library or into their classrooms, thus this brings order in the school. Walkthroughs help create a climate of teaching. When teachers see me moving outside, obviously they feel the authority and are forced to work hard.

The excerpts from P3 suggest that much of his time is spend in the office and his understanding of walkthrough is similar to that of P1 and P2.

Findings from the three interviews seem to confirm that the participants spend much of their time in their offices mainly attending to teachers, learners and support staff.

Another finding is that participants understand walkthrough as a practice by the deputy principal of moving around the school maintaining order and monitoring punctuality. What emerges from the findings is that the nature of walkthrough is not aimed at familiarising the deputy principals with classroom practice but rather on instilling fear in both teachers and learners alike. This is a missed opportunity as Brown & Coley (2011) argue that walkthrough could provide feedback to principals on matters related to instruction. Cudeiro & Nelson (2009) also emphasise teaching and learning in their understanding of walkthroughs.

The third finding in this section is that the participants seem to regard the value of walkthrough as order and punctuality in the school, by instilling fear in teachers and learners. This is the bureaucratic approach (Range, Holt & Young, 2011), where the principal or deputy principal are seen as the only authorities charged with the responsibility of conducting walkthrough and make recommendations on teaching and learning (Marks & Printy, 2003). Sergiovanni & Starratt, (2007) instead, recommend a team approach where the principal, deputy principal and teachers conduct walkthroughs. The collaboration approach holds the promise for enhancing teaching and learning (Rossi, 2007).

4.3.3.1.4. Building a culture of reading in the school

Libraries assist in creating a culture of reading in the school (Loh *et al.*, 2017). Learners can visit the library to seek knowledge through reading textbooks and other materials. Instructional leaders need to prioritise allocating library periods to all students in the school (Getrost & Lance, 2014).

On developing a culture of reading at the school, I asked P1 to shed light on reading in their school. This is what she said:

Yes, we take reading seriously in the school. Let me start by telling you that we have a library in the school. Students visit the library to do their assignments. Each class has a library period once per week. They go to the library to read whatever they want. We have a teacher-librarian who assists in lending out books and I supervise that teacher. We have a number of activities we do that allow our students to read. We give assignments to our students so that they can research in the library. Besides reading for assignments, there are a variety of books like novels they can read to improve their vocabulary. I have prepared a master timetable that accommodates each class a library period once

per week. We have a teacher-librarian who assists students locate the books they want. This helps them quickly access the books they want. The other activity that we do in the school that encourages students to read is drama. We have a drama club in the school. Mostly they dramatize stories they read from books and this forces them to read.

An emerging theme from the interview seems to be that there exists a culture of reading in the school where learners visit the library to prepare for assignments and to read for leisure. The participant appears involved in a number of activities designed to develop a reading culture, such as students accessing the library, having a timetable that allows learners to visit the library once per week and promoting drama in the school (Makatche & Oberlin, 2011). During observation, learners could be seen looking for books in the library.



Picture 4.14: Learners in the Library

P2 expressed similar sentiments on the culture of reading at his school:

*Yes, (nodding his head in satisfaction). We have a reading culture in the school. The nerve centre of that culture is that library (pointing at the library, a stand-alone block with two rooms having an office in each block). Let me take you to the library ... There are many books as you can see. Books range from Form One textbooks to Form Six. (Taking me to a whole shelf, we also have these books for general knowledge). We have novels, both Shona and English. We have documents like the Constitution of Zimbabwe (Showing me the publication). Besides this library, we have departmental libraries. These libraries contain textbooks that have to do with the syllabi of the learners. Therefore, a lot of reading takes place in the school. This being a boarding school, the library is open during weekends. I have supported a number of initiatives that promote a reading culture. In the first place, once you get in the library, you will be received by a librarian who will assist you to access the book that you want. The librarian may ask you to indicate the book that you want or he may simply give you a booklist that will guide on what you want. I have also initiated the idea of putting up displays in the library. The displays help our readers access the books they want. We also have a thriving drama club that has won many awards at provincial and national levels. Recently, they dramatized a story in the book, *Things Fall Apart* by Chinua Achebe. They had read the book thoroughly before dramatizing the story.*

The picture below shows pupils dramatizing the Final Scene of *Things Fall Apart* as the people of Umuofia watch, heart-broken, Okonkwo, one of the Ndichic of Umuofia has been killed by the white man.



Picture 4.15: Learners Drama-Things Fall Apart

Evidence from the interviews suggests that there was clearly a reading culture in P2's school.

Picture 4.16 below shows students reading in the library as they visited the library during library periods.



Picture 4.16: Students Reading in the Library

Views expressed by P3 on the presence of a reading culture were similar to those expressed by P1 and P2. The view, which confirms the presence of a reading culture, P3 elaborated as follows:

We have a reading culture. Although our library is a room, the library has a variety of books. We have in stock textbooks and other materials of a general nature. Students make use of the library during library period mostly. I have made the timetable in such a way that each class has a library period once per week. Our lending book shows that many students borrow books. We allow them to borrow books over seven days. Our teacher-librarian is doing a wonderful job. I have developed a reading culture through many activities like guidance reading, accessing reading sources and having a teacher-librarian. These activities

have helped us develop a reading culture. Students visit the library in classes to borrow books.

It is clear from the interview that a reading culture does prevail in the school.

4.3.3.1.5. Professional development

Professional development can be broadly understood as a process of sharpening the skills, competencies and capacities of teachers so that they can improve students' achievements (Postholm, 2012). Pedder & Opfer (2011) go further to list the types of professional development that include, courses, workshops, seminars, visit to other schools, network of teachers (professional learning communities) and action research. Zimbabwe Ministry of Education Vacancy Minute No. 3 of 2010 states that one of the functions of deputy principals is to arrange for professional development of teachers in order for them to improve teaching. Given this understanding, I investigated the contribution of deputy principals towards professional development of their teachers. P1's response was as follows:

My understanding of professional development is that it is the help we give one another as teachers, to improve teaching in order to get good results from our students. New topics continue to come in our syllabi. We need new thinking to teach these topics. At school level, we need to assist one another so that we can teach effectively. Let me say (scratching his head) quite a number of activities. We have done workshops, seminars and visit to others schools and networking with other teachers. We have had four main activities. I personally have facilitated a workshop on administration of public examination for teachers. We took almost one hour and 30 minutes discussing rules governing the conduct of public examinations. After the principal and myself attended a meeting on the new curriculum, we held a seminar as a school, where I presented The Continuous Assessment Framework.

Below is Picture 4.17, the continuous assessment framework that P1 refers to:

ZIMBABWE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL
PHYSICAL EDUCATION SPORTS AND MASS DISPLAYS (4002/4) PROJECT REGION _____ SHEFT NO. 1 OF 5
SCHOOL 9

Centre No	Candidate No	Names	History Of Game	History Of Game In Zim	Basic Rules Of Game	Field of play s m	Basic skills	Terms appropriate for the game.	Warm up activities	Common injuries	Prevention management of injuries	Equipment and size	Types of tournaments	Top Personalities	Model	Write Up	Total	Mod	Comment
			5	2	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	3	2	20	30		
	3004	KAMOJO ZUDAKWANE	5	2	3	4	3	5	5	5	5	4	3	2	20	30	90		GOOD
	3014	CHOKUDA PASCALA	5	2	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	2	0	17	27	91		GOOD
	3018	MASWERA NISSI	5	2	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	2	0	19	24	89		GOOD
	3025	CHEGUTSA NYASHA E	5	2	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	3	0	15	24	81		GOOD
	3031	MATETA NICHOLE T	5	2	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	3	0	15	24	81		GOOD
	3033	DEINKWA TINDIENDA	5	2	5	5	3	4	5	5	5	3	3	0	20	29	97		GOOD
	3045	MUNYANI CALVIN T	5	2	4	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	3	0	17	27	89		GOOD
	3052	CHIKOMBE NOWE T	4	2	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	3	3	0	15	22	82		GOOD
	3053	MIKA VIVIAN	5	2	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	3	0	17	23	82		GOOD
	3054	MUDOMBO MINTON	5	2	5	5	4	3	5	5	5	4	3	0	19	18	83		GOOD
	3057	MWELARUYA RASHE	5	2	4	5	3	5	5	4	4	4	3	0	18	20	84		GOOD
	3060	MUSAIGWA PRAISE	4	2	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	2	0	20	22	86		GOOD

SUBJECT TEACHER _____ MODERATORS NAME _____ SIGNATURE _____

Picture 4.17: The Continuous Assessment Framework

P1 went further to describe a visit to another school, as follows:

I led the Agriculture Department to a school with the intention to see and learn about their piggery project, so far those are the activities we have undertaken.

Probed further to explain what she meant by networking of teachers and how she has supported such networks, she answered:

At this school, teachers have formed a WhatsApp group where we discuss social and educational issues. We invite teachers to meetings through such platforms. Teachers ask one another questions and they are answered. We have found this kind of networking very useful. I remember on one occasion when a teacher complained over a student who was not doing

homework. Teachers ended up complaining about the same student. We discuss various topics mainly social issues. The group administrator is one of the teachers.

Blaise, Blaise & Phillips (2010) view professional development as opportunities to equip teachers with skills and competencies to face classroom challenges. The participant claims to have done four activities as part of professional development and these include seminars, workshops visit to other schools and networking. What emerges from the remarks by P1 regarding networking is not entirely consistent with what literature refers to as professional learning communities (Little, 2006). The platform referred to by P1 appears to be a social network group of teachers that does not seem to prioritise teaching and learning per se. Schmoker (2011) posits that in professional learning communities, teachers are expected to share teaching methods and work collectively towards students' achievement.

When P2 was asked for his understanding of professional development, he provided the following response:

Professional development is when teachers of a school come together to help a particular problem affecting them. Teachers come together to share ideas. During my lesson supervision schedule of the Geography department, I discovered that teachers had problems on map work. I arranged action research for the department. I set down with the Head of Department and we identified a teacher who would lead action research. I arranged the room and all the instructional materials that would be required to have action research. I have initiated a social media group for our teachers, where I am the group administrator. We discuss problems that affect us in our daily teaching. This has proved very effective. Teachers post on the platform problems they face and this has often sparked healthy debates. We have done seminars, workshops, individual researches and networked as teachers. These activities have

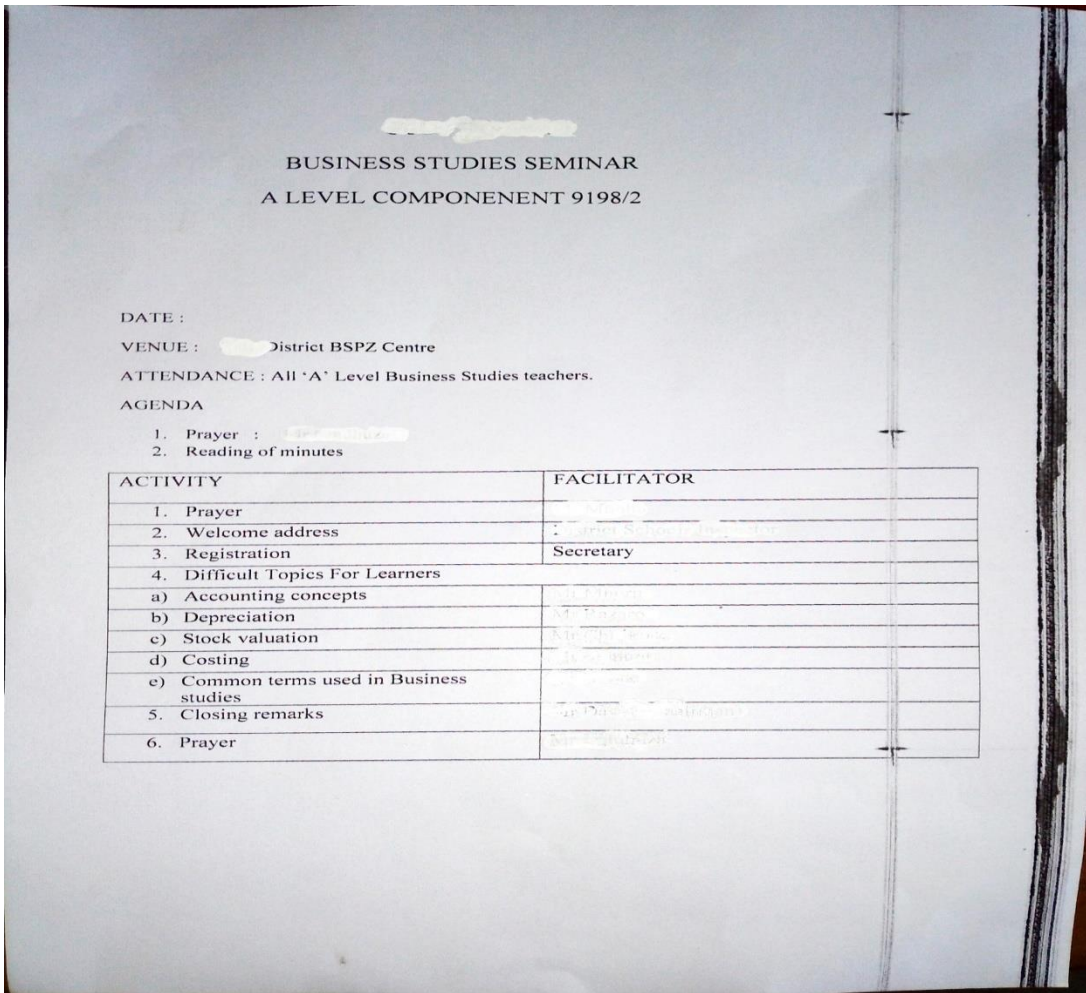
helped us improve our teaching. Teachers like these activities because they bring them together.

The discussions and analysis of documents confirm that the participant engaged in activities, such as seminars, workshops, individual research and networking with other teachers in the school. What also emerged from the conversations is that teachers seem to network through the use of social media platforms to foster their networks. Schmoker (2011) argues that professional learning communities allow teachers to link with other practitioners to support teaching. P2's features of professional learning communities do not fit entirely into the typology as outlined by Blanckstein (2010). This author outlines six elements of professional learning communities that include, shared vision optimisation of student learning and use of student data to make instructional decisions. Little also (2006) stresses that in professional learning communities, there should be close interaction between teachers on matters regarding teaching and learning. P2's professional learning communities represent an early stage of what Blanckstein (2010) and Little (2006) refer to in their work.

P2 was asked how he went about in implementing the activities described. His response was as follows:

We normally ask teachers to make presentations and then we discuss. I chair these sessions or sometimes I ask any teacher to chair. For example, last week we held a seminar which I and other Business Studies teachers facilitated.

In the section below, I provide some details of this seminar to illustrate how it was enacted. The agenda of the District Business Studies seminar where P2 facilitated is reproduced below. His topic was on Common Terms used in Business Studies.



Picture 4.17: The Agenda of the District Business Studies Seminar

Picture 4.18 below shows the notes that P2 used in his presentation.

NOTES ON BUSINESS STUDIES TERMS USED IN WRITING ESSAYS

Analyse – examine a topic in its parts

Assess – Decide to what extent something is true.

- Convince the worker the strength of your argument by quoting relevant literature
- Conclude by giving your opinion

Clarity- Make something clearer and easy to understand

- Elucidate
- E.g explaining the difference between motivators and hygiene factors

Compare and Contrast - Identify similarities and dissimilarities of something eg compare and contrast Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Hezerberg's two factor theory.

Critically Evaluate - Give your opinion to what extent your assessment is true

- Give evidence from sides
- Give justification

Give Reasons – Give meaning of something

Demonstrate - Illustrate with examples

Describe – Give a comprehensive explanation

- Elucidate

Examine – Give a closer analysis to get the critical form about a question

Discuss – Indicate the advantages and disadvantages of a given question.

Picture 4.18: The Notes that P2 Used in His Presentation

The seminar was on Common Terms used in "A" Level Business Studies syllabus component 9198/2. The terms were, evaluate, assess, discuss, critical analysis, explain, to what extent, outline. We also have a social media platform for teachers. The senior master is the group administrator. We discuss almost everything

on this platform. We make announcements, advise change of programmes, post new titles of books on the market or even share teaching methods.

P3 shares the same understanding of professional development with the other participants. He, however, differs with other participants on the activities he undertakes as part of professional development. He recounted the following:

We visited one of the schools in our cluster that has beaten us in both “O” and “A” Level results every year. In the 2016 results, the school obtained 85% and 100% at “O” and “A” Level respectively. We wanted to see the secret behind their success. We were beaten virtually in all subjects.

When asked about how he implemented the professional development programme, he had this to say:

I led a delegation of five members to the school. We left the school at 0700h. The members were the school bursar, two teachers and the Chairperson of the School Development Committee. The team comprised two women, the Bursar and the Foods and Nutrition teacher. We visited the school on a Wednesday. When we left the school, we were very clear on what we wanted to see. We had made prior arrangements and the deputy principal of the school was already waiting for us. We did not write down all the questions we were going to ask, rather we had guidelines, for example teachers, curriculum, infrastructure etc., we were received in the deputy principal’s office where we saw the displayed results as we were taking tea. At the same time, we were introduced to the principal of the school who did not take long with us. We were given the opportunity to move round the school including the sports grounds. We did not have a secretary to take the minutes, each one of us was taking his or her minutes.

Asked specifically about what they observed, he replied as follows:

Oh, we saw quite a lot. That trip was a revelation for us. We saw their sports grounds, school buildings, their agriculture department, and everything else. We saw the principal addressing the end of day assembly at 1600h. The deputy principal explained to us that had he not been attending to us he would have addressed the school. We had the chance to enter a Form Two classroom where there were forty-five learners, twenty-five girls and twenty boys. From the Form Two classroom, we had a meeting with Heads of Department. They addressed us on how they ran their departments. We also received information on departmental policy and vision of each department. At around 1700h, we left the school. We discussed our findings the following day in a full staff meeting.

What emerged from this conversation are the details of the visit that P3 and his team conducted a visit to another school. Mitchell (2013) suggests a list of possible questions a visiting school can ask to obtain information that is critical for instructional improvement, some of which were asked by P3 and his group. Similarly, Evans (2014) identifies twelve areas for observation that are critical to instructional improvement, and again some of these were covered in P3's visit.

Borko (2004) proposes some questions that are specific to high schools. While a great deal of information might have been obtained from P3's visit, in view of the questions suggested by Mitchell (2013) and observation areas suggested by Evans (2014) together with specific high school questions by Borko (2004), it is clear that more information could have been obtained to achieve the original purpose of the visit. Pre-set questions (Mitchell, 2013) would have directed the inquiry better than was the case in this instance.

P3's interview seems to refer substantively to professional learning communities. Professional learning communities are platforms for creating close relationships among teachers (Hord, 2004; Senge, 2000;).

Professional learning communities aim for teamwork and collaboration among teachers (DuFour & Eaker, 1999). While it appears like the schools embraced elements of professional learning communities (Little, 2006), major features of professional communities were not evident.

4.3.3.1.6. Discussion of findings of subtheme 2.1.

Findings on the theme of creating a culture that is conducive to teaching and learning are presented in the order of the five categories that emerged during data presentation and analysis as given above. Importantly, the main findings from the interviews point to the fact that participants are active and somewhat involved in creating a culture that is conducive to teaching and learning.

Discussions with the participants provided ample evidence that they incentivised teachers for improving performance. Hallinger (2015) argues that one function of deputy principals, as instructional leaders, is to reward outstanding teachers. Eberts *et al.*, (2002) also argue that rewards tend to motivate behaviour. The data presented in this chapter shows that all the participants did offer one or other type of incentive as suggested by Vergas (2005). For instance, P1 provided teaching resources as reward for outstanding teachers. P2 and P3 focused on boosting teachers' personal mastery, although in different ways. P2 did this through demonstration lessons while P3 supervised lessons, inspected exercise books and wrote reports.

Another finding on creating a culture conducive to teaching and learning relates to protecting instructional time. Evidence from the interviews revealed that the participants used a number of strategies to protect instructional time.

For example, participants allocated more time to teaching and learning on the timetable even though they did not use block scheduling, a technique of allocating more time to teaching and learning (Biesinger *et al.*, 2008).

The participants concurred that they spend much of their time in the office preparing for lessons, compiling reports and attending to stakeholders. It was only after they were done with office work that they would move around the school maintaining order and discipline. This approach runs counter to the suggestion by Blaise, Blaise & Phillips (2012) that the most important place for the deputy principal, as an instructional leader, is not in the office but out of the office. In all cases though, there is a modicum of visibility. Participants were observed moving around the school maintaining discipline and meeting teachers. This is line with Anderson *et al.*, (2013)'s idea of Management by Walking Around (MBWA). P1, in addition to MBWA, conducted what seems to be walkthroughs. She explained "*The moment they see a passer-by, they become alert*".

Another finding that emerged from the interviews is that the participants have invariably initiated and supported reading programmes in their schools. Makatche & Oberlin (2011) list the following as some of the programmes a school can pursue to foster a reading culture; accessing reading sources, displays, exhibitions, storytelling, drama, debate, lending reading materials, book-talks, librarian, hosting an author and book clubs. For these deputy principals, the common programmes used include accessing reading sources, drama, guidance reading, displays and engaging a librarian. Although the programmes supported by participants did foster a reading culture, they seem limited in relation to the programmes suggested by Makatche & Oberlin (2011). For example, displays, exhibitions, storytelling,

debate, book-talks, hosting an author and book clubs were missing from the programmes described by the participants.

Finally, the participants seem to have a fair understanding of professional development. The data suggests a dominance of particular types of professional development that include, workshops, seminars, networking teachers and visit to other schools. The kind of networking, however, does not seem to fully characterise professional learning communities as discussed by (Little, 2006), for instance. Schmoker (2011) insists that in professional learning communities, teachers are expected to share teaching methods and work collectively towards students' achievement. Evidence abound that P3 visited a school with the aim of getting information that would improve instructional practice and help the school improve results. A visit to a school is itself a type of professional development (Mitchell, 2006). While the visit may have been useful, it might have fallen short of covering some of the questions expected to enrich such a visit (Mitchell, 2013), or the critical observation areas to inform improved instructional delivery (Evans, 2014) and/or specific high school questions (Borko, 2004). The thrust of professional learning communities should include its focus on content, curriculum and learners, instructional leaders looking for external sources and resources to enhance learning and collaboration by all players (Markku, Ilomaki, Nauutila & Auli, 2018; McLaughin & Talbert, 2001).

4.3.4. Theme 3: Challenges and Opportunities Faced by Deputy Principals

In part, the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership was undertaken as an exercise to uncover the challenges and opportunities faced by deputy principals. This was important

for me in order to obtain data that would inform the recommendations for the development of the deputy principals and their role. Two subthemes emerged from the theme on challenges and opportunities. These are challenges faced by deputy principals namely; role ambiguity and the principal's disposition.

4.3.4.1. Many duties and role ambiguity

I started my interview by asking P1 about her main challenges in discharging her instructional leadership role. She explained:

My friend, I perform many duties here. Each morning before I come to school, I draw a checklist of the activities I want to do for the day. You may not believe me if I tell you that it may be possible that at the end of the day I would have done very few activities on the checklist. Firstly, I have twenty periods teaching Form Four and Six History. I supervise six Heads of Departments and write reports. I administer tests and examinations. I chair the Academic Committee, Housing Committee and Disciplinary Committee. I may need to tell you that when the Principal is away, I act in his position attending to all stakeholders. The list is endless. Sometimes I wonder what exactly my role is. At the end of the day when I look back, I would have done very little of anything. I am disturbed in my teaching, disturbed in my supervision schedule, disturbed in my office work and even disturbed in the meetings I will have scheduled.

Answering the question on how the challenges can be addressed, she responded as follows:

What I think, ummmm what I think should be done is to streamline my duties. My duties must be very clear such that when I go to school, I know exactly what I am going to do. I don't mind having fifteen periods per week so that I can observe teachers as many times as I want.

The responses on the challenges seem to suggest that the participant's effectiveness is somewhat affected by the numerous duties she is expected to perform. As discussed in earlier chapters, duties of deputy principals are not always clearly defined (Burchfield, 2015; Celik, 2013; Cranston, 2013; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). Celik (2013) argues that deputy principals perform a plethora of duties. In deed the participant seems to suggest the need to streamline her duties so that she can focus on the supervisory role.

Responding to the same question on the challenges, P2 had this to say:

I have many duties since this school is a boarding school. I have duties here at school and at the hostels. I have twenty-two periods per week teaching Forms Four, Five and Six. I supervise ten teachers and am responsible for their narrative reports. I supervise twenty-six ancillary staff. I have duties at the hostels where there are one thousand and sixty learners. Among the ancillary staff, we have cooks, general hands, librarians, clerks and security guards. In the absence of the principal, I act on his behalf. My teaching is badly affected. I have resorted to teaching in the evenings or during weekends to cover up for the lost time. I have not been able to meet my lesson supervision targets for quite some time.

Offered a chance to explain how he wanted the challenges addressed, (smiling) he suggested the following:

Primarily, I am a teacher. I cannot do without teaching but I do not mind eighteen periods per week. For me to be effective in my supervisory role, I think boarding schools need two deputy principals one for academic and one for students' affairs. That would put everything to rest.

P2's sentiments echo P1 on the need for the duties to be streamlined. To address challenges, P2 suggested the idea that boarding schools need two

deputy principals. All three participants felt that the duties should be redefined such that they can keep up with their instructional leadership tasks.

P3 said:

I perform many duties here. Firstly, I am a teacher. Secondly, I deal with the disciplinary problems of all the students and there are 508. Besides, I supervise 31 teachers. It's a lot of work. I also do administrative work. I compile duty rosters, make the master time table and coordinate all school functions like the prize-giving day. Some of these duties should be removed so that I remain with the teaching and supervisory roles.

The emerging trend from the participants, points to the fact that duties of deputy principals need to be clearly defined with a bias towards instructional leadership (Burchfield, 2015; Celik, 2013; Cranston, 2013; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). When P3 suggested that some of the duties should be removed, it highlights the helplessness that he feels in not having control over his duties. P2 suggests the need for two deputy positions in the hierarchical structure of boarding schools. Evidently, all the participants had classes to teach. P1 had twenty periods, P2 twenty periods and P3 twenty-two periods which can be a handful load for these senior instructional leaders.

4.3.4.2. Allocation of duties

The Permanent Secretary's Minute No. 15 of 2006 (Zimbabwe) lists specific duties of the deputy principal. Retelle (2010) argues that the roles and responsibilities of assistant principals largely depend on the predisposition of the principal. I began the conversations with P1 to establish the basis of her duties.

When I was interviewed, I was asked questions related to the duties I would perform. There are circulars that spell out duties of deputy principals. Besides, we attend workshops that guide us on our duties. Ummm (sulky). What you find on the ground sometimes is different from circulars. Generally, of course, what we do here could be different from the next deputy principal. Much depends on the principal one works under. Regulations are there just as guidelines.

P2 and P3 responded similarly to P1. They agreed that circulars only outlined the duties for deputy principals but that in practice things could be different. P2, for instance, said:

One of my duties, according to a circular (I cannot remember its title), is that I run examinations, but in this case they are run by the senior master. So you see, it depends with the principal.

What emerged from the data is that the duties of the deputy principals are not predetermined but are largely dependent on the principal. The predisposition of the principal dictated the role of deputy principals (Clint, 2011).

4.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 4 presented, analysed and discussed data on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Data were collected using interviews and document analysis.

Chapter 5 gives a brief summary of the findings of the research, conclusions and recommendations for further inquiry.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter four analysed and discussed the data from a study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe. This chapter summarises the key findings of the study, draws conclusions and proffers recommendations to enhance the instructional leadership role of the deputy principal.

Before I present the findings of the study, I cross analyse the biographical data of the deputy principals, their instructional leadership role, their experience of the practice of instructional leadership and the challenges and opportunities they faced. The study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership had 3 cases.

Case 1 was female who had 3 years' experience as deputy principal. She deputised at a government day high school which had 596 learners and a staff complement of 33 teachers. She held a Bachelor of Arts degree and a graduate diploma in education.

Case 2 was a male deputy principal who held a Master's degree in Education. The participant had 4 years' experience as deputy principal at a church run institution. The school enrolment was 1060 learners and 45 teachers.

Case 3 was a male holder of a Master's degree in Business Administration with 3 years' experience as deputy principal at a rural district council owned the school. The school had 508 learners and 31 teachers.

All the cases were fairly well experienced as deputy principals and each had at least a degree. Each case had a different responsible authority from the other which owned the school and for case 1, who was the only female, the school was government owned.

With regards to the role of vision development, all the cases, indeed contributed in the vision formulation of their schools. All the participants marketed the school's vision statement, however, using different strategies. For example, case 1 took advantage of the consultation day that took place once per year to market the vision statement to the parents. In addition, she ensured that each office in the school, including the front office, strategically displayed the vision statement of the school for all clients to see. Case 2 seized the opportunity to market the vision statement of the school on visit days when parents of the school would come to see their children. He also marketed the vision through a magazine, the Guide Post, he launched. For case 3, the strategy of marketing was to sell the vision to the learners at assemblies.

All the cases revealed that they supervised lessons for teachers. The cases used a stand-alone supervision protocol which had similar headings that paid

more attention to the teacher. The cases differed in who they supervised and the frequency. Case 1 supervised heads of departments only and at least once per term. Case 2 observed lessons for senior teachers and case 3 observed lessons for junior teachers. In all cases, stand-alone narrative reports were produced for teachers observed.

All the three cases modelled disposition modelling by carrying a teaching load. P1 had a teaching load of 20 periods, teaching History to the Form 4 and 6 classes. P2 taught Forms 4, 5 and 6 Mathematics and had 22 periods. P3's teaching load was 22 periods. He taught Form 4, 5 and 6 Business Studies. In addition to disposition modelling, cases 1 and 2 went further to demonstrate task and performance modelling when they conducted demonstration lessons for their teachers.

On how they experienced the practice of instructional leadership, all cases supported a reading culture in their schools. The three cases had a library in the school and each class had a library period allocated. As for case 2, however, the library opened during weekends. Cases 1 and 3 had teacher-librarians and case 2 had a full time librarian. Case 2 had activities like drama and displays to instil a reading culture in the school.

All the cases shared the same challenges in enacting their instructional leadership role. They decried the many duties they performed, many of which are non-instructional. They also bemoaned role ambiguity. Each case had a teaching load of senior classes. P1 explained that she was the chairperson of the Housing Committee, the Academic Committee, and the Disciplinary Committee. P2 had duties at both the school and hostels. In addition to supervising 45 teachers, he additionally supervised 26 support staff. He also

had to look at the welfare of 1060 learners. He suggested that the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education should appoint two deputy principals at the school for effective instructional leadership. The three cases stated that their duties were ill defined and wished them streamlined.

5.2. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The current study sought to examine the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The assumption that the instructional leadership of deputy principals is cardinal to the improvement of learner performance was the guiding compass for the study.

To draw insights into the study, I used symbolic interactionism as a theoretical framework. The theory of symbolic interactionism asserts that people living in a society develop meaning of the world around them through the process of interaction. My study examined how three deputy principals enacted their role of instructional leadership. It explored how they interacted with stakeholders to create meanings of their role and experiences thus, giving an interactionist perspective. Through symbolic interactionism, human beings understand their experiences and those of others. In other words, symbolic interactionism links stakeholders to deputy principals and deputy principals to stakeholders. Through the use of symbols, I was able to understand the instructional leadership role and experiences of deputy principals.

My study used the qualitative research approach because it aimed at gathering data in its context. I found the qualitative approach appropriate in seeking insights and vivid explanations about the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The qualitative approach was

realistic, graphic and it sought to investigate deputy principals in their normal habitats. The qualitative approach fits neatly with the symbolic interactionist approach in that the two view meanings and reality as constantly changing. I chose the case study as my research design because it gave me an opportunity to interview deputy principals, interpreting their actions and relationships in their settings.

5.3. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The research sought to explore deputy principals' role and experiences with instructional leadership. There is a paucity of information on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership (Marshall, & Hooley, 2006). Extant literature on school leadership focuses more on the principal (Bush & Glover, 2014; Hendricks, 2014). Deputy principals in Gutu District of Masvingo Province were sampled for a case study to establish their role and experiences with instructional leadership. Three deputy principals were selected to further study instructional leadership practices and experiences, the challenges they faced in enacting the instructional leadership role and to make recommendations to improve their efficacy. This study was carried out in the shadows of the euphoria of one of Zimbabwe's latest educational reforms, the "Updated Curriculum" (The Zimbabwe Curriculum Review: Concept Paper, 2015). The updated curriculum seeks to revolutionise the education system and the role of school leadership is viewed as critical (Oleszweski, *et al.*, 2012). This study sought to fill the gap by investigating the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The study consists of five chapters as set out below.

Chapter 1 discussed the background and orientation to the study. Essentially, the background to the study highlighted accountability demands

on the part of the principal. It is argued that the conservative view of the principal as the super hero leader is not likely to meet the global agenda for educational reform. It was argued in Chapter 1 that deputy principals are a critical resource to assist principals and schools to produce globally competitive learners. Therefore, this study was aimed at eliciting views from deputy principals in the Gutu District on their instructional leadership role.

It was argued in chapter 1, that the study would contribute new knowledge on the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The limitations of the study were not unique to those ordinarily obtaining in cases studies. The chapter concluded with an outline of the chapters of the study.

Chapter 2 discussed literature related to the development of instructional leadership and distributed leadership as frameworks that promote student achievement and placing the research in a way that shows its contribution to the main problem of the research. Instructional leadership was reviewed to trace its evolution and development to its contemporary level highlighting how deputy principals are enacting the instructional leadership role. As for distributed leadership, it was reviewed to highlight its tenets of collaboration, participation and autonomy. I started the research at a time when the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education had launched the 'Updated Curriculum' which demanded a paradigm shift with regards to student achievement on the part of school leadership. The role of the deputy principal with instructional leadership is often ill-defined. Against this background, the study sought to understand the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. In this study, symbolic interactionism theory was used as a lens to get deeper insights into the perceptions of deputy principals on their instructional leadership role. Central to symbolic

interactionism is the argument that human beings develop meanings through an interactive process (Mackinnon, 2005).

Chapter 3 described the methodology used to conduct the research. A qualitative research approach and specifically a case study design were employed to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Since the study was aimed at investigating deputy principals' perceptions, views, opinions and experiences, the approach and design were deemed appropriate. The data were the words of the participants and was not numerical, hence a qualitative approach was desirable. The study used qualitative data gathering instruments, such as interviews and document analysis. The data sources were triangulated to give a broader understanding of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Three deputy principals were purposively sampled for the study since only information rich participants were needed. The issue of guaranteeing the rights of participants was considered under ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 presented, interpreted, analysed and discussed data collected through multiple interviews and document analysis. Data were mainly descriptive. The participants' narratives were presented verbatim making it easy to analyse and relate to literature. Discussion of data bringing out scholarship on instructional leadership and distributed leadership followed. Three themes emerged from data analysis on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The first was deputy principals' instructional leadership roles, the second was deputy principals' experience of the practice of instructional leadership and the third related to the challenges and opportunities faced by deputy principals in enacting the

instructional leadership role. Generally, deputy principals enacted the instructional leadership role and this resonated well with extant literature. However, there were instances where the findings were not in tandem with literature, these gaps highlight the need for improvement in enacting the instructional leadership role.

The present chapter, chapter 5 provides a summary of the key findings, recommendations for both policy and practice and conclusions. Areas of further research are also highlighted in this chapter. The chapter closes with my personal reflections on the whole study.

I started the study at a time when the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education was launching the 'Updated Curriculum'. The 'Updated Curriculum' is a major educational reform where school leadership is integral. The role of the deputy principal as an instructional leader became very critical to me.

Three findings emerged from the study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The findings are summarised in a discussion of how the practices of deputy principals can be understood and/or explained. Sub-themes and categories were developed to obtain detailed descriptions of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership.

Theme 1 findings revealed that deputy principals did enact instructional leadership roles. Participants confirmed their involvement in goal setting and supporting quality teaching. In goal-setting, participants in all cases agreed that they contributed towards the formulation of the vision statement. Furthermore, the participants revealed that the level of involvement of

stakeholders, like parents and learners, was limited to being told the vision statement. Another finding of the study showed that deputy principals supported quality teaching and learning through supervision of lessons, monitoring students' progress, modelling good teaching behaviour and through action research.

Findings from theme two revealed that deputy principals practiced instructional leadership when they assisted in creating a culture of teaching and learning, incentivising teachers, protecting teaching time, being visible in the school, building a culture of reading and conducting professional development.

Theme 3 findings established that deputy principals faced a variety of challenges in enacting instructional leadership. The main challenges include role ambiguity and the disposition of the principals. On how the practices of deputy principals can be understood and/or explained, findings showed that they enacted the instructional leadership role despite the existence of gaps in their instructional practices. The chapter closes with my personal reflections on how the study was conducted.

5.4. MAIN FINDINGS

The study was directed by the main research question; *how do deputy principals experience instructional leadership roles in Zimbabwe?* The research questions that guided the study are:

- What are the instructional leadership roles of deputy principals in Zimbabwe?
- How do deputy principals experience the practices of instructional leadership set-ups in Zimbabwe?

- How do contextual settings in the high schools, present opportunities and challenges to deputy principals' instructional leadership practice?
- How can the experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe be understood and/or explained?

The study sought to investigate the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Findings on each objective are presented thematically.

5.4.1. Deputy Principals' Instructional Leadership Roles

This study established that schools of participants had vision statements. The vision statements defined the purpose of the schools and directed the behaviour of the teachers. They also incorporated the core values that characterised each school. The vision statements were displayed in offices. Permanent Secretary's Minute Number 15 of 2006 states that one of the duties of the deputy principal is to assist the principal in framing the vision statement of the school.

The study established that participants contributed towards the formulation of the vision statement. However, the extent of involvement differed with each participant. For example, P1 said that administrators of the school including herself, produced the vision statement and it was left to her to craft the final version. P1 stated "*... we brainstormed as a committee ... you see the vision on the wall ... that is my language*". This is contrary to P2 who actually formulated the statement and presented it to teachers for their input. In the case of P1, teachers did not participate in formulating the vision. In the case of P3, the principal chaired the meeting that discussed the vision of the school. P3 attended this meeting. According to the findings, P1 participated

by attending a meeting of senior management of the school that deliberated on the vision. P2 actually formulated the vision alone and gave it to teachers to input and P3 participated by attending a staff meeting that discussed the vision. Joachim (2010) emphasised collaboration of stakeholders in vision formulation. Bush & Colemann (2000) justify stakeholder participation when they argue that their input helps to secure commitment. Accordingly, P2 was bound to commit himself to the vision since he formulated it. Powers (2012) envisages collective formulation of the vision statement when school constituent elements, that include the principal, the deputy principal, teachers, parents and learners work in consultation as a team.

Hallinger & Murphy (1987) postulated a three dimensional instructional leadership framework of visioning the school, managing teaching and learning and promoting an atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning. Vision statements are an aspect of visioning the school. Leadership, globally and internationally, is said to be compatible with vision (Papulova, 2014). If one does not know where they are going, they will never reach there. Proverbs Chapter 29 verse 18 states that King Solomon observed that where there is no vision, people perish. Vision formulation is a key practice for instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2012; Lunenburg, 2011). Instructional leaders include principals, deputy principals and teacher leaders (Spillane & Mertz, 2015). Literature reviewed for this study established the importance of visioning and the role played by instructional leaders in vision formulation. Mombourquette (2017) summarises the importance of vision when he points out that it transforms schools into centres of excellence.

Findings revealed that participants contributed towards marketing the vision statement. P1 displayed the vision statement in offices and explained the vision to parents on consultation days as marketing strategies. P2 marketed the vision statement to parents on prize giving days. In addition, he published a school magazine, *The Guide Post*, that contained among other sections, the vision statement and core values of the school. P3 marketed the vision to the learners and explained it to the members of the School Development Committee. Marketing efforts used by the participants are consistent with literature on marketing (Oplatka & Hemsley- Brown, 2007).

The study established that the use of technology, as a strategy to market the school vision, has not been fully adopted. Technology can help market the school vision (DeZarn, 1998). Technology can be used to complement other strategies like explaining the vision to parents on prize giving days and consultation days to mount a vigorous marketing strategy for the school vision (Bell, 1999).

Literature reviewed suggests that there are three stages of vision development process namely, collective formulation, marketing and effectuation of the vision statement (Harris & Lowery, 2004). Collective vision formulation is supported by Bush & Collemann (2000) when they point out that the vision should have a buy-in from stakeholders to secure their commitment. Literature reviewed also underscores the need for vigorous marketing of the vision statement to create singleness of purpose of all stakeholders of the school. The need for marketing stems from the fact that there is intense competition for infrastructural development funds, academic results, students, quality of teachers and public image. In order to gain competitive edge, schools need an aggressive marketing strategy (Foskett,

2002; Hanson, 1996). Literature proffered two views of marketing the vision of the school. Bell (1999) stresses the use of technology by creating social media platforms and websites. The above point is also supported by DeZarn (1998) who advocates for social media platforms like Facebook and Twitter for school vision statement marketing. The second view suggests marketing strategies that include consultation days, visit days and the school magazine (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown, 2007).

Marketing is the second phase of the vision development process (Harris & Lowery, 2004). Literature suggests that owing to intense competition for good academic results, students, quality teachers, and good public image, schools need to aggressively market their vision (Foskett, 2002; Hanson, 1996). Literature provides two views of marketing vision statements namely explaining it on consultation days, launching a school magazine on visit days (Oplatka & Hemsley- Brown, 2007). The other view stresses the use of technology in marketing the school vision (DeZarn, 1998) with platforms like websites, Twitter and Facebook (Bell, 1999).

The third stage of vision development is effectuation. According to reviewed literature, this refers to implementation of the vision statement. During the implementation stage, the role of the deputy principal is to supervise and support all implementation efforts (Tolhurst, 2006). The school vision expresses itself in the curriculum and is often displayed where it is clearly seen by stakeholders.

Literature suggests that one of the instructional leadership practices for deputy principals is managing teaching and learning (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). This dimension focuses on the instructional leader monitoring the

core business of the school (Bass, 2010). One of the core businesses of a school is supervision of lessons. Existing literature suggests that in classroom observation, professional development, coaching and mentoring take centre stage (Hora, Oleson & Ferrera, 2013). Supervisors observe teaching using a structured instrument. Literature emphasises that in classroom observation for professional development, the supervisor and the teacher hold conferences before and after the lesson (Turpen & Finkelsen, 2010). Mills (1992) warns that pre- and post-observation conferences help build trust between the teacher and the supervisor. Literature suggests the use of either structured or unstructured protocols although Gilbert & Haley (2010) argue that unstructured protocols have the potential to collect rich data about classroom interactions. Hora & Terrare (2013) identify four characteristics of observation protocols.

Findings from interviews and document analysis confirm that participants observed lessons for teachers. P1 supervised six Heads of Departments. She used a structured observation instrument. P2 supervised ten senior teachers. He indicated that “... *I supervise ten senior teachers only using a structured instrument*”. P3 supervised eight junior teachers. Findings of the study further revealed that participants used stand-alone instruments, which did not integrate pre-observation and post-observation conferences. What I witnessed is that in all cases, participants had discussions with the observed teacher after the lesson. These discussions cannot be referred to as conferences, since in the first place, there were no pre-conferences that were held to focus on what classroom observations would be observed.

Literature indicates features of observation protocols. The features include greater attention paid on the learner (Good & Brophy, 2000), that the protocol

should focus on content (Neuman, 2014) and that it combines other data sources (Chen & Ball, 1999). Observations should combine with interviews before and after observations. A stand-alone supervision instrument has a weakness of leaving out vital information that is critical to quality teaching and learning. There are inconsistencies between existing literature and the findings of the study. Findings of the study show that deputy principals relied mainly on stand-alone instruments for supervision. The instrument itself paid greater attention on the teacher and less on content and the learner and that there were no conferences before and after the observations.

Findings established that participants used 19th century models that borrowed McGregor's Theory X which views workers as generally lazy and in need of strict supervision. When participants observe teachers without a conference, it seems to suggest that teachers may not be clear on the purpose of the supervision and therefore, may feel that deputy principals may be looking out for mistakes. Against this background, findings seem to indicate that the supervision by deputy principals may not develop teachers fully and that deputy principals may not be providing teachers with wide opportunities for reflecting on their practices. This notion sharply contradicts the clinical model of supervision as espoused by Goldhammer, Anderson & Krajewski (1980).

Monitoring students' progress is another instructional practice that a deputy principal is expected to experience (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). Literature shows that monitoring students' progress is an instructional practice that assists instructional leaders and teachers to make use of learner performance data to evaluate their teaching and also make decisions on their teaching (Safer & Fleishman, 2005). Wildy (2012) views student monitoring

as developing testing programmes for students to check their understanding of a unit. Hallinger (2015) points out that test results are used to aid setting goals and planning. Effective instructional leaders periodically give teachers and parents test results (Anderson, Leithwood & Straus, 2010; Young & Kim, 2010).

The study revealed that participants gave students written work to check on their progress. P1 stated that she gave students daily exercises, weekly essays, termly tests and end of year tests, while P2 also confirmed giving daily exercises, monthly tests and termly tests. The same view was shared by P3. This is consistent with summative evaluation. Literature describes summative assessments as used to assess whether or not students have learnt anything at the end of a teaching unit (Kibbie, 2016). Because of that quality, summative assessments are also known as assessments of learning.

Findings from the study also confirmed that participants used continuous assessments on specific subjects. P1 indicated that continuous assessment was confined to practical subjects like Agriculture and Fashion and Fabrics. She further noted that “... *in these subjects, they do projects which are marked at the school by the teacher ... in the case of Form Four candidates, the project mark contributes 30% of the final external mark*”. P2 stated that they had four practical subjects that used continuous assessments. These were Agriculture, Fashion and Fabrics, Foods and Nutrition and Physical Education. He said that “... *academic subjects do not use continuous assessments*”. P3 revealed that it was only Agriculture and Fashion and Fabrics that used continuous assessments. What can be observed about

continuous assessment from participants is that it is restricted to practical and not academic subjects.

Literature advocates the use of continuous assessments across all the subjects. Locally and internationally, continuous assessments have been used to assess students' progress (Birhanu, 2013). Zimbabwe has adopted a half-hearted approach to continuous assessments. The Nziramasanga Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (1999) recommended adoption of continuous assessments as a method of monitoring students' progress. It took close to seventeen years for the government to embrace the phenomenon and it was launched in 2016. Even with this launch, the model has since been scrapped in 2018. Literature also shows the importance of continuous assessments. Despite having shelved it, continuous assessments assist in identifying learners who require remediation and extension (Chakanyuka, 2015). It is administered regularly during the course of the year (Muskin, 2017). Quansah (2005) argues that continuous assessments have a task component that is in sync with what students in class aim to develop students' competences and abilities.

Modelling good teaching behaviour is an instructional practice under the managing instruction dimension (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). Literature defines modelling good teaching behaviour as when, an instructional leader, the deputy principal demonstrates a new way of learning that teachers can learn. Modelling allows teachers to imitate specific behaviours exhibited by deputy principals that encourage learning. What is critical about modelling good teaching behaviour is observation (Bandura, 1986).

Literature identifies four types of modelling good teaching behaviour that deputy principals can use. These are disposition modelling, task and performance modelling, scaffolding and child-centred modelling (Salisu & Ransom, 2014).

Findings of the study revealed that participants mainly used disposition, task, performance, and child-centred modelling. In disposition modelling, deputy principals model personal virtues like fairness, responsibility, empathy and trust. P1 said “... *I am very fair when I observe lessons*”. P2 said “... *I am very concerned about the welfare of teachers*” This shows that he was aware that he was supposed to be compassionate when dealing with teachers. Disposition modelling helps create a culture that is congenial to teaching and learning.

Task and performance modelling allows the deputy principal to demonstrate an activity then allows the teachers to proceed on their own (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). In task and performance modelling, the teacher first observes the deputy principal then they proceed to try out the demonstrated activity in his or her classroom (Bryson & Hand, 2007). Findings revealed that P1 demonstrated the task and performance model when she conducted a demonstration lesson.

During lesson observation, P3 observed a teacher who taught map work effectively. He then asked the teacher to demonstrate to the other department members. This approach resembles child-centred modelling. Literature describes child-centred as allowing deputy principals to assign tasks to teachers who demonstrate a rare quality that can be demonstrated for the benefit of others (Salisu & Ransom, 2014). What is important in child-

centred modelling is the ability of the deputy principal to identify a teacher with good teaching practices.

Evidence from the study shows that participants did not use scaffolding to model good teaching behaviour. In scaffolding, the deputy principal demonstrates a task to teachers then allows them to proceed while he gives support where necessary (Holland & Kobasigawa, 1998). In all the three steps of scaffolding, demonstration by the deputy principal, collaboration activity and teacher assignment, the deputy principal supports the teacher. Scaffolding offers teachers opportunities for observation and growth (Lickona, 2004; Lumpkin, 2000). Scaffolding also allows the deputy principal to offer supportive strategies to the teacher initially and then the support is gradually removed to allow the teacher to assume great responsibility over his/her teaching.

Findings from the study suggest that participants understood the meaning of action research. P1 defined action research as “... *a way of solving problems we face in the course our teaching ...*” P2 defined action research as “... *a process of solving challenges teachers face when conducting lessons*”. P3 understood action research as “*a method used by teachers to solve common problems they face when they teach children ...*”

The above perceptions are captured by Cohen *et al.*, (2014) who describe action research as an on-the-site approach aimed at dealing with practical problems encountered by teachers in their course of teaching.

The study established that participants conducted action research. Parents were apathetic about attending school parents' assembly meetings. P1 wrote a letter to the parents inviting them to a meeting. However, many parents did

not attend. P2 asked three teachers to conduct action research on map work to all Geography teachers. P3 did not point out specifically how he has conducted action research despite probing. While the participants made effort to conduct action research, they seem not to have followed the steps outlined by Elliot (1991). Perhaps that explains why P1 did not get good attendance even after writing invitation letters. The five action research steps are identifying the problem, gathering information on the problem, examining the problem, action research, studying the findings and suggesting the way forward guided by the findings (Elliot, 1991). This was also the case with P2 who asked one teacher to demonstrate teaching of map work that must have been preceded by gathering information on the problem analysing the problem before working on the problem. Literature recommends that effective action research follows steps.

5.4.2. Deputy Principals' Experiences of the Practice of Instructional Leadership

Creating a culture conducive to teaching and learning is a dimension of instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). Instructional leadership tasks that help create a culture conducive to teaching and learning include incentivising teachers, protecting teaching time, visibility and a culture of reading.

Giving teachers incentives is a practice that assists in creating a culture conducive to effective teaching and learning. Literature reveals that teachers, across the globe, are generally paid a fixed salary based on qualification and experience (Dee Wyckoff, 2013). Advocates of teacher incentives criticise a fixed salary warning that the system may face challenges in recruiting new teachers and retaining current staff in the

service (Johnson & Papay, 2009). Extant literature acknowledges the relationship between teacher incentives and students' achievement (Fryer & Dobbie, 2013; Glewwe *et al.*, 2010). Locally and internationally, teachers are paid incentives. In Kenya, teachers are awarded prizes on the basis of national examinations and the prizes are offered by the local communities (Figlio & Kenny, 2007).

Vergas (2005) gives types of incentives teachers may be given, and they include recognition and prestige, salary differentials, job stability, pensions, professional growth, infrastructure and instructional resources and mastery. Findings of the study show that participants provided incentives to teachers. The incentives included monetary rewards, accommodation, teaching materials, professional development and professional growth (Vergas, 2005). P1 confirmed "... *as Chairman of the Housing Committee, I make sure teachers are comfortably accommodated ... I am also Chairman of the Procurement Committee, the Committee that makes all school purchases ...*" The participants confirmed giving monetary incentives. P2 confirmed catering for professional development, personal growth and giving monetary rewards. P3 revealed that the major incentive given by the school development was money. Just like in Kenya incentives by P3 are provided by the School Development Committee (Figlio *et al.*, 2010).

Findings revealed that the type of incentives that was common with all participants was monetary rewards and that it was individual-based. Individual-based incentive scheme rewards teachers on the basis of how they increase students' achievement (Holmstrom & Milgrom, 1991). Literature indicates that there is a shift from individual-based to group-based incentive scheme (Kandori, 1992; Prendergrast, 1999). They see value in

group work as it has the potential to monitor, motivate and persuade group members to work hard.

Protecting instructional time is an instructional practice under the dimension of creating a culture conducive to teaching and learning. Literature defines instructional time as time allocated for the core business of teaching and learning (Behar-Horenstein *et al.*, 2006). In his definition of instructional time, Lavy (2015) stresses that it does not include teacher meetings, lunch breaks, tea breaks, time for marking registers and co-curriculum.

Findings from the study established that participants had a good understanding of instructional time (Ayodele, 2014). P1 described instructional time as “... *time we spend teaching students*”. P2 had this to say, “... *instructional time is time taken teaching students ... in my case here our periods are 0040h ...*” On the other hand, P3 said instructional time is time “... *when teachers and students do the core business ...*” The above views of instructional time are captured by Behar-Horenstein *et al.*, (2006) when they define it as time allocated for the core purpose of learning.

Locally and internationally, loss of instructional time is a perennial problem for many schools. Literature attributes loss of instructional time to lesson change-over, break and lunch periods (Partin, 1987), non-instructional activities (Boyer, 1983), unanticipated visits by parents, guardians, learners and other stakeholders (Valley & Busher, 1999) and announcements, answering calls and learner call-outs (2005).

Findings of this study confirmed that loss of instructional time is caused principally through lesson change over, extension of break and lunch times, unanticipated visits by parents, learner call-outs, and teachers going out to

answer cellular phones (Boyer, 1983; France, 2005; Partin, 1987; Valley & Busher, 1999;). P1 confirmed that instructional time was lost due to “... *staff meetings, assemblies, staff briefings and lesson change-over*”. P2, a deputy principal at a boarding school explained “... *we lose instructional time during break and lunch times, visits by parents during lessons*”. In addition, he explained that the bursar may call students to attend to issues related to fees. P3 said “... *teachers call students to the staff room*”.

Literature identifies a number of strategies to protect instructional time (Hebar-Horenstein *et al.*, 2006; Zarlengo, 1998). Findings of the study confirm that participants used a number of strategies to safeguard instructional time that included strictly monitoring lesson change-over, putting notices that do not allow learners in the staffroom, putting notices that learners can only be seen during break and lunch breaks, sending letters to parents advising them of the visit day, insisting on short staff meetings and assemblies. The strategies employed by participants are supported by literature (Zarlengo, 1998). A strategy that protects erosion of instructional time that is missing from the list of participants is block scheduling (Biesinger *et al.*, 2008; Kennedy, 2003; Raines, 2010). One advantage of block scheduling is that it allows fewer classes each day for longer periods of time (Queen, 2000). Slate & Jones (2000) support block scheduling when they argue that in a normal nine-period day, teachers are expected to prepare for nine subjects, consequently, they may do it perfunctorily. Condemning traditional scheduling, Kennedy (2003) argues that learners prepare for more subjects that can have adverse impact on their learning particularly homework that teachers would cursorily mark in order to accommodate written work for seven or more classes on a given evening rather than four.

Locally and globally, literature reveals that instructional leaders can fully participate in school activities by being visible (Cotton, 2003; Hattie, 2014; Whitaker, 2012). Literature also argues that one way of demonstrating visibility is conducting walkthroughs (Fisher, 2013). Walkthroughs draw the principal out of his or her office to have a hands-on experience of what is happening in the school. Existing literature reveals that the crucial place for instructional leaders is not his or her office but the classroom and sports grounds (Whitaker, 2012). Deputy principals are instructional leaders (Hallinger, 2015). Deputy Principals can conduct Management by Wandering Around (MBWA). The philosophy behind MBWA is that instructional leaders should spend almost 50% of their time out of their offices connecting themselves with the activities of the school. Walkthroughs are a component of MBWA (Buckner, 2008). Literature states that walkthroughs are an instructional practice that engages teachers and account for instructional leaders' visibility (Fisher, 2013). Walkthroughs are also known as "informal observations, pop-ins, walk-ins, or drop-ins" (Zepeda, 2005, p. 18). Other terms include "learning walks, instructional walks, focus walks, walkabouts, data walks, quick visits and rounds (Kachur *et al.*, 2010, p. 1). Cerrone & Martinez (2007) recommend 3-5-minute classroom visit as walkthrough looking for how things are happening.

Findings confirm that the participants' understanding of walkthroughs differ from literature (Garza *et al.*, 2016) who maintain that the essence of walkthrough is to collect data on classroom activities that will improve instructional practice. When asked her understanding of walkthrough P1 indicated that it refers to situations "... *when the principal and deputy*

principal walk around the school checking papers and that there is no unnecessary movement by students ...”

P2 responded to the same question by arguing that “... *when the principal and the deputy move around the school checking that there is order ...”*

Asked the same question, P3 indicated that “... *walking outside just to have a feel of the school.*” The crucial thing in walkthroughs is data collection that will aid decision-making. Data obtained from walkthroughs empower deputy principals to make decisions on teaching and learning (Fisher, 2013). Literature argues that walkthroughs capacitate deputy principals (Moss & Brookhart, 2013). When principals and deputy principals walk round the school checking order there seems to be no collection of data that will improve instruction.

Findings from the study revealed that participants, outside teaching, spent much of their time in their offices attending to teachers, learners, support staff and visitors. P1 said, “... *much of my time is spent in the office ...”* The view is shared by P2 who said “... *I spend much of my time in the office doing my other duties*”. P3 who also shared the same sentiments had this to say “... *much of my time is spent in the office*”. The views from the participants contradict Whitaker (2012) who contends that the most important part of the school for the deputy principal is not the office but the classroom. Participants can only be engrossed in the school system when they participate in its activities (Nice, 1983).

The participants’ perception of walkthroughs needs to be reshaped for them to appreciate the benefits of walkthroughs. A collective approach to walkthroughs seems to be gathering momentum as it is consistent with the

distributed leadership construct (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Jita, 2010). The principal, deputy principal, mentors and teachers can be part of the walkthrough team (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Downey *et al.* (2004) recommend the Downey Walkthrough Model for conducting a walkthrough.

Locally and internationally, literature shows the importance of building a culture of reading in the school. One of the instructional leadership practices of deputy principals is to promote the culture of reading in the school. Literature summarises the meaning of reading culture by regarding it as a culture that views reading as a hobby and study as part of individual growth (Otiike, 2012). A reading culture is important to a school since academic achievement cannot be realised without a culture of sustained reading (Ruteransa, 2002). Loh *et al.* (2017) view the library as a facility that assists creating a reading culture. Rosenberg (2008) demonstrates the importance of a library when he states that, what learners learn in class is further reinforced through extensive reading in the library. Literature argues that the low levels of reading proficiency in Nigeria could be attributed to lack of serious funding of libraries (Eyo, 2007).

Findings established that a reading culture prevailed in the schools deputised by the participants. Participants confirmed the availability of a library in the school. P1 agreed to the existence of a reading culture by indicating that the school had a library and that each class had a library period, she said “... *let me start by telling you that we have a library in the school ... each class has a library period once per week*”. P2 agreed to having a reading culture “... *we have two blocks as library ... we have books for general knowledge ... besides, we have departmental libraries*”. P3 confirmed the existence of a reading culture. He indicated that, “... *we have*

a library in the school ... our lending records show that many students borrow books”.

When students make a habit of reading books and other sources that are not necessarily part of the syllabi, they are said to have created a reading culture (Gbabadamosi, 2007). Evidence from the study does indicate that students have library periods.

Evidence from the study does show that participants have helped to develop a reading culture in a variety of ways. Programmes of promoting a reading culture included students accessing the library, having a library time table, guidance reading, drama, displays and teacher-librarian. These programmes may be widened to encompass quiz, debates, exhibitions and storytelling to help create a strong and sustained reading culture. Literature justifies the inclusion of the above reading programmes when they say quiz, debates story-telling demand extensive reading on the part of the learner (Hayashi, 1999). McMaster (1988) argues that successful story-telling is a culmination of extensive reading. Exhibitions have the effect of creating awareness of the books that are available in the library (Verlade, 2001).

Literature stresses that professional development is an instructional practice for deputy principals (Hallinger & Murphy, 1982). Leithwood and Seashore-Louis (2012) argue that instructional leadership is second to teaching in determining students' achievement. This has left instructional leadership in a quandary in search of the best practices that increase students' achievement. Locally and internationally, literature views professional development as a practice that can sharpen teacher competencies to increase students' achievement. In Zimbabwe, vacancy Circular No. 3 of

2010, states that deputy principals have an obligation to arrange professional development of teachers in order to improve their teaching. Literature identifies seven types of professional development (Mitchell, 2013). These are courses and workshops, seminars, qualification programmes, visit to other schools, professional learning communities and researches.

Findings from the study indicate that participants were engaged in a variety of activities to develop teachers. The activities included seminars, workshops, visit to a school, individual research and networked with teachers. On networking of teachers, P1 said, “... *we have formed a network of teachers ... through WhatsApp ... we invite teachers to staff meetings through the platform ...*” with regards to social networking, P2 said, “... *I have initiated a social media group where I am the administrator ... we discuss problems we face in our teaching*”. The networking of teachers referred by P1 and P2 is akin to professional development communities. Scholars consulted view professional learning communities as a type of professional development (Jones *et al.*, 2013). In a professional community, teachers are expected to share teaching methods and work collectively towards students’ achievement (Schmoker, 2011). The platform created by participants, P1 and P2 was mainly to advance social activities which may contradict the spirit of professional learning communities.

The research established that P3 led a team to visit a school. The school had distinguished itself in both ‘O’ and ‘A’ Level 2016 ZIMSEC results. P2 confirmed that he did not have pre-set questions for the host school. Literature suggests pre-set questions that can be asked when a school visits another for the purpose of professional development. Armed with such pre-

set questions, the participant was likely to find the visit very enriching for professional development.

5.4.3. Challenges Faced by Deputy Principals in Enacting Instructional Leadership Role

The theme has two sub-themes namely, role ambiguity and the disposition of the principal. Literature reveals that deputy principals perform many duties. Some of the duties identified are attending to discipline of students, clerical work, supervising support staff, managerial functions (Burchfield, 2015; Bush *et al.*, 2012; Celik, 2013; Cranston, 2016; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). This research confirmed that participants performed many duties which compromise their instructional leadership role. P1 listed her duties as, acting in the capacity of the principal when she is away, chairing academic, housing, and disciplinary committees. She confirmed that she supervised 596 students and 33 teachers. She also pointed out that she was teaching twenty-periods of History to the Form Four, Five and Six classes. P2 said “... *let me start by telling you that ours is a boarding school ... our enrolment is 1060 learners, 45 teachers and 26 support staff ... I have duties at the school and at the hostels ...*” P2 also explained that he would assume the duty of the principal when he is away. P3’s duties did differ from P2 when it came to boarding duties otherwise he performed almost the same duties as P2 and P1.

In addition to performing many duties, literature pointed out that the duties of deputy principals are ill-defined (Marshall & Hooley, 2006). Glanz (1994) described deputy principals as jack-of-all-trades. Findings from the study

confirmed that deputy principals yearned for well-defined duties. They suggested streamlining of their duties shedding off non-instructional role. P2 went further to suggest having two deputy principals at boarding schools; one in charge of operations and the other instructional role.

Literature is consistent that the duties of deputy principals are not ubiquitous. They depend on the disposition of the deputy principal (Retelle, 2010). Findings confirm that duties of deputy principals depend on the principal one works under. P1 confirmed this when she said, “... *what we do here could be different from the next deputy principal ...*” P2 said “... *my duties depend with the principal ...*” Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Director’s Circular No. 15 of 2006 lists the duties of the deputy principal but, on the ground they are not strictly followed.

Literature recognises the instructional leadership role of deputy principals can be improved (Cranston, 2016; Burchfield, 2015). The study established that while deputy principals were generally happy with their role, they felt more could be done to improve their instructional leadership role. P1 felt the role could be improved. P2 said, “... *I perform my role effectively but there is room for improvement*”. P3 said, “... *I perform my duties ... non-instructional should be removed*”. To safeguard the interests of the deputy principal, literature suggests they should be unionised (South Wales Deputy Principals’ Association, 2014).

5.4.4. How Deputy Principals’ Practices can be Understood and/or Explained

Deputy principals are second to the principal on the school’s organisational chart. They are instructional leaders. Findings on the role of deputy principals

with instructional leadership should be conceived against the background of the theory of symbolic interactionism as they interact with various stakeholders when they enact their instructional leadership role. Deputy principals enacted interactionism, a theory that asserts that people living in a society develop meaning of the world around them through the process of interaction. Meanings derived are socially constructed and adopted as the *modus operandi*.

Literature highlights models of instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Leithwood & Seashore- Louis, 2012; Lunenburg, 2010). Instructional leadership practices are generally classified into three dimensions (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). These are defining the mission, managing teaching and learning and creating and sustaining an enabling school environment.

Findings of the study are based on evidence as provided in chapter 4. The study investigated the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Findings of this study established that deputy principals did enact instructional leadership roles. They defined the vision of the school, supervised lessons, monitored students' progress, modelled good teaching behaviour, conducted action research, incentivised teachers, protected teaching time, were visible at the school, built a culture of reading in the school and conducted professional development. Despite their enactment of the instructional leadership role, it is the efficacy that draws the attention of this study. Participants did not correlate their practices with literature. For example, in the instructional practice of protecting instructional time, findings and literature confirm that erosion of instructional time is a perennial problem

for all schools yet the strategies employed by participants seemed to fail to combat erosion of instructional time (see section 4.3.3.1.2). Biesinger, Crippen & Muis (2008) argue that block scheduling promises to be a measure that will go a long way in addressing the problem of loss of instructional time. Deputy principals should initiate introduction of block scheduling as a strategy to mitigate loss of instructional time.

With regards to paying incentives to teachers, findings were that deputy principals provided incentives to motivate teachers. For instance, P1 indicated that teachers who produced best results at both 'O' and 'A' Levels were given financial rewards by the SDC (see section 4.3.3.1.1). Literature argues that incentives motivate teachers intrinsically and extrinsically Stringer, Ballou, Halmilton, Le, Lockwood, MacCaffey, Pepper & Stecher (2010). The study established that all participants used individual-based method of paying incentives. Literature, however, tends to support group-based incentive payment. Deputy principals need to engage and interact with the SDCs to convince them to embrace the group-based method of paying incentives.

In as far as supporting teaching and learning is concerned, findings were that all participants supported teaching and learning by supervising teachers (see section 4.3.2.1). The evidence shows that participants supervised different categories of teachers. For example, P1 supervised Heads of Departments, P2 supervised senior teachers and P3 supervised junior teachers. What can be seen from the evidence on supervision and to which participants concurred is absence of a policy that guides who deputy principals should supervise and how many times per term. The absence of such a circular

restricts the interactive pattern of deputy principals with the teachers. This leaves deputy principals with discretion on who to supervise.

Findings from the study on managing teaching and learning also showed that deputy principals supervised teachers using a stand-alone supervision protocol. The protocol contained basically similar headings that were teacher-centred, for example, planning and preparation, teaching procedure, media preparation, classroom management and suggestions and recommendations. The stand-alone protocol is at variance with literature which advocates for collaboration between the deputy principal and the teacher through conferences before and after lesson delivery. The conferences help teachers build confidence and improve instruction.

The study contributes significantly to building a culture of reading in the school. Academic achievement may be difficult to realise without a sustained culture of reading. What learners learn in class is further reinforced through extensive reading. There was evidence that each of the participant's school had a library and that the participants supervised the librarian and all library activities. The study revealed comprehensive reading programmes that included books, talks, exhibitions, quiz, storytelling, debate and drama. Quiz, storytelling, debate and drama in the context of reading culture, demand reading on the part of the learner. This study proposes the introduction of the above programmes in the context of building a reading culture in schools.

The study opened an avenue for deputy principals to express their views regarding their role and experiences with instructional leadership. The views they expressed and the experiences they shared helped unpack and unravel the construct of distributed leadership and its contribution to instructional

leadership. Distributed leadership in the school depicts interactionism in place.

During the interviews, all participants bemoaned lack of universal job description leading each deputy principal to enact the instructional leadership role contingency upon their principal. This development not only shows the nature of interactions that take place between the principal and the deputy principal but also the Ministry of Primary and Secondary and deputy principals.

The key contribution of this study is the reconfiguration of the role of deputy principals with instructional leadership to enhance teaching and learning that impact student achievement.

5.4.5. Conclusions

The institution of deputy principal in Zimbabwe has gained resurgence in the face of educational reform like the 'Updated Curriculum'. There seems to be a paradigm shift from the concept of super-hero leader of the principal to a distributed leadership which encompasses the deputy principal. On the school organisational chart, deputy principals are second to the principals. They occupy a critical position in the school. There is dearth of information on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. Extant literature on instructional leadership focuses on the principal. Deputy principals are often regarded as forgotten men and women.

The study aimed at exploring the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership and, on the basis of the findings, sub-research questions and related literature review, the following conclusions can be adduced.

The study concludes that deputy principals are instructional leaders who play a critical role towards teaching and learning and overall, students' achievement. Accountability reforms in education demand distributed leadership. The traditional super-hero principal is not consistent with the construct of distributed leadership.

Deputy principals assist principals define the vision of the school. Everything in the school revolves around the vision statement. The study established that deputy principals are integral in visioning the school. Visioning of the school includes defining the mission, goals and core values.

The study concludes that deputy principals are very critical in managing teaching and learning. Given that the principal often attends meetings away from school, the deputy principal coordinates all school instructional activities like supervision of lessons, monitoring students' progress and modelling good teaching behaviours. The activities are the heart of instructional activities.

Deputy principals monitor instructional time. Loss of instructional time has serious implications on teaching and learning. This study concludes that deputy principals protect instructional time. Notwithstanding the challenges they face in their instructional leadership role, deputy principals play a significant role in providing instructional leadership in schools.

5.4.6. Limitations of the Study

This study may stimulate further research; consequently, the limitations section provides possible areas of improvement in related future studies.

The study adopted a qualitative approach and a case study design with its inherent weaknesses. Issues of generalisability come to the fore. This study was exclusive to three deputy principals of one district. Related studies in other districts or provinces may produce similar or unique findings. Soliciting the views of principals and teachers in a study of this nature may bring out similar or different findings.

The study on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership may need to be replicated using the quantitative research approach which allows for larger samples to make generalisations to wider populations easy. Moreover, the quantitative approach allows for statistical computations that give credence to validity and reliability to the study.

A six-month period of data gathering for the study of the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership may have restricted the research to fewer participants of which an extended period may be able to compensate. However, the trustworthiness of the findings may not rely on the number of participants and that the experiences of the three participants may not be negated because of their fewness.

5.4.7. Contributions of the Study

Despite the limitations of the study outlined in the previous section, I am convinced that this study is an instalment to scholarship on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. There is paucity of information on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership. The area of the instructional leadership role of deputy principal is largely unexplored and may have a lot of issues that may impact teaching with instructional leadership, an area largely unexplored.

Much literature in Zimbabwe and globally, focuses on the role of the principal with instructional leadership and this research partly makes up for the dearth of literature.

This study intends to inform Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education about the challenges deputy principals face in enacting the instructional leadership role. While participants agreed that they enacted instructional leadership role, they bemoaned role ambiguity and lack of a universal job description. The study discovered that deputy principals have a myriad of duties that, in some cases, compromise their instructional leadership role.

On a personal note, this study contributed a lot to me as a budding researcher on the instructional leadership role of the deputy principal. I had personal contact with my supervisor, post- doctoral fellows, PhD colleagues and deputy principals. This has led to my growth and development first at a personal level and secondly as a researcher. I am growing in the field of research and with this experience, will never be the same again.

5.4.8. Recommendations for Practice and Policy

Basing on the above findings and conclusions, the study proffers the following recommendations to enhance the present conduct of instructional leadership in schools in Zimbabwe.

5.4.8.1. Recommendations for practice

It is important for deputy principals to adopt a collective approach to vision development. All stakeholders need to be mobilised in vision development to secure their commitment to it. The study established that vision development in schools is the prerogative of the school administration.

In order to effectively manage the role of lesson observation, deputy principals should develop observation protocols that are learner-centred than teacher-centred. The observation protocol should encompass pre- and post-observation conferences in order to focus on the development of the teacher. The study established that deputy principals used stand-alone observation protocols that focused mainly on the teacher.

It is important for deputy principals to complement formative and summative assessments with continuous assessments in all learning areas of the curriculum. Probing themes that emerged, findings revealed that continuous assessments apply to practical subjects like Agriculture and Fashion and Fabrics only. Continuous assessments advance the practice of assessing the mastery of learners through the completion of tasks where learners apply knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired during teaching and learning and therefore, it is recommended for all learning areas.

There is need to embrace scaffolding as a technique of modelling good teaching behaviours. The study established that deputy principals modelled child-centred and task and performance only. Unlike child-centred and task and performance modelling, scaffolding offers opportunities for observation and growth for the teachers.

In order to protect instructional time, deputy principals should explore other techniques like block scheduling. The study established that a great deal of teaching time is lost due to factors that include students' callout, change-over of lessons, assemblies and external encroachments. The study also established that deputy principals have introduced measures like keeping assemblies short, monitoring change-over of lessons and attending to all

external encroachments. The activities have failed to deal decisively with the erosion of instructional time. Block scheduling allows fewer classes each day for longer periods of time offsetting erosion of instructional time due to movements.

To develop and sustain a culture of reading, deputy principals should incorporate programmes like storytelling, debates, exhibitions and inviting authors to the school to develop a sustained reading culture. Drawing from themes, findings showed that deputy principals restricted themselves to activities like timetabling of the library period and having a teacher-librarian. In addition to individual-based incentives, deputy principals should consider group-based incentives. Teaching is teamwork. Group-based incentives have the potential to monitor, motivate and persuade group members to work hard.

5.4.8.2. Recommendations for policy

It is strongly recommended that a policy that defines the instructional leadership role of deputy principals be put in place. One of the challenges constantly faced by deputy principals is role ambiguity. The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education should issue a policy circular that outlines the key result areas for deputy principals so that at the end of the performance year, they will be assessed against the key result areas.

I recommend that the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education enact a policy that allows the formation of an association for deputy principals. This would be a platform where they coordinate activities and share practice to help in the professional growth of its members.

The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education should consider appointing two deputy principals for boarding schools, one for operations and the other for instructional leadership. The study established that deputy principals at boarding schools have more responsibilities.

5.4.8.3. Recommendations for further study

This study was carried out in one district of Zimbabwe. Further studies may spread it to other districts to have a holistic picture of the instructional leadership role and experiences of deputy principals. Districts may have different approaches to the enactment of instructional leadership by deputy principals.

The study calls for further research on the role of deputy principals in promoting professional learning communities in the professional development of teachers.

Instructional leadership for the deputy principal is informed by the distributed leadership paradigm, the study recommends that further research be conducted to establish the role of the principal in supporting the deputy principal in enacting the instructional leadership role. The deputy principal is accountable to the principal, the nature of involvement in promoting instructional leadership needs to be explored.

5.5. FINAL REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY

Having satisfied my research questions, I now consider my final reflections on the role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership.

In the face of increasing accountability and educational reform, the role of deputy principals has become more visible than ever before and should be the clarion call in the realm of education since they enact the instructional leadership role. Deputy principals are integral to teaching and learning and overall students' achievement. While conducting the study, it was evident that deputy principals enacted the instructional leadership role despite mired role ambiguity and many duties. However, I feel they can be more effective if the policy environment defines their instructional leadership key result areas to combat role ambiguity and facilitate measurement of performance at the end of a performance cycle.

The study opened new horizons for me, a budding researcher by strengthening my research writing skills as I interacted with various people including my supervisor, participants and reviewers. The reading of articles and journals reinvigorated my desire to pursue this academic journey.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Ethical Clearance

APPENDIX 9: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



Faculty of Education

25-Aug-2016

Dear Mr Norman Chitamba

Ethics Clearance: **The role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe.**

Principal Investigator: Mr Norman Chitamba

Department: *School of Education Studies (Bloemfontein Campus)*

APPLICATION APPROVED

With reference to your application for ethical clearance with the Faculty of Education, I am pleased to inform you on behalf of the Ethics Board of the faculty that you have been granted ethical clearance for your research.

Your ethical clearance number, to be used in all correspondence is: **UFS-HSD2016/0599**

This ethical clearance number is valid for research conducted for one year from issuance. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension.

We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure we are kept up to date with your progress and any ethical implications that may arise.

Thank you for submitting this proposal for ethical clearance and we wish you every success with your research.

Yours faithfully

Dr. Juliet Ramohai
Chairperson: Ethics Committee

APPENDIX 2. Permission from the Ministry

APPENDIX 10: PERMISSION FROM MINISTRY OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

All communications should be addressed to "The Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 734051/59 and 734071
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax: 734075



Reference: C/426/3 Masvingo

Ministry of Primary and
Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
Harare

12 September 2016

Norman Chitamba
Gutu High School
Bag 901
Gutu

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research in the above mentioned schools in Masvingo Province on the research title:

"THE ROLE AND EXPERIENCES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS WITH INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ZIMBABWE"

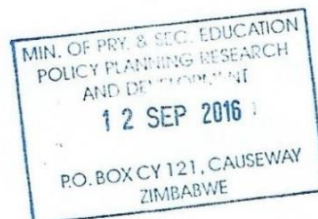
Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Masvingo Province, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research.

You are required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education by December 2016.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'E Chinyowa'.

E Chinyowa
Acting Director: Policy Planning, Research and Development
For: **SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**

cc: Masvingo Province



APPENDIX 3. Permission from the Provincial Education Director

APPENDIX 11: PERMISSION FROM THE PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR

ALL communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 263585/264331
Fax: 039-263261



Ref: C/426/3

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P. O Box 89
Masvingo

23 September 2016

Norman Chitamba
Gutu High School
Bag 901
Gutu

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT THE 175 SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN GUTU, MASVINGO AND ZAKA DISTRICTS: GUTU, MASVINGO AND ZAKA DISTRICT: MASVINGO PROVINCE

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the above mentioned schools in Gutu, Masvingo and Zaka Districts on the research title:

"THE ROLE AND EXPERIENCES OF DEPUTY PRINCIPALS WITH INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN ZIMBABWE"

Please be advised that the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education has granted permission to carry out your research.

You are also advised to liaise with the District Education Officer who is responsible for the schools which are part of the sample for your research.

MINISTRY OF PRIMARY & SECONDARY EDUCATION
PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
MASVINGO
Z. M. Chitiga
23 SEP 2016
P.O. BOX 89, MASVINGO
ZIMBABWE
TEL : 039 - 264331
FAX : 039 - 263261
Z. M. Chitiga
Provincial Education Director
MASVINGO PROVINCE

APPENDIX 4. Interview Protocol Phase 1.

The role and experiences of deputy principals with instructional leadership in Zimbabwe.

1) Can you tell me your background?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) How long have you been deputising?
- b) How many schools have you deputised?
- c) Are the duties the same?

2) What is your contribution towards the formulation of the schools' vision statement?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) Does the school have a vision statement?
- b) How have helped market the vision of the school?

3) As deputy principal of the school, what is your role in coordinating and monitoring the school curriculum?

Possible follow- questions.

- a) What challenges do you face in that role?
- b) How do you want the challenges solved?

4) Do you supervise lessons for teachers?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) How often do you supervise?
- b) How do you give feedback?
- c) What follow-up activities do you do after lesson supervision?

5) What records for teachers do you inspect?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) Why do you inspect these records?
 - b) What is the importance of the records you inspect?
- 6) What do you understand professional development?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) What activities or programmes have you undertaken as part of professional development of teachers?
 - b) How have you implemented these programmes?
- 7) How do you communicate to teachers about their responsibility for students' achievement?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) Do you chair staff meetings?
 - b) Do send memos or circulars to teachers?
- 8) Do you take part in procurement of instructional resources?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) How do you get instructional needs from teachers?
 - b) How supportive is your principals towards procurement of instructional resource?
 - c) What challenges if any, do you face in meeting the instructional needs of the teachers?
- 9) How far as deputy principal have you gone towards creating an enabling working climate for teachers and ultimately student achievement?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) What is your own initiative with regards to this climate?
- b) Is the principal supportive?
- c) What are the challenges and possible solutions?

10) What are your main challenges in your discharge of instructional leadership role?

Possible follow-up questions.

a) In what way do these challenges affect your instructional leadership role?

b) How do you want these addressed?

Should there be any need for further engagement with regards to this interview, I will either phone you or call again.

..... **Thank you for participating**.....

APPENDIX 5. Interview Protocol Phase 2.

Greetings and appreciation of responses from phase one interview.

- 1) What is your contribution in the formulation of the mission statement of the school?

Possible follow-up questions

- a) How have contributed towards its formulation?
 - b) If you do not contribute, who formulates the statement?
 - c) If you do not contribute, do you see your role in its formulation?
- 2) Do you chair the school's academic committee?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) How many members compose the committee?
- b) What issues do you discuss?
- c) How does that promote teaching and learning?
- d) If you do not chair, who chairs then?
- e) If you do not chair do you see yourself as deputy principal having a role to play?

- 3) What is action research?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) How have you conducted action research in the school?
 - b) How have you supported action research efforts in the school?
 - c) What benefits of action research do you see in your teachers?
- 4) Do you address school assemblies?

Possible follow-up questions.

- a) How often do you address assembly?
- b) How often do you address?

c) If you do not address, how do you communicate with all learners in the school?

5) Do you inspect learners' exercise books?

Possible follow-up questions.

a) How often do you inspect?

b) What do you look for in learners' exercise books?

c) How do you communicate with the teachers about your observations during inspection?

APPENDIX 6. Interview Protocol Phase 3.

Exchange of greetings and explaining the importance of the interview

1) What are the core values of the school?

Possible follow-up question.

a) Who formulates the core values?

b) How does the school come up with these values?

2) How do you monitor student progress in the school?

Possible follow-up question.

a) How have you conducted continuous assessment?

b) What is your role in students' monitoring progress?

3) How do you know the learners' results in respect of the tests they write?

Possible follow-up questions.

a) What do you do to best performers in the tests?

b) What do you do to worst performers in the tests?

4) When do you consult the principal in the execution of your duties?

5) Apart from teaching in the classroom, where else do you spend a greater part of your time?

Possible follow-up question.

a) What is your understanding of walkthrough?

b) How have conducted walkthroughs at your school?

c) What has been the value of these walkthroughs to your teachers and learners?

6) What is the basis of your duties?

Possible follow-up question.

- a) Are the duties you perform consistent with the provisions of circulars?
- 7) How do you want your role configured in order to enhance teaching and learning?

APPENDIX 7. Interview Protocol Phase 4.

Exchange of greetings and stating that this is the last interview

1) Do you hold consultation days in the school?

Possible follow- up questions

a) How often do you hold these consultations?

b) What role do you play before, during and after consultation?

2) Why do you hold prize giving day in the school?

Possible follow-up questions.

a) What is your role before, during and after the prize giving day?

3) How have you demonstrated a role model that teachers would improve their instructional practices?

Possible follow-up questions.

a) What values do you possess that teachers would regard you as a role model?

b) What teaching practices are you modelling that teachers benefit?

4) Do you have a reading culture in the school?

Possible follow-up questions.

a) Can you please explain what it is?

b) How have you helped develop a reading culture in the school?

5) What do you understand by instructional time?

Possible follow-up questions

a) What activities erode instructional time in the school?

b) How have safeguarded instructional time?

6) What type of incentives do you give to your teachers?

Possible follow-up question.

a) How do you administer the scheme?

Thank you for your cooperation.

APPENDIX 8. Observation Protocol

DIMENSION	WHAT TO OBSERVE
a) Supervision	<p>What is supervised and how it is done?</p> <p>Lessons for teachers</p> <p>Administration of tests</p> <p>Scheme books</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Attendance registers for teachers -Exercise book inspections -Minutes of departmental meetings -Action research -Reports of lesson observations -Reports of demonstration lessons -Attendance registers for learners -Remedial and extension records -Demonstration lessons
b) Visioning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Vision and mission statements -Communicating the goals -Staff meetings - Assemblies -School parents assemblies
c) Creating school culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Reward system -Presence in the school -Encouragement of high performance -Staff development programme -The library

..... Thank you for participating.....

APPENDIX 9. Document Analysis Protocol

AREA	DOCUMENTS SEEN
Instructional leadership roles	Mission statements, vision statements, core values, supervision reports, school reports scheme-cum-plans
Experiences of the instructional leadership	School development committee minutes, school development payment schedule, letter advising parents of visiting day, internal memo, pictures of learners in the library, picture of learners dramatizing, continuous assessment framework

Document analysis was informed by the following questions:

1. What is your contribution in the formulation of the vision of the school?
2. What is your role in marketing the school vision?
3. Do you carryout lesson observations?
4. How have you monitored students' progress?
5. Which teachers' records do you supervise?
6. What is your role in paying incentives for teachers?
7. Are your incentives monetary or non-monetary?
8. What interventions have you initiated to combat erosion of instructional time?
9. What is your role in creating and sustaining a reading culture in the school?