LEADERSHIP ROLES OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS IN TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

By

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BLOEMFONTEIN

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

November, 2022.

Supervisor: Dr. SD Makhasane

Declaration

I, Oluwasola Babatunde Sasere, declare that the thesis submitted for the qualification of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of the Free State is my own independent work. All the references that I have used have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I further declare that this work has not previously been submitted by me at another university or faculty for the purpose of obtaining a qualification.

7th November 2022

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Signed Date

Ethics Statement

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30-Nov-2020

Dear Mr Oluwasola Sasere

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Ethical Clearance number:
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We are pleased to inform you that your application for ethical clearance has been approved. Your ethical clearance is valid for twelve (12) months from the date of issue. We request that any changes that may take place during the course of your study/research project be submitted to the ethics office to ensure ethical transparency. furthermore, you are requested to submit the final report of your study/research project to the ethics office. Should you require more time to complete this research, please apply for an extension. Thank you for submitting your proposal for ethical clearance; we wish you the best of luck and success with your research.

Yours sincerely

Dr Adri Du Plessis
Chairperson: General/Human Research Ethics Committee

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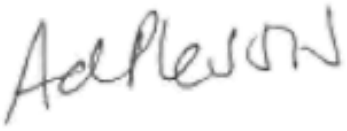

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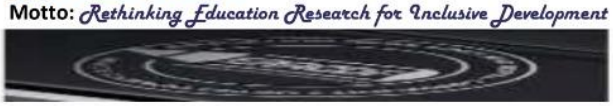

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Abstract

There is a growing body of knowledge that focuses on effective teacher professional development (TPD) with a consensus that skews in favour of decentralised, school-based and teacher-centred approach to TPD as opposed to the centralised, traditional and top-down approach. On the contrary, developing countries such as Nigeria still practise a centralised education system where traditional top-down TPD remains the norm with the attendant consequence of professionally-deficient teachers in the classroom. This situation has left a lacuna vis a vis the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher development. Hence, the study investigated the leadership roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development in Nigeria.

The study was a qualitative multiple-case study research informed by interpretivist paradigm. The study was lensed with two complementary theories, namely, Distributed Leadership Theory (DLT) and adult learning theory (ALT). Three schools were selected using a combination of purposive and snowball techniques was used to select four participants from each school. The participants comprised one school administrator and three teachers in each school, totalling twelve participants. The main data-generating instrument was a semi-structured interview supported by document analysis. The data was analysed using thematic analysis (TA).

The findings showed that school leadership was perceived as a delegation of responsibilities by super-ordinate to sub-ordinate. It was also discovered that participants' perception of TPD is limited to the traditional centralised models. School administrators' support for TPD was also discovered to be limited by policy. The result further indicated that the Ministry of Education was responsible for TPD. Unfortunately, such training does not cater to teachers' professional needs. The study proposed a data-informed model for the execution of school-based TPD. Recommendations were made based on the findings.

Keywords: Adult learning theory, distributed leadership, school administrators' roles, school-based teacher professional development, professional development

Dedication

This research work is dedicated to;

The Lord Most High - the Beginning and the Ending for seeing me through the ups and downs in this journey as well as proving to me that with Him all things are possible.

My late paternal grandmother, who despite being an illiterate laid solid foundation for my education.

My parents Mr. and Mrs. Sasere for their selfless sacrifices to ensure that I actualise God's mandate upon my life.

My children, Oluwatosin, Oluwadarasimi and Iyanuoluwa for sacrificing my warmth, cuddling and close attention when they needed me most.

My dear wife, Mercy Aderonke, who not minding the vacuum my absence in the family would create, endured a three-year "*husband sabbatical"*, all to prove to me that my progress is what matter.

May God bless you all.

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I am appreciative of all the participants who willingly volunteered to share their insights on the subject matter of this study which culminated in the findings.

I'm indeed grateful to my parents who were instrumental to my existence and well-being. I thank them for their contributions towards my education. My you live long to reap the fruit of your labour over me.

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My unreserved appreciation goes to my dear wife, Mercy Aderonke, my supporter, and my best friend. You stood by me all through the weather. You took the risk of being single again (with kids) for a space of three years combining my parenting responsibilities with yours. I pray that God will bless you and empower me to take good care of you. I love you *Ronky*!

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I acknowledge the moral support of my siblings- Mayowa, Deji and Tosin. Also, I say thank you to my colleagues, Mr Matthew Omojemite and Mr. Akin Onaolapo, your companionship during my study saved me from loneliness. I appreciate the good gestures of Mr and Mrs Adebola for their support and care. God bless you all.

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To the entire staff of Faculty of Education, Qwaqwa campus, University of the Free State, South Africa, especially, the Assistant Dean - Dr. Cias Tsotetsi and Professor M. Dube. I say thank you and God bless.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ALT	Adult Learning Theory
AU	African Union
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
B.Ed	Bachelor of Education
CTPD	Continuous Teacher Professional Development
DLT	Distributed Leadership Theory
EFA	Education for All
FCT	Federal Capital Territory
FGC	Federal Government College
FME	Federal Ministry of Education
GAETS	General Administration for Educational Training and Scholarships
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
INSET	In-Service Training
IPDs	International Development Partners
JAISCE	Junior Arabic and Islamic Studies Certificate Examination
JSS	Junior Secondary School
KADSUBEB	Kaduna Universal Basic Education Board
MOE	Ministry of Education
NCE	Nation Certificate of Education
NECO	National Examination Council
NIEPA	National institute of Education Planning and Administration
NPE	National Policy on Education
NTI	National Teacher Institute
NTRC	Nigeria Teacher Registration Council
PDA	Policy Documents Analysis
PLC	Professional Learning Community
PTTE	Presidential Task Team on Education
SBMC	School Based Management Committee
SBTPD	School-Based Teacher Professional Development

SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SMO	School Management Organisation
SMT	School Management Team
SSS	Senior Secondary School
STPDF	School-Oriented Teacher Professional Development
TA	Thematic Analysis
TDNA	Teachers Development Needs Assessment
TESCOM	Teaching Service Commission
TPD	Teacher Professional Development
U.P.E	Universal Primary Education
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UFS	University of the Free State
WAEC	West African Examination Council

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.0 Introduction

This chapter explored and problematised the lacuna that characterises school administrators' leadership roles in teacher professional development in secondary schools in Nigeria. It also argues in favour of a framework that mitigates the challenges associated with school administrators' support for teacher professional development. Moreso, a preliminary literature review was attempted to establish the study's rationale. Also, the two theories that underpinned the study were exemplified in the chapter; these are distributed leadership theory (DLT) and adult learning theory (ALT). More importantly, the statement of the problem that serves as the rationale for this study was also discussed. Other aspects of the study covered in chapter one include; research questions, research objectives, research design and methodology, research approach, research design, data collection, selection of research participants, data analysis, the value of the proposed research, ethical considerations and trustworthiness

1.2 Background to the Study

In the face of rapid technological advancement that permeates the spectrum of the education system, the quest for quality education driven by qualified and seasoned school administrators and teachers becomes necessary (Avidov-Ungar & Reingold, 2018; Akramov & Muzaffar, 2021; Karakose, Polat & Papadakis, 2021). Suffice it to mention the view that continuous teacher professional development would play pivotal role in the attainment of quality education (Cohen, Spillane & Peurach, 2018: 206; Ajani, 2018:3).

Teacher professional development is essential in the pursuit of international and national imperatives regarding the provision of quality education. In the 21st century, research output from citadels of learning around the world influences every sphere of human endeavour (social, economic and education) at an

unprecedented pace (Ramos, Caeiro, Pires & Videira, 2018:117; UNESCO, 2019; McCowan, 2019). By implication, the development of any nation is a reflection of the dynamics of its education sector because education is a driver of development; no nation can develop beyond its level of educational attainment. (Ajani, 2018:1; Guo, Huang, & Zhang 2019; Agbedahin, 2019). Therefore, the United Nations, in its 17 points Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) agenda, features “Quality Education” as the fourth item. This is otherwise known as SDG4, which further features ten objectives, among which are a supply of quality teachers and life-long learning (UNESCO, 2016; Agbedahin, 2019:8). At the continental level, the United Nations SDG4 finds expression in the African Union (AU) Agenda 2063 for education via its education division with a mission statement that reads; “to contribute towards revitalised, quality, relevant, and harmonized education systems”. Worthy of note is the fact that SDG4 and AU 2063 agenda for education both converged at the provision of quality, relevant and life-long education as well as the supply of well-trained teachers.

In Nigeria, the National Policy on Education 2004 stipulates the national objectives of teacher education. These include providing teachers with the intellectual and professional background adequate for their assignment and making them adaptable to changing conditions as well as enhancing their commitment to the teaching profession (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2004). On the contrary, the reality of teacher professional development in Nigerian secondary schools is far from the intended objectives with the attendant negative impact on students learning outcomes (Ajani, 2018; Ajani, 2019). For over a decade, there has existed a sustained outcry among education stakeholders concerning the decadence in the Nigerian education sector. This decadence repeatedly reflects in poor students' achievement in external examinations such West African Examination Council (WAEC), National Examination Council (NECO), and Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) nosedived (Arikewuyo, 2009; Iyunade, 2017; Francis & Oluwatoyin, 2019:78).

Leadership has been adjudged to be the second indices that contribute to school effectiveness. Unfortunately, the menace of professional deficiency among teachers could also be associated with teachers' lack of professional support from their respective school administrators- the principal, vice-principals and Head of Departments HODs). These individuals are saddled with the responsibilities of planning, organising, leading and implementing educational policies and practices in schools (Omotere & Nwangwa, 2019). It was observed that these administrators are lacking in relation to teachers' professional support in their schools (Adebakin & Iranloye, 2016:23). This is corroborated by Makhasane (2019:82) that school effectiveness is, to a great extent, the function of the school administrators; implying that ill-equipped school administrators cannot support teacher professional development.

In the Nigerian context, the inability of principals to promote teacher professional development in their schools has been attributed to non-well-thought-out criteria for the appointment of school principals. Studies revealed that principalship in many African countries including Nigeria is based on years of experience and political affiliation – a process that is devoid of merit in many cases (Ofoegbu, Clark & Osagie, 2013; UNESCO, 2016:192; Oladipo, Adebakin, & Iranloye, 2016:23); lack of pre-service and in-service training for new and serving principals (Cowie & Crawford, 2007); inability to strike a balance between principal administrative and professional roles, absence of provision for school administrators training in National Policy on Education, and poor school funding among others (Crow, Lumby & Pashiardis, 2008:2-3; Bush, 2018).

This study, therefore, argues that the onus lies on school administrators to influence teachers' professional development through; distributed leadership, learning-centre leadership, instructional supervision, mentoring, coaching, teacher-leadership training, workshops, encouragement of collegiate support and a host of other skills within the purview of their professional experiences (Diamond & Spillane, 2016: 147; Bagwell, 2019:83).

1.3 Rationale for the Study

The level of incompetence of teachers in Nigeria is alarming. My observation shows that higher percentage of teachers are ill-equipped for teaching profession. To make the matter worst, the school administrators whose process of emergence to principalships are not through leadership training render them helpless vis a vis their support towards teachers professional development. Notably, extant literature reveals that a sizeable number of studies have been carried out on teacher professional development in Nigeria. Specifically, many studies correlated teacher attendance in professional development programmes and teachers' efficiency (Althauser, 2015; Gröschner et al., 2018). Also, some studies investigated school administration, while a handful examines leadership in Nigeria. This could be attributed to the over-emphasis placed on school administrators' roles as administrators other than being both administrative and professional leaders. Unfortunately, till the time of this study, there exists a dearth of studies with a focus on the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teacher professional development at the school level. Notwithstanding the enormous resources committed to teacher professional development in Nigeria, its influence on teacher professional development is far from expected. This is not unconnected with the fact that there is a misalignment between the traditional Teacher professional Development (TPD) in vogue and the actual teachers' needs. This study advocates modern TPD characterised by distributed leadership and adult learning principles. It also advances contextualised and school-based TPD that addresses teachers' professional needs within their domain. Given this background, this study aims to explore the realities of the leadership roles of school administrators in providing professional support to the teachers in their schools and ultimately propose a school-based teacher professional development framework suitable for deployment in all schools.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

School administrators are saddled with both administrative and professional development in school system. Their professional responsibilities involves giving

professional support to teachers through activities such as instructional supervision and provision of routine professional development training among others. On the contrary, I observed that this is not the reality in many Nigeria secondary schools. Speculations exist in the public domain that attributes the decline in school efficiency to poor teachers' job performance cum leadership roles of school administrators in Nigeria. Despite the traditional TPD organised by the Ministry of Education (MoE), teachers' professionalism falls below expectations. Notably, school leadership contribute immensely to school effectiveness (Leithwood et al., 2006; Bush, 2021:1); hence the last resort for teacher professional support lies with the school administrators. Unfortunately, the criteria for principalship in Nigeria is the number of years of experience as a classroom teacher (Adebakin, & Iranloye, 2016:230). Therefore, school principals might be deficient in their support for TPD since they were not exposed to the requisite leadership training obtained in developed countries.

From an historical perspective, the challenge of teacher professional incompetency has been a protracted, long-term one that permeates the length and breadth of the Nigerian school system. It is a phenomenon that runs from the north through the southern region of Nigeria. For instance, the outcome of teacher competency assessment tests conducted by both Ekiti State (located in South Western Nigeria) and Kaduna State government (located in North Central Nigeria) for school administrators and teachers respectively to ascertain their professional efficiency was disheartening. In 2012, several school administrators were demoted to classroom teachers in Ekiti State based on poor performance in the Teachers Development Needs Assessment (TDNA) conducted by the Ministry of Education (Ekitistate.gov.ng 2012). Similarly, in December 2021, out of over 30,000 teachers that participated in the competency test conducted by the Kaduna State Ministry of Education, 2,192 who fell below the competency benchmark were relieved of their jobs. Still in Kaduna State, 2,357 teachers were laid off in mid-June, 2022 by the Kaduna State government because of poor performance in a competency test conducted by Kaduna Universal Basic Education Board (KADSUBEB) (Nwachukwu, 2022). In the same vein, the clamour for training and re-training of

school administrators and teachers among scholars, such as Arikewuyo (2009), Oluwagbohunmi and Osalusi (2013), Iyunade (2017), Oyewole, (2013) and Francis and Oluwatoyin (2019:78) reinforces these moves by these state governments as well as public speculations and the researcher's observation.

Notably, society evolves at a rate that necessitates school principals and teachers who are regarded as creators and dispensers of knowledge to keep abreast of the latest development in their areas of specialisation. For instance, the influx of computer-aided learning in contemporary society has left many school administrators and teachers behind, as reflected in students' poor academic achievement (Arikewuyo, 2009; Iyunade, 2017; Francis & Oluwatoyin 2019:78). It is against this background that this study explored the leadership roles of school administrators on teacher professional development.

1.5Theoretical Framework

This study was underpinned by a blend of Distributed Leadership Theory (DLT) and adult learning theory (ALT). The application of Distributed Leadership (though not coined as Distributed Leadership) dates back to the mid-13th century (Oduro, 2004:4), however, scholars acknowledged Gibbs (1954) as its progenitor in the mid-20th century (Gronn, 2000; Richard, 2011). However, the movement remained unpopular until the early 21st century. DLT is relatively new in the education milieu but started gaining prominence among scholars in the early years of the 21st century (Bush, Abdul Hamid, Ashley, & Kaparou, 2018). The theory evolved as a buildup or/and improvement on instructional leadership theory which was criticised for its principal and teaching-centric nature. Given the various schools of thought/conceptualisations of distributed leadership theory and for clarification, this study was specifically unpinned by the Spillane distributed leadership theory (2005).

The rationale for the adoption of DLT hinges on its principles that de-emphasise the existing top-down bureaucratic leadership styles, which emphasise principals' heroic tendencies and accentuate positional authority at the detriment of teachers' professional development and school effectiveness. Hence, staff expertise is

brought to bear with a view to improving teachers' professional development through collegiate support. The school principals will also be relieved of their daunting administrative and professional workload and as such, become more effective (Bush & Glover, 2014).

Historically, adult learning theory was pioneered by Malcolm Knowles. Knowles (1973:43), in his book titled *Adult learner: A neglected species,* asserts that adult learning theory is an offshoot of "andragogy", a construct derived from the Greek word "aner", meaning man (as distinguished from boy). By implication, the adult learning process differs from the adolescent learning process. The adolescent teaching-learning process is top-down, where teachers are viewed as authorities whose instructions and views should not be challenged by students. On the contrary, in the adult learning process, past experiences, reflective thinking, instruction-filtering and the ability to construct knowledge are brought to bear.

The rationale for the appropriateness of adult learning theory as the framework for this study hinges on the fact that professional development is characterised by the tenets/principles of adult learning which is suitable for fostering teachers' professional development (Zepeda, Parylo & Bengtson, 2014:296).

The justification for the adoption of a two-prolonged theoretical frameworks in this study hinges on one hand on the fact that ; the assumptions of distributed leadership theory (DLT) enable school administrators to leverage the latent leadership capacities and expertise of their subordinates (vice-principals, heads of departments and subject heads) to foster and implement teacher professional development (TPD). On the other hand, the relevance of the principles of ALT in deploying effective TPD. In summary, these two theories are complementary in repositioning school administrators' leadership roles in promoting teachers' professional development.

1.6 Research Questions

Primary research question

1. What are the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria?

Secondary research questions

The following secondary research questions will further guide the study;

- What are the participants' perception of school leadership in the selected Nigeria secondary schools in Nigeria?
- How do school administrators and teachers understand teachers professional development in the selected schools in Nigeria?
- What are the school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria?
- How have the existing teacher professional development practices influenced teacher professional development in Nigeria?
- What leadership model can be designed for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria?

1.7 Research Aims and Objectives

Primary Aim

- This study explores the leadership roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development in Nigeria.

Research objectives

Specifically, the study aims to;

- Explore participants' perception of school leadership in the selected Nigerian secondary school;

- Describe the participants' understanding of teachers' professional development in the selected Nigerian secondary school.
- Examine the school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teachers' professional development in the selected Nigerian secondary school.
- To evaluate how the existing school administrators' leadership practices has influenced teachers' professional development in the selected Nigeria secondary school and;
- Propose a leadership model for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria.

1.8 Research Design and Methodology

Research paradigm

This study was viewed through an interpretive paradigm. A paradigm is a researcher's framework/blueprint that guide a study. In other words, it is a researcher's roadmap about a given phenomenon and how it should be addressed. Denzin and Lincoln (2008) conceptualised paradigm as a combination of beliefs that informs action. Central to the interpretive paradigm philosophical assumption is that there is no absolute truth – individuals construct and make meaning of a given phenomenon based on their personal belief, perception, value and experience. In other words, meaning and reality are socially constructed as well as subjective because they vary according to individual perspectives (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The interpretive paradigm tenet also holds that a researcher must avoid being biased by making his views subservient and separate them from that of the participant to retain the originality and genuineness of data. The epistemology of the interpretive paradigm holds that knowledge does not exist out there, rather it is socially constructed through interactions between the researcher and participants to understand a phenomenon through participants' perception (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011; Henning, Van Rensburg & Smit, 2004). The ontology of the interpretive paradigm believes in multiple realities and that these

realities are socially constructed (Crotty, 1998). The rationale for adopting an interpretive paradigm hinge on the appropriateness of its philosophical assumptions, ontology and epistemology for this study.

1.8.1 Research approach

This study adopted a qualitative research approach. Qualitative research is a systematic method of enquiry where researchers try to understand a phenomenon through the eyes and the understanding of participants whole live the reality of such phenomenon (Hammersley, 1992: 195; Denscombe, 2002; Merriam, 2009). In qualitative research, Creswell (2007:14) asserts that the researcher “focuses on the meaning of the participants and describes a process that is expressive and persuasive in language”. This idea hinged on the ontology of the qualitative research approach, which holds that there is no singular truth as reality is socially constructed by an individual based on their perception and experience. This research approach has greater flexibility considering its ability to adapt to various research including ethnography, phenomenology, case study, narrative research and grounded theory (Smit, 2003). The relatedness of a qualitative research approach to this study is that it enabled the researcher to understand through participants’ perceptions the realities surrounding leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teachers’ professional development. There was documentation of data during the interview, which will be analysed and leveraged on to address the problems associated with the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teachers' professional development.

1.8.2 Research design

This study adopted a multiple case study design. A case study design is suitable for exploring significant problems of practice as well as deepening its understanding and interpreting observations of a given phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). Yin (1994:13) conceptualised a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.” According to him, case studies can be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory.

Central to case study design is an in-depth analysis of a phenomenon within its context to understand the phenomenon from the participants' point of view (Stake, 2006; Simons, 2009 & Merriam, 2009). A case in a case study could mean a programme, event, organisation, individual, group, social situation, phenomenon, or process (Helena, Melanie, Richard, & Jane, 2017). This study was a multiple case study of three selected secondary schools in Nigeria. As opposed to single case study design suitable for the study of a singular case with no replication, multiple-case design "can be adopted with real-life events that show numerous sources of evidence through replication rather than sampling logic," (Zaidah, 2007:2).

It then follows that a multiple case study design is suitable for assessing a phenomenon in different contexts that share similarities to establish if such a phenomenon is common across contexts (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The essence is to determine the possibility of generalisation over a larger population if the findings is similar across the sampled contexts. The case study design has the advantage of practical versatility because it is applicable across all ontological, epistemological or methodological perspectives (Rosenberg & Yates, 2007). Its strength also lies in its ability to be used separately in either qualitative, or quantitative oriented study or combine both approaches in one study (Merriam, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Yin, 2014 & Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). It was best captured by Luck, Jackson & Usher, 2006:103) as "a bridge across paradigms."

The rationale for the adoption of multiple case studies hinges on the need to carry out an in-depth exploration of the realities of leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teacher professional development (which is a social situation, a phenomenon, and a process) in different secondary school contexts within the same state financed by the same government. Given that this study was lensed through distributed leadership and adult learning theories, a multiple case study design seemed suitable to explore relative prevailing phenomenon vis-a-vis principal leadership roles in teacher professional development in the selected

schools' contexts. A case study design also seemed appropriate for comparing and contrasting cases and providing answers to the research questions in different contexts which give credence to the study's findings.

1.8.3 Data collection

This study adopted one main data collection instrument and a supplementary instrument to further give credibility to data that were gathered through the main instrument. Semi-structured interviews were the main instrument used to explore participants' perspectives on the roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development. This was complemented by Policy Document Analysis (PDA).

A semi-structured interview is characterised by researcher-guided open-ended questions within the focus of a study. Al Balushi (2016: 2319) described semi-structured interviews as an effective tool that "helps the researcher gain in-depth data of participants' perspectives and make sense of their lived stories and experiences as told by them." The rationale for using this instrument bothers on its ability to enable the researcher to dig deep into the areas covered by the research questions and objectives to gain first-hand information on the existing phenomenon from the participants.

The second data collection instrument was policy data analysis. It is a qualitative research method that involves studying documents in order to gain an understanding of the underlying meaning or purpose. This can be done through close reading, content analysis, or a combination of both. Document analysis is a useful tool for collecting data in a number of different ways. For example, it can be used to identify patterns and trends in a given body of text and can also be used to generate new insights from existing data. Additionally, document analysis can track changes over time and compare and contrast different documents (Wach & Ward, 2013:2).

There are a few things to keep in mind when conducting document analysis. First, it is important to select the right documents to study (Wach & Ward, 2013:2). Second, it is necessary to have a clear research question or purpose in mind.

Third, it is important to employ a rigorous and systematic method of analysis. Finally, it is helpful to consult with experts in the field to ensure that the analysis is accurate and complete.

Given that teacher professional development hinges on education policy framework, efforts were made to source for policy documents addressing the modus operandi of TPD in Nigeria. Notably, the study kept to the principles of document analysis by sourcing online relevant policy documents that speak to the research questions and are capable of complementing data gathered through semi-structured interviews.

1.8.4 Selection of research participants

Sampling is the process of selecting a subset of a larger population with the view to elicit data from them for a study. Sampling, according to Maree (2007:9), means "the process used to select a portion of the population for study." The qualitative sampling technique is concerned with the selection of a few participants with a view to attaining in-depth views of participants during data gathering in research (Crabtree & Miller, 1992). Hence, in this study, three schools were selected for the study using a purposeful sampling technique based on accessibility to participants, the proximity of the researcher to the selected schools and the researcher's convenience. The snowballing technique was used to select teacher participants based on school administrators' recommendation of teachers that fit the researcher's predetermined criteria. Participants were selected through a purposeful sampling technique among school principals who had spent a minimum of three years in their present school. The total number of participants in the study was twelve(12). Having interviewed the school administrator in each of the selected schools, they automatically became a referrer who referred the researcher to teachers who have spent a minimum of three years in the school (Shank, 2006). Three classroom teachers were selected using a snowballing sampling technique. The rationale for these selections is premised on the fact that three years is enough to be fully aware of the school administrator's efforts towards teacher professional development.

1.8.5 Data analysis

Data collected in the study were analysed using thematic data analysis. Thematic analysis, as described by Braun and Clarke (2006), is “a method of identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within the data. The six steps of thematic analysis, as prescribed by Braun and Clarke, was be adopted. The first step was familiarization with the data, which involves reading and re-reading the data to gain a comprehensive understanding of its content. This step enables the me to become immersed in the data and identify key patterns and themes. The second step involves generating initial codes, where the I identified meaningful units of the data and assigning codes to them. This step enables me to organize the data and prepared it for analysis. The third step entails searching for themes, during which I identified and collated codes that related to a specific topic, concept, or idea. These codes were then grouped together to form themes. The fourth step was reviewing themes, where the I reviewed and refined the themes by ensuring that they are coherent, comprehensive, and accurate representations of the data. The fifth step involved defining and naming themes, at this stage I identified the core ideas that underlined each theme and gave them names that reflected their essence. The final step was producing the report, where the I presented the findings in a clear and concise report. This report entails the description of the study, the methods used, the key themes identified, and an interpretation of the themes in the context of the research question. The justification hinges on the fact that thematic analysis helps to interpret and analyse data with the objectives of the study segregated into themes (Boyatzis, 1998). Thematic analysis was also considered appropriate for this study because it enabled the researcher to categorise data generated into themes that respond to research questions and objectives.

1.8.6 Value of the study

The outcome of this study provided adequate information capable of producing strategy(ies) suitable for adoption by school principals towards promoting teachers' professional development in their schools. The study will also add to the existing

literature on the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development.

1.8.7 Ethical considerations

The researcher adhered to laid-down procedures concerning research at the University of the Free State (UFS). The ethical approval for conducting the research was approved by the university and denoted as number UFS-HSD2020/1304. The consent of the participants was secured via formal letters addressed to the principals of selected schools. The identities of the participants were concealed for them to feel comfortable as well as show readiness for unreserved participation. Participants were given the opportunity to withdraw at any stage of the investigation in case they felt like doing so. However, an effort was made to ensure that such withdrawal did not negatively impact the study's overall findings.

1.8.8 Trustworthiness

This study adhered to the principle of trustworthiness in relation to credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability criteria (Anney, 2014; Schwandt, Lincoln & Guba, 2007). In other words, the findings of this research are verifiable, original and a true representation of the data collected from the participants. The outcome of this study is also transferable and dependable even after a long time.

1.9 Synopsis of Chapter

The thesis contains seven chapters. Chapter one discusses the general orientation of the study, including the background to the study, the rationale for the study, problem statement, theoretical framework, and research questions and research objectives. The chapter also described the research design and methodology adopted in in the study. It gives an overview of the paradigm adopted, the research approach, the design of the study, data generation, data analysis and the process of ensuring integrity in the research. Finally, the chapter presents ethical considerations and trustworthiness.

1.10 Chapters' Layout

The following are the chapters' layout and description of the study:

Chapter 1: Background to the Study: This chapter gives an overview of the study as well as establishes the problem of the study.

Chapter 2: Theoretical Framework: This chapter chronicles the blend of two theories that underpin the study and their implications

Chapter 3: Review of Literature. This chapter focuses on a review of related national and international literature

Chapter 4: Research Methodology: This chapter discusses the research procedures and the rationale for their selections

Chapter 5: Data Presentation: This chapter presents the data from the field

Chapter 6: Discussion and Interpretation of Findings and Formulation of Framework: This covers the discussion of the findings and formulation of the theoretical framework.

Chapter 7: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations: This chapter encapsulates a summary of all chapters, draws a conclusion from the findings and made recommendations based on the findings.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

A theory is a systematically organised body of knowledge constructed with universally acceptable and applicable principles and assumptions that help understand or predict a phenomenon (Torraco, 1997:115; Glanz, Rimer, and Viswanath, 2008: 114; Gabriel, 2008). A theoretical framework can therefore be viewed as an established theory in a field of study through which a researcher intends to view and support a study (Swanson, 2013:122). According to Kivunja (2018: 47), a theoretical framework can help a researcher ask questions consistent with the research questions and understand, explain and predict a phenomenon.

This study explores the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teachers' professional development in secondary schools in Nigeria. The research's two major constructs or variables are "leadership roles of school administrators" and "teacher professional development." Hence, the need to adopt a blend of two theories to lens the study, namely, distributed leadership theory (DLT) and adult learning theory (ALT). The rationale is that DLT, as a school leadership approach, would enable us to understand how school administrators can leverage staff members' expertise to deploy effective teacher professional development via the assumptions and principles of DLT and ADL.

The rationale for adopting two theories lies in the usefulness of each in addressing the two main variables of the topic: the leadership roles of school administrators and teacher professional development. Distributed leadership theory assumptions would serve as a guide for administering TPD by leveraging on the expertise of internal human resources (mainly teachers) within the school, while Adult Learning Theory principles would serve as a blueprint for deploring school-based teacher professional development in school.

This chapter, therefore, examines the two theories earlier indicated, that is, distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory. In this chapter, the relevance of the selected theories to the study is examined. The chapter starts by defining what theory connotes, the origin and the principles of the two theories and various views of the proponents of these theories. How these theories were previously criticised is also discussed in the chapter. The implications of the theories on teacher professional development are also deciphered.

2.2 Distributed Leadership Theory

2.1.1 Origin

Prior to the evolution of distributed leadership theory, the traditional leadership theories gave credence to heroic leadership by assuming that the power to effect a change or improve organisational efficiency is solely resident with a formal positional leader (Yukl, 1999: 292–293; Gronn, 2002). During this era, theories such as Great Man Theory gained prominence to a great extent. Consensus exists among scholars that Gibb (1954) is the father of distributed leadership (Gronn, 2000; Richard, 2011; Thorpe, Gold and Lawler, 2011). Gibb was the first to use the term "Distributed leadership during a research project targeted at developing an alternative leadership model different from the traditional “Great man theory” of leadership.

Gibb posits that;

> “observation of group behaviour in this way strongly supports the contention that leadership is not an attribute of personality or of character. It is a social role, the successful adoption of which depends upon a complex of abilities and traits. But even more, the adoption of a leadership role is dependent upon the specific situation (Gibb,1947:269).”

He further argues that leadership is the function of a group's aims, values and techniques at the disposal of such group to attain its goal (Gibb, 1947:269).

Subsequently, questions such as what leaders do to make them great led to the emergence of behavioural and situational/contingency leadership theories (Erçetin, 2000). This dovetails into the development and study of leadership styles known as democratic, autocratic and laisses-faire. Nonetheless, these traditional leadership theories and styles undermine the inherent leadership capabilities of followers (staff members) in organisations. The quest for a better leadership model/theory among scholars necessitated a paradigm shift from a heroic leadership perspective (Yukl, 1999:292–293; Oduro, 2004). This was aptly captured in the work of Gronn:

> "I synthesised current trends and developments in leadership and considered whether the field was on the cusp of a fundamental rethink-driven mainly by the need to accommodate new organisational change and restructuring imperatives - which would supersede all that had gone before it, and which would alter forever our view of leadership" Gronn (2000:317).

At this point it is pertinent to state that DLT in the education milieu is an offshoot of traditional theories such as *activity theory*, *distributed cognition theory* and *community of practice* (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001). The evolution of DLT as a model in school leadership caught researchers' attention in the early years of the 21st century. On the one hand, its normative, representational and empirical power qualities made it attractive (Harris & Spillane, 2008), while on the other hand, DLT was greeted with lots of criticism among leadership scholars because of the seeming ambiguity (Spillane, 2005:149) that surrounded its interpretation and lack of sufficient empirical findings (Bennett, Wise, Woods and Harvey, 2003). MacBeath, Oduro, and Waterhouse (2004:35) posit that distributed leadership entails; formal distribution, pragmatic distribution, strategic distribution, Incremental distribution, opportunistic distribution and cultural distribution.

2.1.2 Gronn on distributed leadership

Gronn (2002) was among the prominent scholars whose conceptualisation and contributions to DL as a leadership model greatly influenced what is today known as distributed leadership theory. Gronn posits that DLT entails *spontaneous collaboration, intuitive working relations* and *institutionalised practice*. According to him, spontaneous collaboration is stretching leadership practice through social and situational context. With this, leadership practice becomes diffused among the school principal and his subordinates. By *intuitive working relations*, Gronn remarked that leadership becomes distributed over time when staff members become interdepend due to shared and overlapping roles that naturally fuse trust and loyalty that often culminate in higher productivity. The previous two processes can become an institutionalised practice, where leadership practices via social and situational relations unconsciously give room for a structure informing of informal or informal leadership "positions". He also asserts that *interdependence* and *coordination* are the two main properties of distributed leadership.

2.1.3 Leithwood et al. (2007) on distributed leadership

Building on Gronn's (2002) work on distributed leadership, Leithwood, Mascall, Strauss, Sacks, Memon, and Yashkina (2007) conceptualises distributed leadership with the following assumptions.

Planful alignment: This component/ configuration of DL holds that "functions of those providing leadership have been given prior planful thought by organisational members". In other words, consensus must have been reached by members of an organisation concerning who carries out which function(s). They posit that an assumed configuration by default may not automatically translate to productivity. Hence, the need for "planful process" or "prethinking," that enhances leadership productivity (Harris, Leithwood, Day, Sammons & Hopkins, 2007). According to them, essential in the reinforcement of *planful alignment* is the following shared values and beliefs:

- reflection and dialogue as the basis for good decision-making.

- trust in the motives of one's leadership colleagues.
- well-grounded beliefs about the capacities of one's leadership colleagues.
- commitment to shared whole-organisation goals; and
- cooperation rather than competition as the best way to promote productivity within the organisation (Leithwood, 2007).

Spontaneous alignment: This configuration criticised Gronn's *spontaneous collaboration,* which assumed that collaboration becomes spontaneous among workers as a result of their roles overlap and interdependency. Leithwood et al. argued that *Spontaneous Alignment* is preferred to *spontaneous collaboration.* In the former, tacit and intuitive decision-making leads to unpredictable results, while the latter advocates the necessity of planful and conscious role alignment (Harris et al., 2007). They further argued that components of spontaneous alignments include "gut feelings," trust, a vote of confidence in leadership capacities, commitment to organisational goals and cooperation.

Spontaneous misalignment: This configuration is the opposite of planful alignment and is closely related to spontaneous alignment. It also features the elements of leadership distribution as well as its norms, beliefs and values. This configuration is unplanned; hence the leaders of each unit are working independently of one another. Role interdependence and organisational productivity suffer both in the short and on the long terms in this configuration because of confusion that characterised this form of leadership job interdependence (Mascall et al., 2008; Harris, 2009.).

Anarchic misalignment: Leaders in many organisations vehemently oppose the adoption of this configuration. It is seen as an inference into their sphere of influence or an attempt to usurp them. This results in leader colleagues working independently of one another. Role interdependence becomes no-existing even if such is required in their line of duties. Rivalry and contentions via a vis resource

sharing become evident. Organisational shared values such as trust, collaboration through dialogues and reflections, cooperation and individual goal pursuit become non-existing. This negatively impacts organisational goal attainment (Harris et al., 2007; Leithwood et al., 2007).

Given the various schools of thought/conceptualisations on distributed leadership theory and the need for clarification, this study was specifically unpinned by the Spillane distributed leadership theory.

2.1.4 Harris's contribution to distributed leadership theory

Harris (2016) sees distributed leadership as a disciplined collaboration among organisation members with a view to effect a change in practice that culminates in organisational effectiveness as opposed to change in physical structure, delegation or collapsing the *wall.* She conceptualises distributed leadership as an intercession among structures, roles, teams, ways of working and learning. Harris de-emphasises the leadership-followership mantra in leadership (Harris, 2003: 314). She opined that distributed leadership does not translate to loss of authority and power that is resident in former position holder; rather, it is an avenue to leverage the expertise of followers to the advantage of the school. According to Harris (2015), quality teachers and school administrators, irrespective of context, culminates in outstanding student outcomes. She maintains that the dark side of distributed leadership includes power abuse, usurping, workload and barriers, and being time-consuming (Harris, 2016).

2.2 Spillane's distributed leadership theory (DLT) - 2006

Spillane (2006) Distributed Leadership Theory (DLT) is the first framework that gave the theory its foremost shape in school leadership. It has been adjudged as the sixth most cited framework/theory in education administration literature in the last three decades (Diamond & Spillane, 2016:147). In furtherance of the quest for a new model of leadership, Spillane's theorising drew from *distributed cognition* and *activity theory* of Resnick (1991), Pea (1993) and Hutchins (1995), which described distributed cognition as *sense*-making vis a vis material object, cultural and social contexts. Central to distributed cognition is the idea that an organism's

cognitive capacity and functioning could be enabled or hampered by the situation or context in which such activity occurs (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Spillane, Halverson and Diamond, 2001; Harris, 2007; Bolden 2011). Spillane (2005) asserts that the "distributed model of leadership focuses upon the interactions, rather than the actions of those in formal and informal leadership roles. It is primarily concerned with *leadership practice* and how leadership influences organisational and instructional improvement." He further argues that one of the factors that necessitate DL is the contextual social situation and its complexities. This conceptualisation of leadership is at variance with orthodox dualism – a top-down leadership approach. The theory opposes heroic leadership by emphasising the importance of leadership practice (rather than roles), situation/context and followers. Aptly summarised is this notion by Diamond and Spillane (2016:148).

> We were unsatisfied with traditional approaches to studying school leadership, which tended to:
>
> 1. focus exclusively on people in leadership positions (e.g., head teachers);
>
> 2. emphasise the traits and characteristics of those people in leadership positions;
>
> 3. less often study leadership exercised by people who did not hold traditional leadership positions (e.g., teacher leaders);
>
> 4. examine leadership with particular organisational contexts as a backdrop (e.g., contingency theory); and
>
> 5. focus on leaders' thinking (cognitive perspectives) or how their thinking was influenced by educational organisations (institutional theory).

2.2.1 Assumptions of distributed leadership theory - Spillane 2005

According to Spillane, the theoretical underpinning of Distributed Leadership hinges on the elements of ***leader(s), situation and followers***. Distributed leadership theory (DLT) focuses on leadership ***practices*** or ***activities*** as opposed to the heroic leadership perspective that emphasises leadership roles. Spillane argues that formal leaders had long been over-celebrated for organisational achievement. He further argues that no leader can single-handedly achieve an organisational goal without the collective efforts of his subordinates. The tenets of DLT also hold that expertise and human resources capable of enhancing leadership practices are inherent among subordinates in every organisation (including the school system). Hence, the formal leader(s) need to identify this and leverage on them to making leadership practice more effective. Spillane maintains that members of staff should be accorded leadership positions according to their expertise and abilities as long as such enhances overall school leadership and is consistent with the action plan towards the attainment of school goals. In so doing, leadership practices begin to manifest through the interactions between leaders, followers and the prevailing situation. Going forward, I would like to unravel the concept of leader, followers and situation from the Spillane distributed leadership theory perspective.

Leader: This assumption holds that leadership, as it were, should not be about a title, former position or the leader himself; rather, the focus should be on the *activities* and *practices* involved in discharging their leadership responsibilities, otherwise known as "Leadership practice." Spillane maintains that leadership finds expression in the practice or actions of a leader (Spillane 2014). It is about how, when and how leaders carry out their micro tasks, which are often performed through others via social media or interaction with other members of staff and situations. This interaction requires people skill. This people skill is what Spillane referred to as ***social capital.*** According to Spillane, Richard, and John (2004), "our perspective on school-leadership practice focuses on leaders' thinking and action in situ". In other words, leadership is the aggregate of leadership practices or activities are woven into the web of social interactions that transpire among leaders

(not necessarily formal/positional leaders), followers and their contextual situation while performing their tasks or functions (Harris, 2004). This means that task performance by the leaders or followers in a school system occurs through social interactions.

This assumption holds that leadership practices are spread over formal and informal leaders in organisations (including schools) in forms of collaborative, collective, ***and coordinated distribution*** (Spillane, 2006). ***Collaborative distribution*** entails two or more leaders working together in the same place and time with the aim of executing routines that culminate in the same goal. ***Collective distribution*** involves two or more leaders enacting leadership routines separately through independent tasks, routines or roles. ***Coordinated distribution happens*** when leadership practices are in sequential order, where the role of the overall leader is a summation of the "*subordinate-leaders"* and followers' activities.

Situation: This assumption holds that;

> "situation is not external to leadership activity, but is one of its core constituting elements… situations offer particulars – e.g. tools of various kinds, organizational structures, and language – that are part and parcel of leadership practice, as these particulars vary, so too will the how of leadership practice" (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004).

In other words, the situation is a socio-cultural context that is constitutive of leadership practice. Every organisation has a peculiar situation, such as *organisational structures/infrastructures, routine, artefacts, rules, procedures, ways of doing things* and *tools*, which enhance or hinder leadership practices (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2004; Spillane, 2019). Here the school structures include routines such as graded-level meetings, teacher professional development, school assembly in the morning and afternoon, continuous assessment, teachers' lesson notes oversight functions, instructional supervision, and staff meetings, among others. Tools include instructional materials, laboratory and so on. This tenet holds that *situation* shapes and is, in turn,

being shaped by leadership practices spread across leaders, followers and the situation itself over time. No two organisations are exactly the same, even if they both possess the same amount of resources (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). The leadership, management, structure and configuration would differ to a degree (Diamond & Spillane 2016:149). Hence, leadership distribution and practices are to be contextualised according to the school situation in order to achieve optimum productivity.

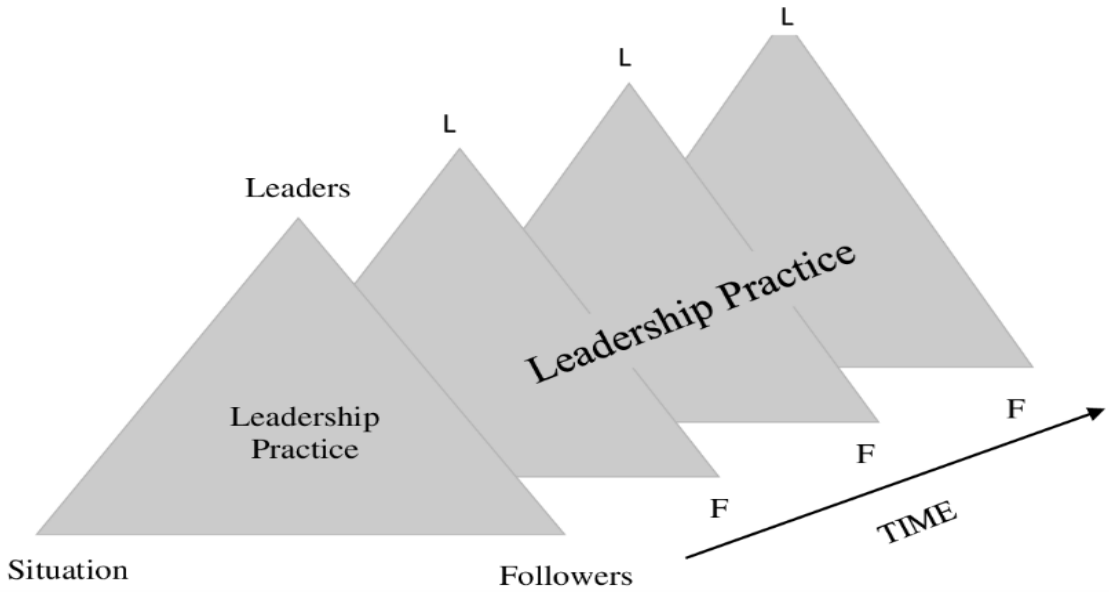

Fig.1*:* **Constituting elements of leadership practice. of Spillane (2006).**

Followers: This assumption holds that "followers are an essential constituting element of leadership practice (Diamond & Spillane, 2016:149). From a distributed leadership perspective, leadership practice is *spread over* a social interaction among leader(s) and followers. Against the *heroic* genre of leadership, where leadership connotes unidirectional influence on followers, this assumption holds that followers can go a long way to influence leadership practices in an organisation (Spillane, Richard & John, 2004). One of the core elements in distributed leadership continuum is *agency*. Followers are part of an agency in an organisation. Agency connotes members of an organisation, whose duties, actions, inactions, will, decisions, influence and dispositions or otherwise to

organisations modus operandi affects his/her job and that of others in the organisation (Tian, 2016). Followers in organisations (as part of an agency) can influence things. Literature reveals that leader and leadership do not exist in a vacuum – no leadership without followership. Given the elements of distributed leadership in the preceding discussion, distributed leadership practice in school involves followers who enact leadership practices in various capacities (positional or non-positional) through various means, such as artefacts, lesson notes, reports, and test/continuous assessment, among others.

2.2.2 Criticism of distributed leadership theory

The foremost criticism of Distributed Leadership Theory is that of definition. Many scholars argue that it is *an old wine in a new bottle*. Some scholars perceived the theory as a mere modification of existing leadership theories, among which are democratic leadership, teacher leadership, shared leadership, and leadership by delegation.

Critics argued that Spillane limits his theorising of DLT to cognitive activities and practice without recourse to the 'affective dimension.' According to them, this threatens loyalty, commitment and identities, which could culminate in micro-politics, insubordination, role usurpation, competition and work overload (Flessa, 2009; Fitzsimons, James & Denyer, 2011).

While DLT was yet to evolve fully from Spillane's perspective and Harris (2003:319) agreed with the variety of benefits inherent in distributed leadership conceptualisation, also noted that certain drawbacks also characterised the theory in view of school hierarchical nature (some scholars still express the same criticism even in the contemporary). First, devolution of power could subject the school principals to a lack of control (Hartley, 2009) as well as pose the challenge of how leaders would be remunerated. In response to this, Diamond, Randolph & Spillane (2004) argues that no evidence supports the notion that school principals' authority is undermined in relation to the adoption of distributed leadership. Secondly, the compartmentalisation of schools into departments poses challenges to collegiate support, cross-fertilisation of ideas and collaboration among teachers. Harris

(2003)finally expresses concern about who and how responsibilities and authority would be distributed.

In view of the expressed potential concerns and seemingly challenges that mitigate the adoption of distributed leadership theory in schools, Spillane, in his recent work, posits that leadership practice, beyond cognitive activities requires “social capital” otherwise known as people skills on the part of the leaders to mitigate these concerns (Harris, 2003). In other words, school principals must be astute human relation manager and skillful in interpersonal relations.

2.3 Contextualisation of Distributed Leadership Theory in a Centralised Education System

Since schools are part of a larger society as well as reflect the socio-cultural context of such society and ultimately practice its education policies, consensus exists among scholars that societal context and school leadership must be congruent for the latter to thrive (Hallinger, Bickman & Davis, 1996; Lee & Hallinger, 2012; Spillane *et al*., 2004; Gronn, 2009 & Harris, 2009; Bush, 2018). Hence, the need to consider the prevailing educational context of a country before adopting a policy or operationalising a theory.

The Nigerian education system is highly centralised and hierarchical with little or no evidence of decentralisation in school leadership, a factor that calls for concern on the successful operationalisation of a distributed leadership. The country had gone through a series of education reforms from “the 1882 Education Ordinance” to “Education Reform of 2007” (Nwangwa & Omotere, 2013: 163 -165). In tandem with the assumption of distributed leadership theory that school leadership had gone past the “heroic genre,” the *2007 Education Reform Act* enacted School Management Team (SMT), otherwise known as School Management Organisation (SMO), in unity secondary schools across the country. This management team is saddled with the school leadership responsibilities in all secondary schools in the country. Having given room for school-based management, the peculiarities of school contexts, centralisation of authorities and

hierarchical bureaucracy that permeated the education system remains a source of concern considering the implementation of distributed leadership.

2.4 Implications of Distributed Leadership Theory on Teachers' Professional Development

Scholars are beginning to beam the searchlight on distributed leadership as a mechanism for improving school capacity via its positive influence on both human and social capital (Heck & Hallinger, 2009; Dimmock, 2012). The tenets of distributed leadership theory from Spillane's (2006) perspective would go a long way in enhancing school administrators' quest to improve teacher professional development, bearing in mind the three core elements of this theory, namely *leadership*, *situation* and *follower* in the following ways:

Leadership: This tenet of the theory informs school administrators that effective leadership transcends designated positional roles; rather, it is a *practice* where leadership activities are *spread over* an array of leaders who possess expertise capable of getting the job done instead of doing it all alone. Specifically, school administrators/SMT should identify teachers with exemptional skills and expertise in various subjects and appoint them as subject head to improve teachers' professional development through collegial support. Since leadership practice and its attendant tasks are expressed through social relations, learning through colleagues in a parallel manner foster and enhances *collaborative, coordinated* and *collective* leadership distribution. For instance, teachers share the same room as an office in many schools. Due to the existing social relation occasioned by proximity, teachers would be more disposed to approach their subject leaders for assistance as and when such a need arises (Spillane, 2014). This typifies the *coordinated distribution* of leadership practice. Similarly, *coordinated leadership distribution* could be achieved when the subject head/leader gives a formative evaluation report on teachers' performance to HOD, who will, in turn, submit them to the school principal for a summative evaluation report. At the same time, *collective distribution* could be achieved via the cooperation of all HODs and SMT

members as touching how to establish a school-based Professional Learning Community (PLC).

Given that distributed leadership practice is spread over/through social relations, school administrators must possess and encourage inculcation of social capital (among staff) as leadership attributes that foster seamless interpersonal relations that give room for professional support.

Situation: Distributed leadership situation assumption holds that situation plays a vital role in leadership practice. It is the socio-cultural context that is constitutive of leadership practices in an organisation. The situation entails structures both physical and positional. Components of the situation include *routine, artefacts* and *tools.* School administrators could leverage this assumption by creating a learning culture among staff members through the establishment of school-based professional learning community (PLC). This would form part of the school *routine* where HODs and subject masters/heads collaborate in rendering professional support to both new and experienced staff. Occasionally, workshops and seminars could be organised where teachers who are subject experts would be invited from other schools for collaboration and action-learning. Fullan (2002) refers to this as intervisitation and peer networks.

Followers: The third assumption of distributed leadership, as theorised by Spillane, is that followers play important roles in leadership practice. They form the bulk of *agency* in any organisation because they are responsible for the enactment of routine, the use of tools and artefacts. They are part and parcel of the school structures. Leadership practice and distribution are spread over followers via social dimension thereby making them a vital determinant of leadership practice outcome.

School landscape has transformed in size, expectations and scope over the years, and so also school administrators' responsibilities. Hence, the need for school administrators to leverage the followers to enact some of their leadership tasks. The onus then lies on the school administrators (designated leader) to be astute in applying their *social capital* to galvanise and appropriate the expertise of their followers/teachers (with formal or informal positions) within the schools. This

could manifest in establishing a school-based professional learning community with a view to enhancing teacher professional development through instructional supervision, collegiate support, peer network and knowledge sharing. Teachers who are parts and beneficiaries of the benefits of such a community often experience improved job performance in strategies for curriculum implementation as well as imbibe teacher leadership qualities.

2.5 Use of Distributed Leadership Theory in Previous Studies

A theory is said to be worthwhile after it has been subjected to empirical and theoretical scrutiny through many studies (Harris, 2009). In the face of several early criticisms of distributed leadership theory, its validity as a leadership theory had been tested via an array of studies by scholars over the years with mixed findings. These studies (ranges from small to large scale) had paired and tested distributed leadership theory principles along various school-related variables (factors) such as; teacher professional development, teacher effectiveness, school leadership, student learning outcome, teacher leadership, professional learning community, organisational change, school effectiveness, novice leaders support among others (Harris 2004; Harris, 2009; Dinham, 2009; Anthony, Gimbert, Luke, & Hurt, 2019).

Distributed leadership via teacher leadership could enhance overall school leadership and teacher professional development in a number of ways. In a review of the literature on distributed leadership and teacher leadership, Harris (2004:7) found that:

> teacher leaders need opportunities for continuous professional development in order to develop their role.
>
> the success or otherwise of teacher leadership within a school is heavily influenced by interpersonal factors and relationships with other teachers and the school management team.

> the ability of teacher leaders to influence colleagues and to develop productive relations with school management, who may in some cases feel threatened by teacher taking on leadership is therefore important.

Her argument suggests that teacher leadership thrives most during professional development training, where their leadership roles become distinct. She further stressed the importance of good interpersonal relations through which they can influence their colleagues to achieve high productivity. In another study, Anthony, Gimbert, Luke, and Hurt (2019:70) investigated teacher leadership support towards novice teachers' induction, and the result indicated that:

> "Teacher leaders served critical roles in helping to lead and provide novice teacher induction. In particular, they provided content- and grade-level-specific professional development and they mediated support provided by principals and experienced teacher colleagues."

This implies that teacher leadership as a distributed leadership typology contributes towards inexperienced teachers' professional development. Distributed leadership and actions learning (as a subset of teacher professional development) were found to be positively correlated by Dinham (2009:145). In a study with a scope that spanned fifty Quality Teaching Action Learning (QTAL) projects supported by the New South Wales Department of Education (NSW DET), Australia. The findings show that "distributed leadership was both a major factor in the success and a significant outcome of teachers' action learning. A successful action learning programme tends to inform a change in teacher instructional methods. This assertion corroborated the findings of Camburn and Han (2009:25), who investigated the relationship between distributed leadership and instructional change. They submitted that "a plausible case can be made that distributing leadership to teachers can support instructional change." It follows that teachers

tend to improve their instructional delivery skills in schools where distributed leadership principles are operationalised. This could result from healthy social relations which fosters trust, respect, collegial supports, and commitment that gives room for an impactful professional learning community.

Baiza (2011) investigated the relationship between distributed leadership and student achievement. His findings show that;

> …school principal did not simply delegate tasks but practiced governance over the school's social and situational contexts. Through the sharing of intellect and opinion, acknowledging and maximizing expertise, teachers were called on to share their expertise in instruction as well as providing opportunities or time to dialogue to share insights regarding students and the curriculum. Working together to improve student instruction created shared roles pulling their expertise and initiative directed toward increasing student achievement (Baiza, 2011:IX).

His findings indicate that distributed leadership practice that cognisance of social and situational contexts cum teachers involvement would yield positive result in relation to student achievement.

Contrary to the affirmations of the studies earlier highlighted, opposing views argue that power and authority cannot be absolutely devolved in a school system. Tian, Risku and Collin (2016), in a meta-analysis, assert that there is a dearth of evidence(s) to support the fact that (even in a school system where distributed leadership is operationalised) power moves from "those in formal authority roles and in particular the principal" rather, "there is considerable evidence that power, as it is analysed within bureaucracy, remains; that is, those in formal authority roles retain power" (2016:12). In other words, bureaucracy and hierarchy cannot be totally divorced from distributed leadership.

In the same vein, Timperley (2005), though agreeing with the principles of distributed leadership, maintains that the way and manner teacher leaders emerge

could pose a challenge of legitimacy, respect and cooperation among staff. He asserts that “teacher leaders may be particularly vulnerable to being openly disrespected and disregarded because they do not carry formal authority” (Timperley, 2005:412).

2.6 Adult Learning Theory

The adoption of Adult Learning Theory (ALT) as the second and complementary theory in this study hinges on its potential to provide valuable insights into how adults learn and how this influences their professional development. ALT emphasizes the importance of considering the individual needs, experiences, and learning styles of adult learners to create effective learning opportunities. In the context of the study, ALT helped to inform the design and implementation of professional development programs for teachers, which was the key focus of the research. By considering the principles of adult learning, school administrators were better prepared to create meaningful and relevant learning experiences that aligned with the needs and interests of teachers. This, in turn, helped to facilitate the development of teacher skills and knowledge, which is a central goal of professional development.

Additionally, by using ALT as a complementary theory alongside Distributed Leadership Theory (DLT), the study was able to take a more comprehensive and nuanced approach to understanding the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. While DLT provided insights into how leadership is distributed across different stakeholders and how this affects professional development, ALT helped to deepen the understanding of how individual adult learners can be supported and empowered through effective leadership practices.

2.6.1 Early contributors’ perspectives

Andragogy connotes the art and science of teaching adults, while pedagogy is the method of teaching children. Historically, the literature reveals that andragogy preceded pedagogy (Loeng, 2018). Prior to the industrial revolution, adults were the first learners. Learning during that period was more of an

apprenticeship where adult learnt crafts, trades and farming techniques. During the industrial age, adult learning became pronounced through the efforts of Fedrick Taylor and Henry Fayol via their scientific and administrative theories of management with an emphasis on training adults to become more efficient in the industries. The first person to use the word ***andragogy*** was a German called Alexander Kapp in his work titled "Plato's education ideas" (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2005:59). Though he never developed a specific system for adult learning, his work centred on; *teachers, s*elf-reflection and life experiences.

Another German who worked in the area of adult learning was Eugene Rosenstock-Huessy. He saw andragogy as “developing the adult’s sensibility for the spirit of the age and motivating him/her to take action with the purpose of improving society.” He believed that a learner's background reveals a lot about learning as well as the ages of learners and teachers (Loeng, 2018:2). Eduard Christian Lindeman (1926) also contributed to andragogy. His work and writings helped establish adult education as a field. Lindeman’s major assumption about adult learners are as follow:

1. Adults are motivated to learn as they experience needs and interests that learning will satisfy.
2. Adults’ orientation to learning is life-centered.
3. Experience is the richest source for adult learning.
4. Adults have deep need to be self-directing.
5. Individual differences among people increase with age.

(Knowles, Holton, & Swanson, 2005:40).

In his book, *The meaning of education*, he said, "the whole of life is learning; therefore, education can have no endings." In 1927, He wrote a paper titled "Andragogical," which was the first English use of the word *"*andragogy*."*

2.6.2 Synopsis of Knowles's perspectives on adult learning

Theories are scientific generalisations which are summations of their proponents' ideas, principles, perspectives, philosophies and ultimately empirical findings vis a vis a phenomenon of their interests. Knowles adult learning theory (andragogy) is by no means an exception. Hence, exploring his perspective on adult learning could help understand the rationale behind his theoretical assumptions. Knowles sees teaching as the process of *designing* and *managing* learning activities, as reflected in his adult learning principles (Jarvis, 2010: 214). According to him, teachers:

> expose learners to new possibilities for self-fulfilment; help learners clarify their own aspirations; help learners diagnose; help learners identify life problems resulting from their learning needs; provide physical conditions conducive to adult learning; accept and treats learners as persons; seek to build relationships of trust and cooperation between learners; become a co-learner in the spirit of mutual enquiry; involve learners in a mutual process of formulating learning objectives; share with learners potential methods to achieve these objectives; help learners to organise themselves to undertake their tasks; help learners exploit their own experiences on learning resources; gear presentation of their own resources to the levels of learners experiences; help learners integrate new learning to their own experience; involve learners in devising criteria and methods to measure progress; help learners develop and apply self-evaluation procedures.

2.7 Adult Learning Theory (Andragogy) – Knowles (1973)

Malcolm Knowles is considered the father of andragogy (Rachal, 2002; Harper & Ross, 2011:161). His works sparked a re-awakening in Europe and popularized Andragogy in the United States (Elias, 1979: 252; Usher, Bryant & Johnston, 1997:213). His work remarkably drew from that of Dusan Savicevic, a professor in the then Yugoslavia in South-eastern Europe in 1966 (Knowles, 1984: 6; Rachal,

2002:1). Knowles defined andragogy as the "art and science of helping adults to learn (Knowles, 1984:12; Malik, 2016). Andragogy is a construct derived from the Greek words "*aner*", meaning man and "*agogus*" meaning *"leader of men."* Hence, Andragogy could literally be referred to as leader of men.

In 1973, Knowles authored "*Adult Learners: The neglected species*." The core of the book and his subsequent works emphasis that adult learning is different from children leaning. The assumptions of Knowles's Theory of Adult Education hinge on the characteristics of adult in relation to learning. These assumptions include; the need to know, self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learning and motivation. These form the core adult learning principles of ALT.

2.7.1 Adult learning theory assumptions

Adult Learning Theory assumptions had grown from being four (4) to six (6) over the years (Knowles, Holton and Swanson, 2005:66). This is not unconnected with series of critiques that greeted andragogy principles among learning theorists and educators at large. However, the tenets of andragogy remain the foundation for majority of adult education typologies and programmes around the globe. The following are the assumptions of Adult Learning Theory as propounded by Knowles from 1973 through 1990.

The need to know: This assumption holds that adult learners are aware of or need to know the reason for learning what they intend to learn. It is assumed that the rationale for learners (who are adults) to embark on learning premise on; the benefits or gains of additional knowledge, which could be in form of improved performance or promotion; or the attendant pain or loss attached to failure to embark on such training, inform of demotion or inefficiency. In a situation where learners are not aware of such a need, the facilitator has the responsibility to bring them to the awareness of the need to acquire such knowledge prior to the learning process. This process is referred to as a *"consciousness-raising exercise"* (Findsen, 2007:555).

The learners' self-concept*:* This assumption holds that adult learners perceive themselves as being responsible for their own decisions, actions and lives at large. Their self-concept had shifted from being dependent learners to self-directing learners. *Conflict* often ensues when training contents are variance from their deep-seated notion about training contents. To mitigate this, the facilitator(s), in conjunction with the adult learners, should develop programme contents, aims and objectives, and the expected outcome of such training before its commencement (Knowles, 1975). However, (as a caveat, as indicated in the later works of Knowles) caution should be exercised in doing this. Given the fact that not all adults are self-directing learners, some learners are autonomous learners while some need to be guided; hence, the programme designer needs to pay attention to this. The degree of adult learners' previous knowledge regarding the subject matter to be learnt is also a factor to be considered vis a vis their level of control in the programme/training design. By implication, the degree of control of learning in training content design should be situation-determined rather than pre-determined by consultants.

The role of the learners' experiences*:* This tenet holds that as adults grow, they accumulate a reservoir of experiences that ought to form the basis for new learnings. While adolescents see life experiences as mere events and happenings and allow others to define who they are, adults define their personalities (who they are) by their volume of experiences. The heterogeneity in the quality and quantity of adults' experiences informs their biases, prejudice and mental attitude, which often pose challenges to adult education and educators. In this wise, any programme or training that discard or disregard adult learners' previous experiences could be misconstrued as a rejection of their personalities; by implication, such training goals and objective might not be achieved. Hence, the need for adult educators to develop capacities and techniques capable of synchronizing diverse learners' experiences with a view to leverage them. Therefore, this necessitates adopting experiential teaching techniques such as group discussion, problem-solving activities, simulation, workshop, and collegial support activities as opposed to the transmittal techniques often used in

adolescent learning. However, in situations where learners' experiences become less important, perhaps by virtue of adult learners' non-familiarity with the training subject matter, the facilitator-directed learning method would prevail.

Readiness to learn: This assumption holds that as an individual matures, on one hand, the biological development and academic pressures to learn decreases, while on the other hand, the pressure to learn is necessitated by individual social roles. In practical terms, adult learners tend to be naturally ready to acquire new knowledge so long it would enable them to effectively discharge their social roles. In a situation when adult learners are not naturally ready to learn, a facilitator could arouse their learning interest through exposure to models of superior performance, the dangers inherent in lagging behind in their areas of expertise, career counselling, among other methods. Some of the factors that could enable or inhibit learners' readiness to learn include, leadership, social interactions among staff, trust and school situations.

Orientation to learning: This principle is otherwise known as *relevance*. As opposed to the adolescent subject-centered orientation to learning, this principle holds that adult learning should be problem-centered and relevant to their social roles. Knowledge acquired from such training should be applicable and practicable while the training last. Therefore, adults embrace training/programmes that enable them to tackle ongoing challenges militating against the discharge of their social roles. In view of this, adult educators are expected to design problem-oriented training contents. For instance, a computer subject teacher who had his pre-service training in Integrated Science would be more than willing to attend in-service training on desktop publishing and Microsoft Suite.

Motivation**:** This assumption holds that the motivation for the adult learner to acquire new knowledge are intrinsic/internal. These include job satisfaction, enhanced self-esteem, additional responsibilities, and improved quality of life, among others. The onus lies on adult educators to develop programme contents that enable adult learners to satisfy these needs.

2.7.2 Criticisms of adult learning theory

One striking point that caught my attention about *andragogy* as conceptualised by Knowles is his ability to accommodate criticisms and convert them to motivation to further develop andragogy as an adult learning theory. As a forerunner of other adult learning theories and models, *andragogy* came under intense criticism and *attacks* by progenitors of education theories and subsequent learning theorists on the following grounds, among others.

First, *andragogy* was criticised for not having a universal definition and position (Rachal, 2002:3).

Second, it was criticised at the onset as lacking sufficient trained educators, which is a requirement for a full-fledged discipline or field of study (Peers, 1958; Hartree, 1984; Loeng, 2018).

Third, it was criticised for solely associating adult learning with the characteristics of adults ignoring disparity in situation, social and political contexts.

Fourth, it was also criticised as lacking empirical evidence (Rachal, 2002).

Fifth, critics argued that there is no clear difference in how adolescents and adults learn.

Sixth, critics opposed it for claiming to be an *"all-situation-fitted"* theory. They claimed its principles could not be applicable in all situations as adults' learning needs differ. (Pratt, 1993)

2.7.3 Criticism addressed

In response to various critique of Adult Learning Theory – specifically andragogy, *Andragogy in Practice Model* was developed as a framework to address the acclaimed weaknesses as depicted in Fig.2. While the core adult learning principles remain, Knowles et al. (2005) expanded the scope of andragogy with *Andragogy in practice model*. The criticism of *"all-situation-fitted"* was addressed by the need to establish the *purpose and goals for learning* as well as the inclusion of suitable subject matter. Suffice to mention the fact that andragogy

has been established as a field of study in many universities in the United States and Europe (Zmeyov, 1998; Loeng, 2018).

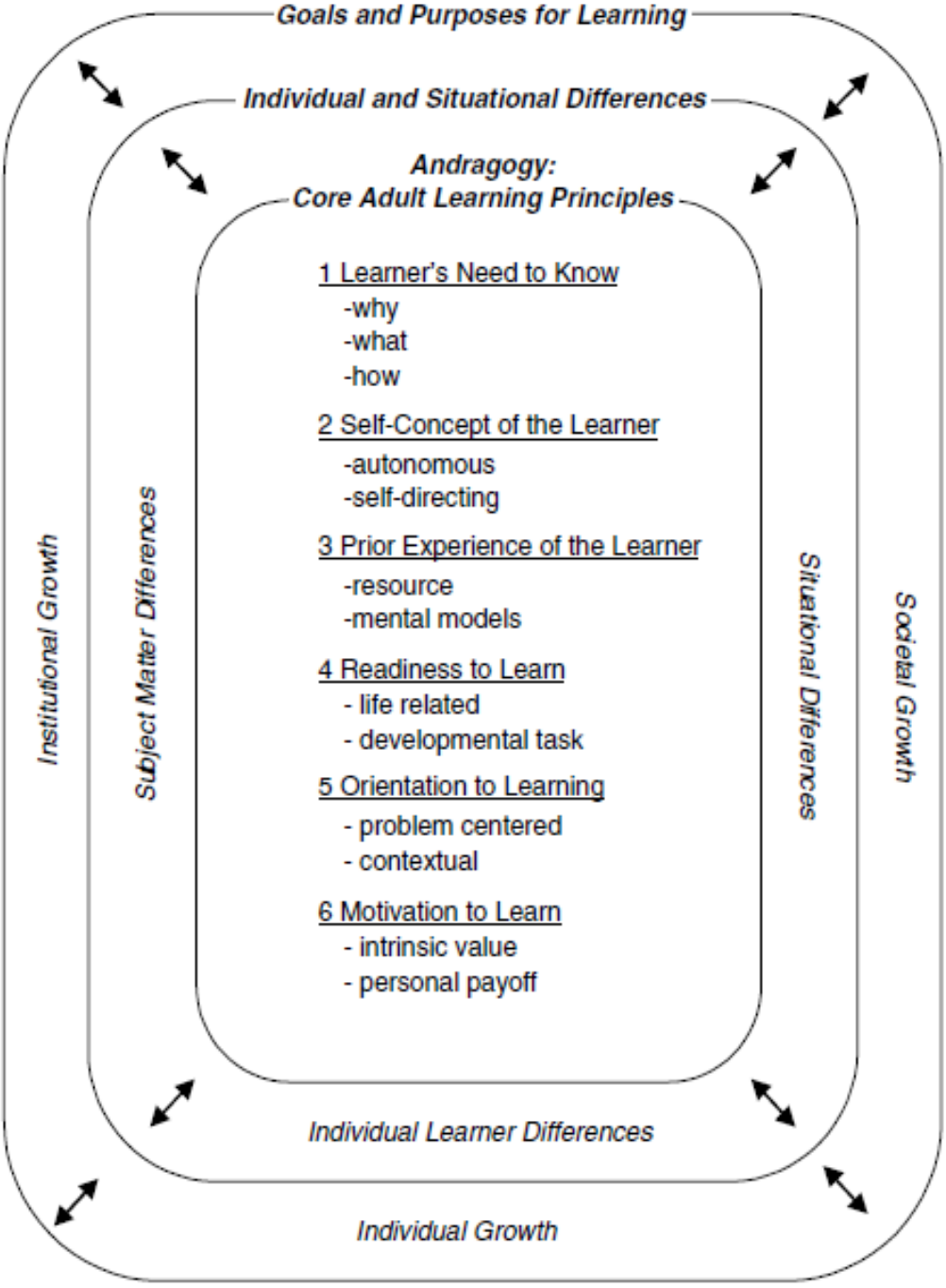

Fig. 2. Andragogy in practice model. Knowles, Holton & Swanson (2005:4).

This model addresses criticism that surrounds variations in a learning situation as well as who benefits from adult learning. Knowles et al. (2005:5) posit that the design and content of adult learning programmes should be goal and

purpose driven. The situation/context in which such training would take place should also be considered. In other words, for an adult learning programme to be successful, adoption and adaptation of templates that worked successfully elsewhere should be avoided; rather, a context-based and situation-fitted approach should be designed. Cognizance should also be taken of learners' differences and how these differences affect their learning (Knowles et al., 2005:153-154). As for the beneficiaries, they note that the aftermath effect of the training must manifest in information of learners' growth, institutional growth and societal growth.

Aptly captioned is the panacea (*The andragogy in practice model*) to the earlier criticism in the work of Knowles et al., titled *The adult learner*.

According to them:

> "we suggest a three-part process for analysing adult learners with the andragogy in practice model:
>
> 1. The core principles of andragogy provide a sound foundation for planning adult learning experiences. Without any other information, they reflect a sound approach to effective adult learning.
>
> 2. Analysis should be conducted to understand (a) the particular adult learners and their individual characteristics, (b) the characteristics of the subject matter, and (c) the characteristics of the particular situation in which adult learning is being used. Adjustments necessary to the core principles should be anticipated.
>
> 3. The goals and purposes for which adult learning is conducted provide a frame that shapes the learning experience. They should be clearly identified and possible effects on adult learning explicated."
>
> (Knowles et al., 2005:157)

They went further to develop and recommend “andragogical learner analysis worksheet” as a tool for contextualising training or programme design for adults, as shown in Table 1. In this tool lies andragogy’s strength in dynamism – meaning its principles could be truly operationalised in various situations and contexts provided they are strictly adhered to.

Table 1: Worksheet for andragogical learner analysis.

Andragogical Principle	Applies to these learners?	Expected Influence of					
		Individual and Situational Differences			Goals and Purposes for Learning		
		Subject matter	Individual Learner	Situational	Individual	Institutional	Societal
1) Adults need to know why they need to learn Something before learning it.							
2) The self-concept of adults is heavily dependent upon a move toward self-direction.							
3) Prior experiences of the learner provides a rich resource for learning							
4) Adults typically become ready to learn when they experience a need to cope with a life							

situation or perform a task							
5) Adults' orientation to learning is life-centered; education is a process of developing increased competency levels to achieve their full potential.							
6) The motivation for adult learners is internal rather than external.							

Worksheet for andragogical learner analysis is a tool designed to enable adult learning programme/training developers to gain insight into prevailing institutional situations regarding training needs, contents design and implementation. This will enable programme developers/facilitators to situate the intending training within the six core principles of andragogy as well as various contexts and situations. Efforts should be made to ascertain the degree to which each of the principles applies to the intended training, individual and situational disparities, goals and purposes for learning, considering the overall individual, institutional and societal benefits. Hence, developers or professional development facilitators are encouraged to adopt the *sheet as a* checklist for training need assessment with a view to adapting the training design and contents to the prevailing situation in such organisation.

Henschke (2013:1-121) paper presentation at the Commission of Professors of Adult Education". A 2013 update of research in andragogy has revealed some new dimensions and another era as we looked toward andragogy's future" (a compendium of 358 documents on andragogy) revealed that andragogy as a theory has come to stay and has made several landmarks in the field of adult education world over.

2..8 Adult Learning Theory and Teacher Professional Development

Consensus exists among scholars that centralized education and school systems, as obtainable in Nigeria, have hoodwinked educations stakeholders – preventing them from appropriating the potentials of what I call “men on the field” (school administrators and teachers) expertise in the national quest to attain excellence in policy implementation, reformations and overall intended national educational aims and objectives (Green, 1997:106). Nigeria's school and education system had relied for so long on external bodies or professional development facilitators, who, most often, are non-education practitioners, to implement teachers’ professional development and strategies for curriculum and policy implementations. In such training, the contents are often predetermined and structured without recourse to teachers' experiences and inputs. Teachers are subject to a transmittal mode of learning that often does not resonate with their instructional and professional challenges. This approach towards teacher professional development has proven not to be efficient in Nigeria and around the globe (Devkota, 2014:15). In view of this, there is a need to decentralise both educational and school systems thereby enabling them to adopt a context-based approach to tackle their respective challenges as touching teachers’ professional development. In doing this, I consider the core assumptions of adult learning theory from Knowles's perspective and its extended version to be appropriate.

The core principles/tenets of adult education (andragogy) have formed the foundations of many adult programmes worldwide. Given the fact that teachers are adults with social roles of *teaching*, the evolution in teaching methodologies and practices is constant and rapid; hence, the need for teachers to keep abreast of

pedagogical changes occasioned by technological influx, school system dynamics and societal changes. In practical terms, in a bid to promote school-based teacher professional development, school administrators could leverage the core assumptions of adult learning theory cum andragogy in practice model, which is the expansion of andragogy core assumptions in the following ways:

Learners need to know: School administrators should employ the principles of andragogical learners analysis to aggregate instructional/pedagogical and professional deficiencies among teachers during instructional supervision or those expressed by the teachers themselves with a view to designing a school-based in-service training (teacher professional development training) capable of ameliorating these deficiencies. This will culminate in improved teachers' performance, higher school efficiency and excellent student learning outcome. In schools where teachers see no reason for professional training, school administrators could as well initiate *consciousness-raising exercises* among teachers towards the need to improve their professional skills, and how such will positively influence students' learning outcomes, thereby changing the societal perspective of teachers' deficiencies as the factor responsible for students' mass failure in public examinations. The psychological influence of this on teachers includes; enhanced morale and improved self-esteem, which culminates in job commitment and professionalism (Beavers, 2009:25).

Learners' self-concept: Arguably, teachers are adults and, as such, assumed to be autonomous/independent and self-directing when it comes to learning as a result of accumulated experiences and familiarity with the subject matter. School administrators, in conjunction with training facilitator(s), should consider adult-learning self-concept as a factor while designing teachers' professional development training(s). Some adult training could accommodate self-directing, thereby giving room for a degree of control to the learners, while some would be facilitator-directed. As a matter of fact, a *worksheet for andragogical learner analysis* (if adopted as a tool for teachers' professional development needs assessment) would have revealed if the training should be self-directing or

transmittal in nature. For instance, back in the pre-COVID-19 era, some teachers could be considered as vast in the pedagogies of their subject matters; professional development training during that era could recognise teachers' self-concept and give allowance for that in training design, contents and implementation. In contrast, the need for teachers to adopt virtual learning during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown and, perhaps, post-COVID-19 might give little or no room for teachers' self-concept and self-directing when it comes to training on how to deploy and leverage the virtual learning management systems for instructional purpose. This is because most teachers, especially in developing countries such as Nigeria, have little or no experience in such subject matter (Sasere & Makhasane, 2020:189).

The role of the learners' experiences: This assumption holds that adult learners have a reservoir of experiences that could serve as a resource for the intended or subsequent training. Teachers are adults; hence, their method of learning cum professional development programme falls within the purview of andragogy. To school administrators, adopting ALT assumptions as a framework for promoting teachers' professional development in schools becomes appropriate. Consensus exists among scholars that successful adult learning programme adopts the principles/assumptions of adult learning theories, including *learners' experience* (Gravani, 2012;419; Gravani & John 2005:316, Puchner & Taylor 2006:992; Meirink, Meijer, Verloop & Bergen, 2009:99). In a school system, the school administrator ought to establish the roles of teachers experiences (if there would be a need for any) in the intending professional development training. If it is established that teachers' experience would count, experiential teaching techniques such as group discussion, problem-solving activities, simulation, workshops, and collegial support activities, among others, should be considered as opposed to the transmittal methods and vice versa.

Readiness to Learn: This principle holds that adult learners are often ready to learn to become more efficient while performing their social roles. By implication, school administrators should ascertain teachers' readiness to learn before

designing and implementing school-based professional development. Worthy of note is that adult readiness to learn has been connected to factors such as leadership, social interactions among teachers, trust and school situations. Hence, school administrators should make efforts to ensure that these factors are in sync before embarking on TPD to achieve teacher readiness to learn. For instance, group discussion and collegial support activities as learning methods (during a school-based professional development) could become ineffective in the absence of trust among teachers, good leadership and sound social interactions among teachers.

Orientation to Learning: This implies that adult learners' training should be problem-centred and relevant as opposed to the subject-centred method of knowledge acquisition. Since the essence of adult learning is to improve the discharge of their social roles, school administrators should tailor school-based TPD along with teachers needs. Such training should enhance instructional delivery as well as professional growth. The knowledge acquired should be practicable during and after the training and its influence should be measurable.

Motivation: This tenet holds that adult learners' motivation for learning are intrinsic/internal. These forms of motivation manifest in forms of job enlargement/ additional official responsibilities, promotions, job satisfaction, recognition, and rewards, among others. In view of this, school administrators should make efforts to establish the intrinsic motivation of teachers in their schools with a view to designing and implementing suitable professional development training(s).

2.8.1 Use of adult learning theory by previous studies

Adult learning theory from the andragogy perspective has been adopted as a theoretical framework for research, adult learning programmes and professional development training across disciplines around the globe since it was popular by Knowles in the 70s Griffith (1991:105; Henschke, 2013:90). Sequel to his conceptualisation of andragogy as a theory, "Knowles successfully tested and refined this theory and design of andragogy on a broad spectrum in numerous settings: corporate, workplace, business, industry, healthcare, government, higher

education, professions, religious education, and elementary, secondary, and remedial education" (Henschke, 2013:1-20).

I would attempt this session to unearth a considerable number of studies and programmes that had adopted andragogy as a framework and their findings.

Gravani (2012:419) in his work titled, "Adult learning principles in designing learning activities for teacher development," found out that the principles/assumptions of adult learning theories enhance teacher professional development.

In another study titled *"*An application of Knowles' theories of adult education to an undergraduate interdisciplinary studies degree program*,"* Harper and Ross (2011:166) succinctly summarised their findings as follows:

> What we have learned from curriculum development, teaching and advising in the interdisciplinary studies program mimics Dr Knowles's assumptions:
>
> - Students like having an end in sight.
> - Students like being "in charge" of their own programs.
> - Students do better when they are actively engaged in their own learning and understand the end to which their learning is leading.
> - Marginal students excel when given responsibility over and guidance toward their own success.
> - Students like education again.

Tannehill (2009:127) carried out the broadest studies on the applicability and influence of the principles of adult education theory (andragogy) in 85 post-secondary school institutions. The result showed that the adoption of andragogy principles had been on the increase due to its positive influence on adult learners' experience.

From a different perspective, despite sufficient research-based evidence that established the worldwide adoption of the tenets of andragogy and their positive influence on adult education, Carlson, Padron and Andrews (2018:41) argue that “few original research studies have been completed on evidence-based instructional strategies for adult learners in library studies. Additional and more robust studies are needed to establish that andragogy is transferable to library settings and to further examine and address the needs of adult learners in library instruction settings”.

The result of a mixed method study conducted by (Remenick & Goralnik, 2019:24) to investigate andragogy in an as-yet unstudied setting—an outdoor science education event (HJA Day) shows that “andragogy fits well within the HJA Day framework. As a result, participants generally experienced positive outcomes that matched their educational goals (Remenick & Goralnik, 2019:34).

In a study titled “Pedagogy to andragogy: Assessing the impact of social entrepreneurship course syllabi on the millennial learner,” McNally, Welsh, Mengel, and Papageorgiadis (2019:871) investigated how educators can influence the disposition of their students by adopting an andragogical learner-centred syllabi. The result shows that “Those syllabi that conformed to the andragogical principles … led to the formation of more positive attitudes than the more traditional pedagogical ones,” McNally, Welsh, Mengel, & Papageorgiadis (2019:885).

Going by the above empirical evidence, one could infer that adult learning theory (andragogy) having weathered series of criticisms, had become a reference point in the field of adult education around the globe. Its principles formed a sound framework for programme facilitators, adult educators, professional development programme developers and post-secondary school adult education departments and institutes.

2.9 Chapter Synopsis

This chapter unpacked the framework of the theories that underpinned this study. It examined the distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory and their relevance to this study. To do this, the chapter started by defining a theory,

followed by looking at the origins and principles of both theories. In addition, various views of the proponents of these theories and how the theories had been criticised were also discussed. Finally, the implications of these theories on teacher professional development were analysed.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.0 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the theoretical framework, while this chapter will review related literature. The chapter starts by giving an overview of secondary education in Nigeria, followed by conceptualisation of leadership and teacher professional development (TPD). Various approaches to teacher professional development and its realities in developed and developing economies were discussed. Specifically, much attention was given to the practice of TPD in Nigeria. The chapter also examined school-based TPD, education policy statement and how it relates to TPD, roles of school administrators in TPD, empirical findings and finally, related leadership concepts and theories.

3.1 Secondary School Education in Nigeria

The pre-independence education system in Nigeria was greatly influenced by the British education landscape by reason of colonisation. Hence, the content needs to be reformed to reflect the national education objective and aspiration. After independence, the country developed, published and enacted the first National Policy on Education (NPE) in 1977. The policy had been revised five times to accommodate national developmental goals and various dimensions of changes within the societies in 1981, 1988, 2004, 2007 and 2014, respectively (FME, 2014: viii). In 1973, the National Curriculum Conference recommended that the existing curriculum be reviewed. This led to the adoption of the 6-3-3-4 system of education in 1977, which was further reviewed in 1981. The newly adopted system of government gave impetus to the implementation of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) scheme (Okafor, 1993:3-4).

The 6-3-3-4 system of education in Nigeria is subdivided into primary, secondary and tertiary levels. The system entails six years of primary school, three years of Junior Secondary School (JSS), three years of Senior Secondary School (SSS) and four years or more of higher education. During this period, the secondary school comprised both the junior and senior secondary school levels. The system suffered setback traceable to implementation deficiencies such as poor social infrastructure and lack of qualified manpower capable of operating and teaching students the use of the equipment that was deployed to secondary schools. (Uwaifo & Uddin, 2009; Asaaju, 2015). Obanya (2012) affirms "that the 6-3-3-4 reform has not perfected Nigeria's learning curve on the development of education. This could not happen as the essential tenets of popular participation in articulating and implementing the intended reforms were not respected."

At the inception of the country's Second Republic in 1999, the democratic government instituted the Universal Basic Education (UBE) as an instrumentation for enacting the United Nations Education For All (EFA) in the country. However, in a bid to accommodate societal changes, development and workforce demand, as well as reflect various national needs, the 2004 and 2007 policy reforms became necessary. This was indicated in the report of the Presidential Task Team on Education (PTTE) that the focal point of the policy reformation "was a radical modification of the inherited colonial education system, which was considered elitist and too literary-oriented" (FRN, 2011: 14).

These reforms led to another system of education known as 9 - 3- 4; nine years of Basic Education (Primary 1 - JSS III; and Senior Phase SSSI – III) (Akanbi & Abiolu, 2018:486). The 2014 version of NPE, according to FME, 2014:x), highlights and emphasises "consolidation of pre-primary, primary and junior secondary education to a 10-year basic education in line with UBE Act." Drawing from the 2014 National Policy on Education, Nigeria now practices 1-9-3-4. This implies one year of early childhood education, nine years of basic education (Primary 1 - JSS III) and Senior Phase SSSI –III and four years or above in higher education.

In Nigeria, The National Policy on Education empowers the 36 state governments and the FCT to legislate and establish secondary schools within the NPE framework. Worthy of note is that the administration and funding of junior secondary schools is the joint-responsibilities of the UBEC, Federal and the State government, while the Senior Secondary Schools are managed and funded by the individual state government. (Oyewole & Alonge, 2013).

In addition to the state-own secondary schools, the federal government also established and solely manages Federal Government College (FGC), otherwise known as Federal Unity Colleges in all the federation states. Currently, there are 104 Federal Unity Colleges in Nigeria. The rationale for the establishment of FGC is to foster national unity and oneness (Ibrahim, 2015). The Ministry of Education, through the NPE, permits volunteers to establish secondary schools in the country with strict adherence to the policy guideline for the provision of secondary education in Nigeria. Drawing from the previous account, the *modul operands* vis a vis policy framework of secondary education in the country is the same in federal, state and private-owned secondary schools.

3.1.1. Junior Secondary School

As earlier indicated, JSS 1-3 is the final phase of basic education and the bridge between primary and senior secondary education. The objectives of this phase are to meet the educational needs of the citizens by producing students who are self-reliant and as well as capable of proceeding to the senior phase of secondary school. These objectives of junior secondary schools were captured in the NPE (2014) as follows:

> a. Provide the child with diverse basic knowledge and skills for entrepreneurship and educational advancement:
> b. develop patriotic young people equipped to contribute to social development and the performance of their civic responsibilities.

c. inculcate values and raise morally upright individuals capable of independent thinking. and who appreciate the dignity of labour; and

d. inspire national consciousness and harmonious co-existence irrespective of differences in endowment, religion, colour, ethnic and socio-economic background (FME, 2014:12).

3.1.2 Promotion

Upon completing the basic education, students can choose to be independent, having acquired requisite skills through vocational education contained in the curriculum. Alternatively, students can decide to proceed to Senior Secondary School. However, the prerequisite for promotion to the SSS phase is Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) and/or Junior Arabic and Islamic Studies Certificate Examination (JAISCE) (FME, 2014:14).

3.1.3. Certification/ Qualifying Examinations

At the completion of the SSS phase, students sit for final examinations in all 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). These examinations are conducted by statutory examination bodies, namely, West African Examination Council (WAEC) and National Examination Council (NECO). The prerequisites for admission into a tertiary institution are a minimum credit grade in at least five subjects, English Language and Mathematics inclusive (Ige, 2013:2).

3.2 School Leadership in Retrospect

School leadership, administration and management have received increased global attention among scholars, policymakers and governments since the beginning of the 20th century (Asuga, Scevak & Eacott, 2016; Hallinger & Kovačević, 2019; Shaked, Benoliel & Hallinger, 2020). There is no consensus among scholars on which construct is most suitable among the trio of school leadership, school administration, and education management. Contextually, Bush (2006) argued that education administration is adopted in the United States,

Canada and Australia, while education management is used in Britain, Europe and Africa.

To some scholars, “education administration” transcends education stakeholders within the immediate school environment. It involves the influence exerted by external education stakeholders such as government, policymakers and parents in the day-to-day operation of the schools. While “education management” means the appropriation of human and material resources towards the achievement of educational goals. For quite a long time, these perspectives of leading in the education sector do not translate to school effectiveness. Instead, school administration and management connote maintaining the status quo to uphold the prescribed standard in an organisation, including schools (Ofoegbu & Obiweluozor, 2015).

Hallinger (1992:40) asserts that the “school unit is responsible for the initiation of change, not just the implementation of change conceived by others.” It then follows that the attainment of educational objectives is a function of effective school leadership as opposed to maintaining the status quo. This implies that school leadership, otherwise known as site leadership, involves the school administrator(s) affecting changes and taken necessary initiatives beyond policy prescriptions to attain school effectiveness.

Notably, studies on school leadership emanated from the western context but gradually spread to other parts of the world. The construct of school leadership is so strategic that it has been directly associated with school effectiveness (Dampson Havor & Laryea, 2019). The importance of school leadership in the pursuit of educational goals and objective makes it the second in order of importance to classroom teaching in relation to school effectiveness (Bush & Glover, 2014; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2019). School leadership connotes the totality of school administrators’ effort to “galvanise available educational resources towards achieving educational objectives” (Ogundele, Sambo & Bwoi, 2015: 92). In performing this role, school administrators are often saddled with instructional and administrative responsibilities.

Ofoegbu and Obiweluozor, 2015:40) noted that the roles of school leaders are becoming complex and demanding due to “societal dynamics occasioned by value-change in education stakeholders’ expectations” as Bush and Glover (2016:85) noted the increased responsibilities they are faced with daily. Unlike the pre-modern age when the traditional “heroic” leadership syndrome was prevalent in schools. Nowadays, changes in societal expectations, accountability, population explosion and privatisation of education in some contexts have given school management a new outlook beyond mere administration. Hence the need for re-conceptualisation of school headship.

The quest for the right construct that would ensure accountability that culminates in school effectiveness becomes preferred among researchers and practitioners, which led to the adoption of “school leadership” in the education administration and management (Bush 2006; Grootenboer, Edwards-Groves & Rönnerman, 2019). The concept is relatively new in some parts of the western culture and non-western contexts. For instance, not until recently, “studies, policies and enactment of school leadership as an effective leadership model for achieving school effectiveness remained at the nascent stage in Africa” (Asuga, Scevak & Eacott, 2016:382), Latin American Flessa, Bramwell, Fernandez, et al. (2017) and Gulf Cooperation Council countries. Hallinger's (2018) analysis of the African knowledge base in education management and leadership revealed that studies in school leadership and management are still evolving. According to him, scholarly literature from the African continent dates back to the early 1980 and started attracting attention in the last eleven years. Adegboye (2013) asserts that the education system in Nigeria is highly centralised, thus, the little literature on distributed leadership as a form of school leadership emanatde from the Western world.

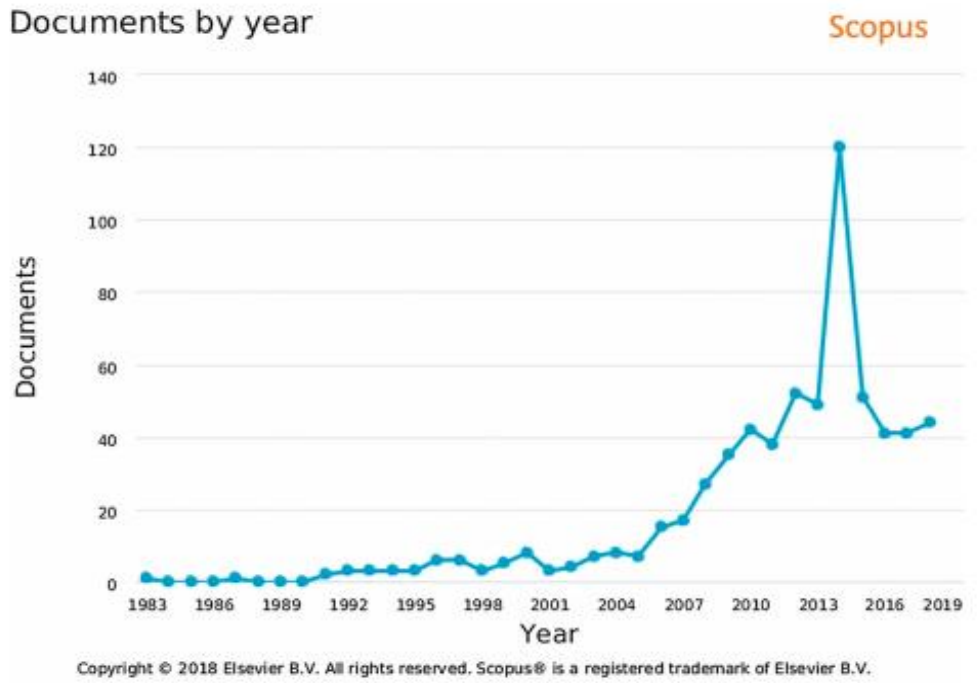

Fig. 3. Literary distribution on school leadership in Africa.

As evidenced in Fig.1., studies on school leadership in Africa are still nascent, with scholars from South Africa leading the field in Africa. Notably, the most cited articles on educational management in Africa were authored by non-African authors (Hallinger, 2019:544). Previously, African indigenous intellectual structure and knowledge based on school administration and management skewed towards leadership styles and teachers' job satisfaction, motivation, performance and commitment; on-the-job leadership capacity building and the emergence of school principals. This accounts for the dearth of research on the roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development in Africa and specifically in Nigeria.

This is consistent with the findings of Bailey, Purinton, Al-Mahdi, and Al Khalifa (2021) in a developing economy like Nigeria. Their study investigated school leadership in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) cultures. They assert that “little work has been done on school leadership in low-performing schools in the GCC countries.” It was reported that bureaucratic and centralised education system in practice in such economies accounts for challenges that mitigate the enactment of school leadership. “School leadership has become an international priority on the education policy agenda, so the question arises as to which policies would achieve

successful school leadership" (Vaillant 2015:4). This is a call to re-awaken researchers and policymakers on the need to formulate policies that foster and prioritise school leadership as against the age-long bureaucratic educational system that prioritised school administration.

3.3. Conceptualising School Leadership

Given the above background, irrespective of the newness and conception of school leadership across contexts, there is no universally acceptable definition of school leadership (Cuban, 1988:190; Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999; Yukl, 2002:4). However, I want to quickly discuss a few school leadership conceptualisation and models in the educational management community in recent time.

Conceptualising school leadership from the distributed perspective. Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001: 27) contend that "school leadership transcends the heroic roles of school principals and what they know." They maintain that school leadership rests on the components of leaders, followers and situation. This perspective of school leadership was succinctly captured in their conclusion as follows:

> While individual leaders and their attributes do matter in constituting leadership practice, they are not all that matters. Other school leaders and followers also matter in that they help define leading as practice. Further, the situation surrounding leaders' practice—material artefacts, tools, language — is also a constituting element of that practice and not simply an appendage (Spillane, Halverson & Diamond, 2001: 27).

This perspective revolves around activities that translate to leadership and not the roles inscribed in positional duty rosters of formal leaders; hence the enactment of school leadership is seen as a practice rather than a role.

As indicated by Yukl (2002:3) leadership comes with the intentional social influence exerted by an individual or a group of people over an individual or group to condition organisational activities and relationship to attain organisational

objectives. This implies that first, social influence in leadership is intentional; second, it could be exerted by an individual or a group of people over an individual or a group of people; and finally, the influence is geared towards attaining a goal.

Gunter (2016) further reinforced this perspective in a study titled “Intellectual histories of school leadership: Implications for professional preparation.” According to him:

> School leadership is directly linked to organisational purposes (planning, human resource management, marketing, and budgets). Trained and accredited educational professionals in schools and businesses (e.g. entrepreneurs, philanthropists, consultants) work on schools' organisational efficiency and effectiveness to deliver data-driven outcomes from pedagogy and the curriculum (Gunter, 2016:29-30).

This is to say that school leadership entails galvanising and appropriating resources and support from education stakeholders by school administrators towards attaining a high level of efficiency and effectiveness while keeping the focus on the school vision.

Another model of school leadership was conceptualised from a transformational standpoint by Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2012). This model was one of the widely adopted school leadership models in education administration and management. This model features the following tenets; setting directions, developing people, redesigning the organisation and improving the instructional programme as its core tenets.

Setting directions: Since the school administrator is the school's vision bearer, the onus lies on him to build a shared vision and goal consensus among the staff. He is responsible for motivating them even in the face of challenges until the set goal is achieved. Similarly, he sets very high expectation that stimulates the staff to be effective and efficient with the teachers' attendant influence of such expectation from the students.

Developing people: This entails providing personalised support, intellectual stimulation and modelling valued behaviour, belief and values. Staff vary in

professional and personal needs, strengths and weaknesses. Hence, this tenet holds that school administrators provide individualised support for school staff members through social intelligence. Leaders are also required to challenge the status quo held by their staff concerning their jobs, stir creativity in them, and motivate them to sustain a high level of efficiency. As a mentor and role model, school administrators are expected to “walk the talk,” typify success and instil optimism in the staff.

Redesigning the organisation: This principle comprises three components: strengthening school culture and building structures to enable collaboration and engaging parents and the wider community. Emphatically, school leaders should create an ideal psycho-social school environment where trust and cohesive school culture and shared vision are prioritised. School operations should be structured to accommodate staff contributions in the decision-making process, foster collegial support and professional development, and distribute leadership roles among staff. Expectations and contributions of the hosting communities are also germane in school leadership.

Improving the instructional programme*:* This entails fixating on instructional development or professional development of staff since school effectiveness revolves around this. School leaders are expected to map out strategies for enacting-school based professional development. Leithwood and Sun's (2012) model of school leadership forms the basis for a plethora of studies in the 21st century and is acclaimed to be the most widely cited in the school administration community (Sun & Leithwood, 2015; Berkovich, 2016; Gumus, Bellibas, Esen, & Gumus; 2018).

However, Leithwood and Sun's transformative model of leadership has also come under criticism among scholars. Leveraging on Bacharach’s (1989) criteria for evaluating theories and Van Knippenberg and Sitkin's (2013) criticism of this model of leadership, Berkovich (2016) criticised the Transformative Leadership Model for; lack of clear conceptual definition; confounding behaviour with their effects; unclear explanation of how transformative leadership affects the outcome and the role of the moderating variables and proliferation of concepts.

Another remarkable contribution that influenced and shaped school leadership outlook in the education management community is the work of Leithwood, Harris and Hopkins (2008) titled, *seven strong claims about successful school leadership* (Bush & Glover, 2014:561). Their work drew extensively from the international literature on practices/factors that constitute successful school leadership (Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2008:27). The core of their research work reflects the tenets of transformational leadership, distributed leadership, and leaders' personality traits on school effectiveness. In addition, they claim that administrators indirectly improve teaching and learning through their influence on teachers and their working conditions.

Despite varying nomenclature or definition ascribed to the concept of leadership by various scholars, their points of intercession is the convergence around influence, vision and value. Leadership is a process that influences people to achieve specific goals. Leaders develop a vision for their organisation based on their personal and professional values and then communicate this vision to their staff and other stakeholders. “The philosophy, structures, and activities of the organization are designed to support the shared vision” (Bush & Glover, 2003:5).

Drawing from the above literature, Spillane et al. (2001) and Leithwood and Sun’s (2012) perspectives on school leadership both agree on a transformative model of leadership. However, while the former criticises the heroic leadership dimension of leadership, the latter upholds the leader as the vision bearer whose role is to transmit his vision to the follower and stimulate them towards its achievement. The work of Leithwood et al. (2020) abridge the most widely accepted and cited dimensions of the school leader in the 21st century: transformational, distributed, instructional, and teacher leadership Leithwood et al. (2020:16). Drawing from the above literatures, the contemporary school leadership transcends heroic leadership, hence the need to spread over leadership over a team of leaders with nomenclatures such as school management team, school board, school management committee and school management.

3.4 Conceptualising Teacher Professional Development

Teacher Professional Development (TPD) has been conceptualised with nomenclatures by scholars in the domain of professional development. These include Continuous Teacher Professional Development (CTPD), In-Service Training (INSET), Teacher Development (TD) refresher courses and Teacher Education. Irrespective of the nomenclature, central to all forms of professional development is the need to inculcate into the participants' new knowledge and skills that culminate in improved performance and efficiency (Olakulehin, 2007:138). Educational institutions are the engine room of development in all societies and the drivers are the teachers. Hence, it becomes imperative for the teacher to consistently develop themselves via various windows of development at their disposal (Akpan, Ita, 2015:66-67).

Kutsyuruba (2003:11) defines teacher professional development as a component of continuing teacher education that focuses on enhancing pedagogy, the adaptation of teaching to student needs, classroom management skills and establishment of professional culture that is premised on shared belief in turn fosters collegiality. Day (1999.4) argues that teacher professional development can be broadly divided into two categories: learning experiences that occur naturally and those that are planned and intended to be beneficial to the individual, group, or school. Activities in the latter category can take many forms; however, all contribute to improving the quality of education in the classroom.

3.4.1 Transition from traditional professional development to need-based teacher professional development

The long-time traditional approach to TPD is a once-off, one-shot, top-down model where teachers become students and the hired education consultants become teachers.

Teacher professional development has largely been criticised for several reasons, such as the short time spent on training and the lack of teachers' involvement in planning and implementation. Furthermore, many criticise professional development for being non-practical and not providing feedback. For instance, Steyn (2010:171) found out in a study that participants of traditional TPD organised

by the Department of Education were dissatisfied with the implementation of such a programme. Participants' dissatisfaction was centred on non-professionalisation on the part of the presenters, repetition of what is already known, and overdependence of theory rather than practical.

There is a growing body of research focusing on addressing the inadequacies that characterise traditional professional development with a view to attaining a paradigm shift from ‘one shot’, ‘sit and get’ workshops to a comprehensive and need-based TPD (Hunzicker, 2011:177). According to Hunzicker (2011:179), the following checklist typifies the characteristics of an ideal TPD.

Table 2: Hunzicke’s Checklist for Effective Teachers' Professional Development

Effective professional development for teachers: a checklist.	**Yes**	**Partial**	**No**
Supportive • Does it combine the needs of individuals with school/district goals? • Does it engage teachers, paraprofessionals and administrators? • Does it address the learning needs of specific schools, classrooms, grade levels and/or teachers? • Does it accommodate varying teaching assignments, career stages and teacher responses to educational innovation? • Does it accommodate individual learning styles and preferences? • Does it integrate teacher input and allow teachers to make choices?			

Job-embedded • Does it connect to teachers' daily responsibilities? • Does it include follow-up activities that require teachers to apply their learning? • Does it require teachers to reflect in writing? **Instructional-focus** • Does it emphasise improving student learning outcomes? • Does it address subject area content and how to teach it? • Does it help teachers to anticipate student misconceptions? • Does it equip teachers with a wide range of instructional strategies? **Collaborative** • Does it engage teachers physically, cognitively, and emotionally? • Does it engage teachers socially in working together toward common goals? • Does it require teachers to give and receive peer feedback? **Ongoing** • Does it require a high number of contact hours over several months' time? • Does it provide teachers with many opportunities over time to interact with ideas and procedures or practice new skills?			

• Does it 'build' on or relate to other professional development experiences in which teachers are required to engage?			
Note: Checklist was previously registered on the ERIC database as ED510366 (Hunzicker, 2010).			

The checklist indicates that for a professional development approach to be considered effective, such training should be supportive, job-embedded, instruction focus, collaborative and ongoing. In a study that investigated best practices in teachers' professional development in the United States, Desimone and Garet (2015:253) highlighted the features of successful TPD as: content focus, active learning, coherence; sustained duration and collective participation.

Similarly, in a study that examined the characteristics of a teachers' professional development program for differentiated instruction in mixed-ability classrooms on teachers' and students' achievement, Valiandes and Neophytou (2017:135) found out that that the programme was successful and the success was attributed to the following characteristics of the programme:

> (a) the response to teachers' needs by providing a program focused on both content and pedagogical knowledge, (b) the duration of the program, (c) the initial training and the follow-up training sessions, (d) the collaboration and communication with colleagues and experts, (e) the constant, on-site support and help during the implementation and (f) the development of personal skills for reflection and self-evaluation of teachers.

This implies that, for TPD to be considered successful, such needs to be teachers'-need-oriented, continuous, give room for feedback and be contextualised.

3.5 Traditional Versus Innovative Forms of Teacher Professional Development

Traditional teacher professional development typically involves attending workshops and seminars led by experts in the field. These experts share their knowledge and experience with the attendees, who then take what they have learned back to their classrooms. This type of professional development can be very beneficial, as it allows teachers to learn from those who have a wealth of experience. While this is still an important part of professional development, there has been a shift in recent years towards a more holistic approach that takes into account the whole teacher, not just their teaching methods.

This shift has been driven by a recognition of the importance of teacher well-being in promoting student learning. Well-being is a broad concept that includes factors such as job satisfaction, work-life balance, and mental and physical health. A teacher who is happy and healthy is more likely to be effective in the classroom and better able to support their students. In addition, the new paradigm provides teachers with opportunities to learn from each other and past experiences. This shift was informed by the recognition that teachers are the best experts on their own practice and that they need to be actively involved in their professional development to be most effective.

During traditional professional development, teachers are passive, with little or no contribution to their learning. They have no input into the planning, the content and the implementation of such development training. Most often, this form of TPD is centralised and the venues are out-of-site as they are determined by the organiser(s). The effectiveness of this form of TPD has largely been contested by scholars and teachers over time (Van Veen, Zwart & Meirink, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2017).

The contemporary form of TPD is referred to as the innovative form of TPD. Here, TPD is teachers-need-based and are site-based or school-based. Training contents are tailored alone to the needs of the participants. The resource persons are often drawn from school site, which creates room for collegiality and excellent

programme management (Contuk & Atay, 2021). “Quality professional development engages teachers in inquiry about the concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation, and reflection, and provides them with the opportunity to make connections between their learning and their classroom instruction” (Borko *et al*., 2010:549). Consensus exists among scholars that school-based TPD is more effective than off-site ones (Van Veen, Zwart & Meirink, 2012). Darling-Hammond (2017) maintains that need-based, work-focused and job-embedded form of teacher professional development has long-lasting effect on teachers.

3.6 The Realities of School Leadership in Developed Countries

School leadership had long assumed a new dimension in the developed contexts. It has become a “potentially valuable tool for engaging the talents and enthusiasm of far more of a school's stakeholders than traditional, top-down governance systems” (Harris, 2016:35; Castillo & Hallinger, 2017:215). Consensus exists among scholars that the era of centralised school management is fast becoming a thing of the past (Meade & Gershberg, 2008:304). For instance, school leadership in the United States was highly autonomous until the first half of the 21st century. During the period, states and local and federal governments were more committed to school administration and management, and so were their contributions. These tiers of government contributions to the country's education system ratio then stood at 60%, 30%, and 20%, respectively (Edward & DeMatthew, 2014:5).

This contribution to the educational sector naturally translates to the level of control by each tier of government. However, the new school reform of the 1960s witnessed increased federal government contribution to education due to its initiatives such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation and the Race to the Top programme. This also increases the level of government participation but without corresponding control in school administration in the United States context. The individual state is responsible for policy formulation and implementation. By implication, school leadership and teacher professional development rest heavily on individual states and school communities. School leadership and management have shifted “from didactic, central office-managed workshops to include more

peer-led learning opportunities" (LeChasseur, Donaldson & Landa, 2019:935). This idea is associated with the fact that policymakers shun policies that require accountability and compliance from the school administrators without considering schools' contextual peculiarities.

School administrators are the mediators of policies between the Ministry of Education and the teachers. This agency role requires the administrator's negotiation of the legitimacy of specific policies and the possibilities of their implementation in their respective schools. Spillane and Anderson (2019:32) succinctly captured this and concluded that school leaders are caught in the middle between teachers and policymakers who have different expectations and norms about what it means to be a professional educator. According to them, leaders used a variety of tactics in a bid to legitimize accountability and policy and position themselves in relation to external policymakers and school staff (Spillane & Anderson, 2019:32).

Given the decentralised model of school administration in developed countries such as the USA and the United Kingdom, school administrators constantly face the challenge of maintaining a balance in policy and policymakers' expectations considering school configuration peculiarities and the workability of such policies in their schools (Spillane, Reiser & Reimer, 2002:393). Similarly, Hallinger, Heck and Murphy, 2014:20) contend that "balancing the needs for teacher autonomy and systemic uniformity, therefore, represents a primary task of school administrators." This situation is more challenging in developing economies where education administration is highly centralised, thereby forcing school administrators into the predesigned mode of policy implementation models by the Ministry of Education with little or no room for innovation.

Given this, school leadership scholars argue that one of the requisite qualities required of a school administrator is "sense-making skills" (Watkins, Anthony & Beard, 2020:1). It connotes how individuals and groups (including school administrators) make sense of the world around them. In this case, policy messages vis a vis school reality (Watkins, Anthony & Beard, 2020:2). Spillane and Anderson (2019:6) describe this as a "micro-sociological approach to sense-

making," with three distinct constructs: framing, footing, and social tactics. With this in mind, school administrators are saddled with the responsibility of enhancing teacher professional development by planning and enacting school-based teacher professional development.

From the above background, teacher professional development in the Western context has become part of school administrators' responsibilities. There is a plethora of evidence and consensus among scholars that school administrators play vital roles in teacher professional development (Bredeson, 2000; Chalikias, Raftopoulou, Sidiropoulos, *et al.*, 2020; Bada, Tengku Ariffin & Nordin, 2020). The current trend of accountability in Western school education landscape demands that school administrators be held accountable for students' learning outcomes. This shift had repositioned the school principals from mere school administrators to school leaders. They are responsible for teachers' capacity development at their school level and are somewhat answerable to all education stakeholders, such as federal, state and local district government and the parents.

Similarly, Makhasane (2020:175) asserts that "the roles of principals in the twenty-first century have changed considerably. To this effect, principals ought to possess leadership skills and knowledge that they can apply to address the demands of the twenty-first century." Murphy and Shipman (1996:25), in a paper presented during the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, titled, "Interstate school leaders licensure consortium: A standards-based approach to strengthening education leadership," highlighted sustainable school culture, staff development and instructional leadership as well as nurturing as part of school principals' leadership qualities.

In a study that investigated the roles of the school principal in teacher professional development, Bredeson and Johansson (2000:385) identified four areas in which school principals can positively influence teachers' professional development. These include: "the principal as an instructional leader and learner, creating a learning environment, direct involvement in the design delivery and contents of professional development, and the assessments of professional development outcomes." They went further to describe the school principal as a steward, a

model, an expert, an instructional leader, a communicator, a supporter, and a manager in teachers' professional development at the school level. They also found out that school principals contribute positively to teacher professional development by:

> aligning professional development with schools and teachers' needs, empowering teachers as decision-makers to identify needs, developing ongoing planning processes, creating dialogue on teacher professional development, supporting a variety of learning opportunities for teachers, and focusing on student learning (Bredeson &Johansson, 2000:355-396).

This implies that teacher professional development responsibilities rest heavily on the school principals, from planning through execution to evaluation. He is responsible for aligning the school goals with teachers' personal development and students' learning outcomes (Bredeson & Johansson , 2000:395).

3.7. The Realities of School Leadership in Developing Countries

School leadership was one of the highlights of the Jomtien United Nations Education Forum of 1990 in Thailand. Unfortunately, not much was indicated about how school principals could promote teacher professional development. Strategies on policy formulation and implementation of best practices in school leadership cum decentralised education system in developing countries were part of the conference's focal point.

Literature confirms that centralised education system in developing countries hoodwinks and incapacitates middle-level education administrators, preventing them from discharging their professional duties and making them more administrators whose role is to supervise policy implementation rather than being overall instructional leaders (Al-Mahdy, Emam & Hallinger, 2018:199).

Going forward, the subsequent Word Education Forum conference in Dakar, Senegal, between April 26th – 27th, 2000, centred around the assessment of the impacts of the previous reform in the 1990 conference. Surprisingly, the Jomtien Framework for Action implementation review revealed that decentralisation of

school and education management remained a major educational challenge in many African countries. This notion reads in part under section 5 - “Improving management and governance” as follows: “… decentralised education management and governance by building the necessary capacity at the level of implementation for facilitating the participation of all the education providers parents communities and learners to guarantee responsiveness to changing needs” (Barry & UNESCO, 2000:32). This implies that the traditional top-down approach to TPD is still prevalent, for the most part, in many African countries. As part of strategies to improve school leadership, some countries, including Nigeria, adopt the instrumentation of School Management Team (SMT). SMT functions include assurance and promotion of teacher professional development at various school levels, which culminate in overall school effectiveness.

3.8. School Management Team: An Integral Part of School Leadership

Realising that heroic school leadership is deficient led to the quest for a more effective school leadership model among scholars of school administration, management, and policymakers. Failure to take cognisance of “other leadership sources within the school hampers student learning outcomes (Lu & Hallinger, 2017:238). This has led to the decentralisation and devolution of school leadership and management in developed countries such as the USA, Canada and the United Kingdom (Lu & Hallinger, 2017:252). Decentralisation and devolution of school management as a framework for school leadership were entrenched in their education policies and enacted in schools. The enactment, in many instances, necessitated the adoption of the School Management Team (SMT).

School Management Team (SMT) is a body that comprises school stakeholders’ representatives charged with the responsibility of ensuring that schools adhere to the expected standard that guarantees school effectiveness. Harris (2004) indicated the significance of the roles of SMT as a factor that is capable of influencing school leadership.

3.9. Distributive Dimension of School Leadership and the Instrumentation of SMT

Consensus exists in extant literature that contemporary school leadership transcends “solo leadership” (Leaf & Odhiambo, 2017:34). Hence, the need for the distribution of leadership practices in schools. Though the traditional leadership structure still exists in many countries, leadership practices and enactment had taken a new dimension. Leadership responsibilities are often distributed by school principals among teacher leaders such as vice-principals, heads of departments, year or block heads and even school prefects.

In Nigeria, the leadership roles of vice-principals and heads of departments are provided for in the national and state teachers’ manual. The year heads are leader teachers who are charged with overseeing student grade/class level affairs from Junior Secondary School 1 to Senior secondary School 3. He superintends over the affair of each class by ensuring that teachers deliver lessons as and when due; he coordinates their examinations; serves as the go-between between the school principal and each grade/class level. He also performs other functions as deemed necessary by the school. This was corroborated by Humphreys (2010:147) in a study that investigated distributed leadership and its influence on teaching and learning. He found that:

School principals play important roles in distributing leadership among teachers to enable them influence their colleagues more effectively towards school effectiveness. According to him, school administrators “prioritise monitoring of student progress by teacher leaders via analysing examination results, supporting students’ learning, creating a positive learning environment and communicating with parents.”

School principals also delegate responsibilities to other teachers according to their expertise. However, the distribution of leadership responsibilities could be contextual in some instances and could be dependent on some factors peculiar to each school. For instance, Ho, Shaari, and Kang (2021:16) indicated that factors “such as the vice-principal’s expertise and interest, the extent to which the principal

is willing to empower the vice-principal and the alignment, or otherwise, of values between the vice-principal and principal" could determine the extent of distribution of instructional leadership between school principals and vice-principal. In addition, Spillane (2006:215) contends that leadership practices in schools entail "spreading over leadership practices over school administrators subordinates according to their expertise."

As indicated in chapter two, his theory of distributed leadership hinges on three elements: "collaborative leadership distribution, collective leadership distribution and coordinated leadership" (Spillane *et al*., 2007:114). Collaborative leadership distribution implies the act of synergising the activities of leaders in an organisation at the same time and place towards achieving a common goal. Collective leadership distribution entails leaders working separately but interdependently towards achieving the same goal. Coordinated leadership distribution takes place when leadership activities take place in sequence, meaning that the completion of a leader's activity means the beginning of another leader's activity (Ho, Shaari, & Kang, 2021:3). The need for distributed leadership practices is in tandem with the establishment of School Management Team in Nigerian schools.

In Nigeria, the Education Reform Act 2007 mandated all schools to establish a School Management Team with a view that their functions will contribute to school leadership and effectiveness. Similarly, in recognition of the importance of SMT, the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) made provision for the roles of the School Based Management Committee (SBMC) in her "Guidelines for UBEC teacher professional development programme" to include "monitoring what goes on in the school. …carry out oversight functions to ascertain if training of teachers is going on in the school" (UBEC, 2019:27). Nwangwa & Omotere (2013:165) noted that SMTs are expected to monitor the performance of staff and learners of the school using the National Policy on Education as a guideline. They are expected to contribute to the evaluation of teachers' in-service activities and the overall staff development plan…SMTs are expected to provide continuous training and development of the teachers and non-academic staff, especially on ICT integration.

Drawing from the above, it is obvious that SMTs play a vital role in school effectiveness through its involvement in various functions, including promoting teacher professional development. As part of school restructuring and the constitution of SMT, school administrators perform certain leadership functions through SMT; these include; “managing conflict and team-building, delegating, consulting and networking” (Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2008:30).

3.10. Teachers Professional Development in Nigeria

The pre-service training of teachers is insufficient to enable them to cope with the ever-evolving classroom and educational realities in modern-day society. Hence, the need for regular professional development among teachers. Previous studies showed that ongoing professional development that adds to the knowledge and experience of a teacher would deepen their learning, capabilities, and skills and make it possible for new opportunities in their instructional practices.

The Nigeria Policy on Education (NPE) states that the minimum qualification for teaching is the National Certificate of Education (NCE) (FGN, 2004:S.8, ss.70b; Oyebade, 2012:126). The policy equally provides that teachers are mandated to attend regular professional development training as indicated in the policy document of the Nigerian Teacher Registration Council (NTRC) titled “Professional standards for Nigerian teachers" (FME & TRCN, 2010:58). Table 3 shows the Mandatory Compulsory Professional Development for teachers at all levels of education in the country.

Table 3: Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers

Programme	Teaching levels /credit units		
	Primary	Secondary	Tertiary
TRCN capacity building Workshops & Roundtables.	50	50	30
Annual Conference of Registered Teachers	30	30	50
Approved Stakeholders' Seminars & Workshops	50	50	50
Minimum credits to be earned within three years	130	130	130

As indicated in table 3, teachers are expected to obtain the above credits that correspond to the level of education where they teach within a period of five years (FME & TRCN, 2010:58).

Table 3 depicts the ideal and expected teachers' participation in TPD. Nevertheless, in reality, teacher professional development in Nigeria is enacted via three broad approaches: the first is the personal pursuit of professional development by teachers themselves in the form of further studies, which culminates in additional/higher degree. The second approach is government-organised teacher professional development (Federal Ministry of Education, 2014). The third approach is collegial support.

Further studies are a form of teacher professional development that entails teachers' enrolment for programmes such as the National Certificate of Education (NCE), Bachelor of Education, Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE), Master of Education and PhD programmes. This approach is mainly financed by teachers themselves, except those who embark on such programme(s) with study leave with pay as approved by the Ministry of Education through TESCOM and the endorsement of the school administrators. Individual pursuit of professional development takes forms of part-time, full-time or distance learning, depending on teachers' preference. Shaibu (2016:20) regarded these forms of professional development as "sandwich and other part-time courses aimed at enabling teachers to obtain higher qualifications."

The second form of teacher professional development is organised by the government and International Development Partners (IPDs) through education agencies and parastatals such as Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC), State Universal Basic Educations Board (SUBEB) and International Development Partners (IDPs) (Mkpa & Ekoh-Nweke, 2019:30). This form of TPD is associated with the bureaucratic form of education in practice in the country (Bush & Glover, 2016:80). Thus, the ideation and implementation of TPD in Nigeria are top-down from the Federal Ministry of Education through various State Ministries of Education to the Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM). The centralised form of TPD is enacted through "in-service training, such as induction programmes, ICT training, workshops, conferences, seminars and refresher courses" (Akpan & Ita, 2015:66).

The third form of professional development is collegial support. Collegiality as a form of professional development cuts across all forms of ideas and teaching skills shared garnered among novice and experienced teachers or teachers of the same status. These are traditional forms of teacher professional development.

The deficiencies associated with the highlighted traditional forms of professional development triggered the curiosity for improved approach(es) or framework(s) among education practitioners, scholars and policymakers. For instance, Shaibu (2016:20) noted that the one-off traditional TPD is not sufficient to keep teachers abreast of the fast-paced evolution in the education milieu. The subsequent section discusses, in detail, the usual teacher professional development approaches in Nigeria.

3.11 Approaches to Teacher Professional Development in Nigeria

The traditional form of teacher professional development is still prevalent among teachers in the Nigerian secondary school system. The most adopted approaches are discussed in this session. These include enrolment for higher degree programmes, sandwich/part-time programmes, conferences, workshops, instructional supervision, seminars, and refresher courses.

3.11.1 Enrolment for higher degree programmes/professionalisation route

Enrolment for higher degree programmes is one of the major ways through which teachers embark on TPD. Teachers with lower/minimum qualifications, such as the National Certificate of Education (NCE), enrol in degree programmes to upgrade their qualifications. Those with NCE enrol for Bachelor of Education (B.Ed), those possessing B.Ed enrol for a Master's degree programme and those with a Master's degree enrol for PhD (Oyebade, 2012:129). The professionalisation route is a means of becoming a professional teacher. Until the last three decades in Nigeria, untrained teachers formed an integral part of Nigerian teachers. A situation that put the nation's education landscape in jeopardy. Against this background, the Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) was established in 1993. The entire vision and mission of TRCN can be summarised in "the quest to make teaching a profession" as obtainable in other professions such as law, medicine and engineering. In view of this, existing untrained teachers in the school system were mandated by the Federal Ministry of Education with the instrumentation of TRCN with an ultimatum in time to enrol for a programme such as Post-graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) with a view to having the requisite knowledge in education for effective practice.

3.11.2. Sandwich/part-time programme

Sandwich is a part-time programme TPD targeted at primary and secondary school teachers willing to acquire additional degrees during long vacations. The sandwich programme often culminates in a higher degree (Shaibu, 2016; Little, 1990). It runs between 6 to 8 weeks with intensive training from 8 a.m.-6 p.m. throughout the week, including weekends (Oyebade, 2012; Shaibu, 2016). This is suitable for teachers who have a time constraint and other responsibilities that prevent enrolment for full-time programme (Duru-Uremadu, 2017:44) Sandwich programme is run by tertiary institutions in the country. Teachers enrol for such programmes of their own volition and in most cases, at their own cost.

3. 11.3. Extrinsic Motivation and Support

Extrinsic motivation and support multi-faceted ways through which school principals promote teacher professional development (Liu & Hallinger, 2018:502).

Teachers Code of Conduct 2013 edition – a policy statement of the Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN 2013:22) states that teachers in administrative cadre (such as the Head of Department, vice-principal and school principals) should support their subordinates through; inspiration, motivation, amiable personality, objectivity, democratic behaviour and academic development. Encouragement to embark on professional development, recommendation and approval for further studies and classroom observation by the school principal, and nomination for conference, workshop and seminar are other forms of motivation and supports given by the school principals to teachers to embark on TPD (Omar, Zulazmi, and Zainal,2020:30). Akinfolarin and Emetarom (2017:171) highlighted "provision of supervision, motivation, ensuring the professional development of staff and application of other supportive management functions as ways through which school principals support teacher professional development" in Nigeria. Shikokoti, Okoth and Chepkonga (2021:36) reported that school administrators' encouragement and motivation translate to improved teacher performance and job satisfaction.

3. 11.4. Collegial support

Collegiality is a form of school-based professional development where teachers within or another department support one another towards effectiveness in instructional delivery skills, content knowledge, classroom management and other areas that contribute to optimum teacher job performance. Collegial support connotes assistance received by both novice and experienced teachers from their colleagues in the areas of; instructional delivery, classroom management, lesson note preparation and interpersonal relation skills, as well as instructional supervision. Sun *et al.* (2014:5) noted that through informal settings and spontaneous discussion, teachers share experiences about student learning, the uses of instructional materials, and observe one another through observation.

In formal cases (novice-experience teacher collegiality), the experienced teacher takes the lead position or mentors the novice teacher. This often occurs spontaneously in school and many times without formal arrangement. In some contexts, such mentoring roles are formal, where novice teachers are assigned

mentor teachers. Harris (2008:173) noted that ‘‘Many people will have the potential to exercise leadership in any organization but the key to success will be the way that leadership is facilitated, orchestrated and supported.

Collegial support among teachers could be horizontal or vertical in nature (Wedekind and Buthelezi 2016:69). Vertical collegial supports are the forms of support received by teachers from senior/ more experienced teachers in the administrative cadre – The head of department, vice-principal and school principal. From a distributed point of view, lead teachers assume active roles in school management, mediating leadership roles such as mentoring. This practice has been found out to be positively related to teacher professional development and overall school effectiveness (Admiraal *et al.*, 2019).

Horizontal collegial supports are support received from colleagues on the same level as teachers seeking such support. Either way, collegiality engenders cross-pollination of ideas among teachers of all ranks. Literature reveals that trust, loyalty and openness among teachers constitute important components of collegial support (Shah & Abualrob, 2012). Collegiality prevents teacher isolation, builds competence and confidence among teachers, increases teacher knowledge, enhances adaptability, helps teachers cope with complexity and uncertainties, and engenders positive attitudes towards teaching (Shah & Abualrob, 2012).

A study on elementary school teachers' experiences indicate that teacher leaders made direct contributions to new teachers’ instructional practice by offering them content and grade-specific professional development, as well as guidance from other instructors at the school with more experience. As such, teacher leaders played intermediary leadership roles by advancing initiatives set forth by principals in order to support collaboration among peers (Anthony *et al*., 2019:75). Similarly, an intervention study that investigated “Schools as professional learning communities: What can schools do to support the professional development of their teachers?” indicated that “formal and informal teacher groups working and learning together positively culminated in teacher professional development” (Admiraal *et al.*, 2019:681).

In a study, Spillane, Shirrell and Adhikari (2018:608) found out that teachers whose students had improved performance were likely to have sought guidance from the teachers they considered experts.

3. 11.5 Conferences

One of the major approaches adopted by the government and IDPs to teacher professional development is conferences. In most cases, conferences are organised by state government via the Ministry of Education, sometimes in conjunction with SUBEB, private organisations and International Development Partners such as the World Bank via UNESCO. Here, the organisers are responsible for the planning and implementation. It implies that teachers have not a contribution to both the planning and implementation process. Evaluation of the influence of conferences is seldomly carried out. The facilitators are often those deemed to be experts in the field of education who are majorly drawn from tertiary institutions and research institutes. There are agitations among education practitioners and stakeholders that outsourcing facilitators to this set of people does not yield the desired result due to their inability to resonate with the realities in the classroom (Mkpa & Ekoh-Nweke, 2019:21) contest "that reality, therefore, is that if teachers must develop sound professional competence, they must go beyond the limited professional opportunities offered by the Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC)." There is a disconnect in the content of such trainings and the challenges teachers face in the classroom. In the area of attendance/participation, teachers are being nominated by school principals in conjunction with the Head of Departments (HODs) (Akinfolarin and Emetarom (2017:174).

In relation to the influence of TPD on teachers, opinions are divided among teachers and scholars on the influence of conferences on teachers' efficiency and effectiveness in the classroom (Essien, Akpan, & Obot, 2016:34). Gümüş and Bellibaş (2021:20) found out in a study that teachers' professional development "focuses on teachers' individual needs and classroom practices through mentoring, coaching and action research enhance teachers' efficiency." Similarly, Fan *et al.* (2021:348) submitted that attending professional conferences serve as

an eye-opening experience for teachers. During conferences, attendees gather amazing knowledge and research-based ideas that continue to make a difference in classroom practices. The sessions at such conferences provide educators with numerous solutions to common problems they face in their day-to-day teaching practice.

3. 11.6. Workshop

Workshops as an approach to TPD are problem-solving-oriented training that focus on acquainting teachers with evolving techniques and skills. Discussions and practical sessions constitute components of the workshop. Workshop duration varies according to its content and objectives. Noting the importance and benefits of a workshop, Maheshwar (2012) concludes that the essence of an educational workshop includes seeking, exploring and identifying solutions to a problem. It also permits the extensive study of a situation, its background, and its social and philosophical implications. Workshop enables teachers to be trained on new teaching practices and be aware of new innovations in education.

Workshops are usually organised to address specific areas of needs in the school system. These areas include lesson planning, writing behavioural objectives, teaching techniques preparation of objective tests, micro-teaching, and test construction, among others.

3.11.7 Seminar

Seminars are a component of teachers' professional development with a focus on upgrading teachers' pedagogical skill set. The education landscape evolves rapidly with the influx of technology and societal development. For instance, e-learning as a means of instructional delivery (across all levels of education) became the order of the day during the COVID-19 pandemic from mid-year 2020 to the present. Teachers and school administrators who were previously unskilled in adopting technology in instructional delivery were mandated by their school management to attend seminars to acquire the requisite knowledge and skills. Teachers in the

pre-COVID-19 era attended statutory seminars as prescribed by education authorities with a view to adding to their pedagogical skill sets.

3. 11.8. Instructional Supervision

Supervision is an oversight function in an organisation between an experienced official and a less experienced one. School administrators are saddled with both administrative and professional duties. One of the administrative duties is the instructional supervision of class teachers. Regular instructional supervision processes engender school effectiveness and efficiency (Achimugu, 2016:666). In the school system, instructional supervision is a form of school-based support rendered in most part by experienced teachers and school administrators to less-experienced or novice teachers with a view to improving their instructional delivery and, by implication, their professional practices (Peter, Gitonga, & Kubai, 2021:38). In his statement, Ayeni (2012:63) asserts that instructional supervision connotes a school self-evaluation internal mechanism adopted by school administrators to achieve school effectiveness. He further stressed:

> The areas that usually attract the attention of secondary school principals include the planning of lesson notes, effective delivery of lessons, assessment and quality of tests/assignments given to students, improvisation and utilization of instructional materials, providing regular feedback on students‘ performance, adequate keeping of records and appropriate discipline of students to ensure quality assurance in secondary schools.

This was corroborated by Ayeni and Akinfolarin (2014), who said instructional supervision entails “checking professional records, giving teachers feedback, monitoring timetables, checking to mark pupils’ attendance register.”

Approaches to instructional supervision include “clinical supervision, collaborative supervision**,** mentoring, peer coaching …” (Tesfaw & Hofman, 2014: 84). *Clinical supervision* is a face-to-face approach where the supervisor and the supervisee

are both present in the same location, such as classrooms. For the most part, the school administrator/supervisor visits the classroom to observe teachers teach and give feedback that informs the supervisee's next instructional delivery. The objective of clinical supervision is “to provide support to teachers (to assist) and gradually to increase teachers’ abilities to be self-supervising” (Snow-Gerono, 2008: 1511). Collaborative supervision is both vertical and horizontal in dimension – it comprises more experienced teachers on the same level. It gives room for the cross-fertilisation of ideas with peer coaching, cognitive coaching, and mentoring as its core. Mentoring is an instructional supervision approach where an experienced teacher or teacher in an administrative cadre is assigned to mentor a novice teacher. This entails supervision from lesson plans, lesson note writing, classroom management and pedagogical skills. Peer coaching is a cross-pollination of ideas and skills among teachers of the same status.

Kituku, Piliyesi and Anyona (2020) in a study that measured the influence of principal instructional practices on student academic in public secondary schools in Mwatate sub county, Kenya, concluded that among many instructional supervision practices that can influence students' academic achievement include, principals checking and signing professional documents, classroom observation, impromptu class visitation, students' academic progress monitoring, and organising in-service training.

Noting the areas instructional leadership should focus on, Al-Mahdy, Emam and Hallinger (2018:193) highlighted “articulating an inspiring vision of learning for the school, setting attainable goals, clarifying standards of teacher and pupil performance, supporting teacher actions” as areas that influence teacher professional development. As indicated in the previous studies, instructional supervision positively influences teachers’ professional development if effectively enacted. Worthy of note is that the indices/components of instructional supervision could vary contextually, yet, the aim is to improve teachers’ efficiency and, by implication, student learning outcomes.

3.12. School-Based Teacher Professional Development

Teachers are the final arbiter of the school curriculum and their agency is significant as to what becomes of curriculum objectives as often reflected in student outcomes (Zhang & Wong, 2017). Strategies for curriculum implementation lie with school administrators and teachers. For the most part, the school administrators interpret policies and standards for curriculum implementation through staff briefings and meetings (Horsford, Scott & Anderson, 2019).

However, there are occasions where staff briefings cannot convey the much-needed information to the teachers, hence, the need for training session(s) at the school level, otherwise known as School-Based Teacher Professional Development (SBTPD).

SBTPD is an important process that can help teachers continually improve their teaching practice and better support their students' learning (Zhang & Wong, 2017). TPD can take many forms but typically involves some combination of formal professional learning (such as workshops, courses, or conferences) and informal learning (such as collaborative planning and reflection with colleagues).

TPD can effectively build teachers' capacity to implement evidence-based practices and improve student outcomes. For example, a study of a school-based TPD programme in China found that participating teachers reported increased knowledge and use of effective teaching practices (Zhang & Wong, 2017). And their students achieved significantly higher literacy and numeracy scores. When planning TPD activities, it is important to consider the needs of the teachers and the context of the school. TPD should be aligned with the school's vision and goals, and teachers should be given the opportunity to play an active role in planning and implementing TPD activities. Unless a school has a school-based professional development plan consistent with its vision, general workshops and other initiatives will lack meaning (Mestry, Hendricks & Bisschoff, 2009:488).

There is no one-size-fits-all approach to TPD, but by carefully planning and tailoring TPD activities to the needs of the teachers and the school, it is possible

to create a TPD programme that can positively influence the teachers' practice and student learning.

By policy, SBTPD is a routine and usual practice in schools in developed countries (Darling-Hammond, Wei & Andree, 2010). In these countries, school administrators are responsible for organising regular training. On the contrary, the reality is different in developing countries due to the centralised school system, lack of clear-cut policy on SBTPD and ultimately, lack of funds. Despite no provision for SBTPD in some developing economies including Nigeria, some school administrators still find ways to support their teachers' professional development through cut-to-size training sessions. In such cases, school administrators utilise the resources at their disposal to organise such training.

3.13 Empirical Evidence on the Influence of Traditional TPD on Teacher Professional Development

The result of a study conducted by Essien, Akpan, and Obot (2016:34) "shows that in-service seminars and workshops have no significant influence on a teacher attending in-service seminars and workshops on the academic performance of students." This is to say that traditional seminars and workshops do not influence teacher professional development.

3.14 Education Policy Statement and Teacher Professional Development in Nigeria

The general policy guiding the operations of secondary education in Nigeria was formulated and enforced by the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) as enshrined in the National Policy on Education. The rationale for this was premised on the fact that the nation has the same objectives for all secondary schools in the 36 states of the federation, including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), which is solely managed by the Federal Ministry of Education. As indicated earlier, the responsibility of school administration**, l**eadership and management of secondary schools in Nigeria is the joint responsibility of state, federal and local governments through their respective Ministries of Education with the exception of Federal Government Colleges (Oyewole & Alonge, 2013) .

Each state has an arm or unit of the state Ministry of Education called the Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) which regulates the operations of secondary schools. Nevertheless, there are state governments that do modify this nomenclature. For instance, the Lagos State Government, through Education Reforms Law in the year 2005, proscribed TESCOM and replaced it with six education districts headed by tutors-general/permanent secretaries (TG/PS) who were not experts in the field of education (Thenationonline, 2018). Upon the exit of the then administration, the subsequent government re-introduced TESTOM into the state ministry of education with a mandate for “maintenance of comprehensive and up-to-date personnel records for the teaching service and ensure staff welfare and training” (Thenationonline, 2018; Lagos State Government, 2020).

Nevertheless, due to varying degrees of priority accorded to the administration and management of secondary education across states, school leadership and teachers' professional development outlook and configurations differ. The Federal Ministry of Education is the overall education policy-maker, arbiter and umpire to the state government and private schools in relation to the enforcement of education policies. Occasionally, FME facilitates school administrators' and teachers' professional development through government parastatals such as the National Institute of Education Planning and Administration (NIEPA) and the National Teacher Institute (NTI). For instance, the federal government facilitated the training of school principals and heads of schools through the instrumentation of NIEP and NTI (NIEPA, 2020; NTI, 2020).

Suffice it to mention at this point the fact that the Nigeria Education Reform Act 2007 advocates education decentralisation through the establishment of a School-Based Management Committee (SBMC) with teacher professional development as one of its responsibilities (UBEC, 2019). Unfortunately, there were no blueprints for their rules of engagement vis-a-vis teacher professional development in schools other than mere oversight functions.

A critical review of policy statements titled Ekiti Teaching Service Manual 2011 and Nigeria Educational Reform Act 2007 revealed that made no provision for the roles of the school principal (school administrator) as the provider of teacher professional development in schools. For instance, in Ekiti State Teaching Service Manual (2011), teachers' professional development was not stated as the responsibility of school principals. This condition of the service manual typifies the school principals as administrative staff and a policy conveyor between the school and the Ministry of Education (Ekiti State Government, 2011). The teaching service manual made minimal provision for teacher professional support through heads of departments (HODs) as follows:

- to organise both co-curricular activities, subject association and other extra duties, as may become necessary to better understand his departmental subject areas.
- to offer such professional advice as may be necessary to the search committee to the principal
- to obtain up-to-date information of his department in a subject area for the purpose of effective instruction by subject teachers.
- to supervise all preliminary activities of subject teachers in his department preparatory to their actual class teaching. (Ekiti State Government, 2011:19).

This phenomenon appears to replicate in many developing countries, including Lesotho. Lensing the challenge of divorcing the efforts of school administrators from school effectiveness from an asset-based perspective, Makhasane and Khanare (2018) proposed an inside-out strategy that prioritises leveraging on school-based resources (starting from the school administrators) as a panacea to improving low-performing school in developing countries.

This was corroborated by the report of Global Partnership for Education (2019:10), which highlights the challenge of teacher professional development in developing countries as follows: "(1) weak subject content and pedagogical knowledge and classroom skills; (2) poor quality pre- and in-service teachers training and

inadequate standards certification and accreditation procedures and (3) lack of ongoing support from headteachers in schools and districts.

Guidelines for UBEC Teacher Professional Development Programme 2019 is one of the most comprehensive policy frameworks developed for the deployment of teacher professional development in Nigerian schools. It articulates the procedure for the enactment of TPD from planning through implementation to the evaluation phase. Since funding and the framework emanates from UBEC and the federal government, the *modus operand* and accountability still go to them (UBEC, 2019: 6-7). To a great extent, the framework is a combination of a centralised and decentralised teacher professional development model. The programme encapsulates training for both school administrators and teachers selected from various schools based on established criteria. The implication is that not all school administrators and school principals would be trained at the same time. The timeframe allotted for all teachers to benefit from the programme is 3-4 years (UBEC, 2019: 15-16).

A critical review of this document reveals that school administrators are, to a degree, saddled with the responsibilities of organising the Mandatory Teacher Professional Meetings (MTPM). MTPM is a recommended one-hour meeting to be held after school hours. The meeting should be organised and coordinated by the school administrator who trains or delegates such training to a competent teacher. It is recommended that each school should organise at least eight MTPM per term (UBEC, 2019). Despite its good intention, there are gaps in the implementation phase at the school level, especially in the areas of school administrators' competence which has been a long-time challenge and funding (Olayiwola, 2015; Field Observation, January 14, 2021). Moreso, the programme was designed and deployed with little or no input from school administrators, "who are the final policy arbiters and implementers" (Hosseingholizadeh, Amrahi & El-Farr, 2020:2).

3.15 School Administrators' Leadership Roles and Teachers' Professional Development

School leadership has been adjudged the second most crucial factor in school effectiveness, teacher job performance and ultimately, student learning outcome (Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2019; Bush & Glover, 2016). This area in education administration has attracted intense global attention from government, policymakers, researchers and virtually everyone in the education value-chain (Pont, Nusche, Moorman, *et al.*, 2008). There is a plethora of evidence that supports the claim that school administrators play pivotal roles in enhancing teacher professionalism in schools (Olujuwon & Perumal, 2014; Ngema & Lekhetho, 2019; Chalikias *et al.*, 2020; Fairman *et al.*, 2020; Mohd Hata, Mohd Nor & Hamid, 2020). Nevertheless, this reality of this claim varies across contexts (Szeto, 2020; Shengnan & Hallinger, 2021). The actualisation of this claim in developed countries is significantly associated with a decentralised and autonomous education system. On the contrary, as seen in the subsequent session in this literature, school leaders in developing economies exert minor or insignificant influence on teacher professional development due to their centralised education system coupled with a lack of clear-cut policies across contexts.

Nigeria has practised a centralised system of education from its inception. This implies that education policies, school administration, management and leadership, and funding, are all centralised. It then follows that the mechanism for school leadership and teacher professional development rest with the government giving little or no room for school administrators' involvement. Bush and Glover (2016:80) noted that "the predominant leadership role is managerial, with accountability to the hierarchy, within and beyond the school." Hence, not so much has been written on school leadership and how school administrators support teacher professional development in Nigeria. This paucity of literature on school leadership in Nigeria (Bada, Tengku Ariffin & Nordin, 2020:20) reflects little practice of school leadership's influence on teacher professional development in Nigeria. I acknowledge the existence of literature in the areas of school administration, however, the majority of these literatures and studies focus on

types of leadership, leadership style and school effectiveness, principals' personality traits and teacher job performance, motivation and teacher job satisfaction, as correlates of school effectiveness among others.

Contemporary school leadership and management requires requisite training in the art and science of management and leadership as obtained in developed countries like the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Finland and Canada. On the contrary, consensus exists in the literature that principalship in African schools are without formal training – a practice that gives room for deficiency in the discharge of their duties, including the inability to contribute effectively to teacher professional development. Most often, their administrative roles are prescribed by the ministry of education with little or no room for contribution to TPD.

Drawing from this background, school administrators' leadership roles in teacher professional development are informal, voluntary and unstandardised. Nevertheless, in a study, Ateb, Atsu and Atah (2021) found out that school administrators support their teachers through "orientation of new staff, recommend teachers for the conference, organise a workshop for teachers, encourage teachers to undertake in-service training programme for their professional growth, collaborate with teachers to carry out action research" (Ateb, Atsu & Atah, 2021:40). It should be noted that these forms of supports for teachers were at the volition and discretion of the school administrators and neither a rule of thumb nor embedded in any education policy.

3.16 Selected Related Leadership Concepts and Theories

Scholars have adopted a plethora of leadership theories to lens various studies with a view to answer research questions, understand a phenomenon or find a solution to the perceived problem(s) (Leithwood *et al*., 1999:75). Some of the theories of leadership that adopted in school leadership today have their origins in industries and engineering or assembly plants. For instance, the Scientific Leadership Theory by Fredric Taylor likens man to machine, expecting them to perform and produce in like manner. Its principles are devoid of subordinates'

participation in the decision-making process in the organisations. Similarly, the great man theory assumptions hold that leadership qualities and abilities rest with the positional leader, thereby demeaning followers' capacity to lead (Organ, 1996:1).

By implication, modernisation and the contemporary complex nature of schools and principles of the traditional leadership theories no longer guarantee effective school leadership or overall school efficiency. The weaknesses in some of the traditional leadership theories have led to the evolution of theories that compare with distributed leadership theory in the domain of school leadership. Leveraging the principles of related theories could be beneficial to the education of school administrators. Hence, due to their relatedness and relevance to this study, the following theories are discussed subsequently; participative leadership theory, transformational leadership theory, teacher leadership, teacher leadership model, constructivism theory of learning and communities of practice theory.

3.16.1 Participative leadership

Participative leadership got impetus from Elton Mayo's study on businesses in 1930. Its implementation by Japanese industries in the 1970s resulted in improved organisation productivity. Various scholars have denoted participative leadership as collaborative leadership and or participatory leadership. For the purpose of this study, I will stick to participative leadership. "Participative leadership is concerned primarily with the process of decision-making. This model of leadership emphasises the importance of shared approaches in an organisation, especially in the 20th century (Bush, 2016; Rolková & Farkašová, 2015). Yukl (1994) in Leithwood & Duke (1998:38) typifies participative leadership as indicative of group, shared, and teacher leadership. This emphasises that the core tenet of distributed leadership is rooted in a group with shared responsibilities in decision-making and leadership practices.

Participative leadership entails working with a team, group, or community rather than an individual. This type of leadership entails interdependence and connectedness within an institution as part of a larger system. Participative

leadership also involves empowerment rather than power and control. Furthermore, this type of leadership involves non-positional as well as positional leadership. Also, participative leadership is centralised and learning-oriented Kezar (2001:88).

The relatedness of participative leadership to distributed leadership theory hinges on the centrality of its core principles on group; interdependence, interconnectedness; the interplay of non-positional and positional leadership practice and the collaborative and team-oriented forms of leadership, which are key features of distributed leadership practices (Berkovich & Bogler, 2020). “The approach supports the notion of shared or distributed leadership and is linked to democratic values and empowerment” (Bush et al., 2003:18).

Lawler (1990) succinctly captures the benefits of participative leadership in quantifiable terms as follows:

> improved, more innovative and efficient work methods and procedures; better communication between management and workers across work units; attraction and retention of employees; reduced tardiness, turnover, and absenteeism; greater staffing flexibility; increased service and product quality; higher productivity and output; reduced staff support and supervision requirements; more effective resolution of conflict and reduced number of grievances; better decisions; expansion of staff skills; and improved morale and job satisfaction.

Copland (2001) argues that participative leadership “eases the burden on principals and opposes the view that school administrator should be what he referred to as ‘superhead’.” These highlighted benefits would go a long way in enhancing the enactment of distributed leadership in schools adopted by school administrators both in the design and implementation of school-based teacher professional development as well as overall school leadership.

3.16.2. Transformational leadership theory

Another model of school leadership was conceptualised from a transformational standpoint by Leithwood and Sun (2012). This model was one of the widely adopted school leadership models in education administration and management. This model features the following tenets: setting directions, developing people, redesigning the organisation and improving the instructional program as its core tenets.

Setting directions: Since the school administrator is the vision bearer in the schools, the onus lies on him to build a shared vision and goal consensus among the staff. He is responsible for motivating them even in the face of challenges until the set goal is achieved. Similarly, he sets very high expectation that stimulates the staff to be effective and efficient with the teachers' attendant influence of such expectation from the students.

Developing people: This entails providing personalised support, and intellectual stimulation and modelling valued behaviour, belief and values. Staff vary in professional and personal needs, strengths and weaknesses. Hence, this tenet holds that school administrators provide individualised support for school staff members through social intelligence. Leaders are also required to challenge the status quo held by their staff concerning their jobs, stir creativity in them, and motivate them to sustain a high level of efficiency. As a mentor and a role model, school administrators are expected to “walk the talk”, typify success and instil optimism in the staff.

Redesigning the organisation: This principle comprises three components; strengthening school culture and building structures to enable collaboration and engaging parents and the wider community. Emphatically, school leaders should build an ideal psychosocial school environment where trust and cohesive school culture and shared vision are prioritised. School operations should be structured to accommodate staff contributions in the decision-making process, foster collegial support and professional development, and distribute leadership roles among

staff. Expectations and contributions of the hosting communities are also germane in school leadership.

Improving the instructional programme*:* This entails fixating on instructional development or professional development of staff since school effectiveness revolves around this. School leaders are expected to map out strategies for enacting-school based professional development.. Leithwood and Sun's (2012) model of school leadership forms the basis for lots of studies in the 21st century and is acclaimed to be the most widely cited in the school administration community (Sun & Leithwood, 2015; Berkovich, 2016; Gumus, Bellibas, Esen, & Gumus, 2018).

However, Leithwood and Sun's transformative model of leadership has also come under criticism among scholars. For example, leveraging on Bacharach's (1989) criteria for evaluating theories and Van Knippenberg and Sitkin's (2013) criticism of this model of leadership, Berkovich (2016) criticised the transformative leadership model for; lack of clear conceptual definition; confounding behaviour with their effects; unclear explanation of how transformative leadership affects the outcome and the role of the moderating variables and proliferation of concepts.

3.16.3 Teacher leadership model

Harris (2002) in Harris, Muijs and National College for School Leadership (2003) highlighted four dimensions of teacher leadership as brokering – which entails translating the principles of school improvement to practice through the efforts of teacher leaders. The second dimension is Participative - in this case, teachers leaders play the scaffolding roles by supporting other teachers in implementing school improvement plans. Thirdly, teacher leadership entails meditating – here, teacher leaders are seen as sources of information and expertise to their colleagues. The third dimension is relationship building. Through this, mutual learning and professional learning community evolve.

The work of York-Barr and Duke is significant in the development of Teacher Leadership Model (2004: 289-290). They conceptualise teacher leadership as having seven components: teacher leaders' work conditions, means of leadership,

influence target of leadership, influence intermediary outcome of leadership and learning outcome. According to them, the component of teacher leaders is determined by the qualities of learning, respect from teachers, being learning-oriented and the display of leadership capabilities. Leadership *work* components mean that the work of such a teacher must be outstandingly valued by other teachers and visible in the school community as well as shared among teachers. Conditions as a component of teacher leadership conceptual framework entail supportive culture within the school, supportive principal and colleagues, availability of time and resources, and the opportunity for development. Means of leadership influence is the fourth component of their conceptual framework and entails ways through which teacher leadership finds expression within the school system. These include maintaining a focus on teaching and learning, establishing trust and constructive relationships among teachers, and interacting through formal and informal points of influence. Next are targets of leadership influence. These are the set of people that benefit from teacher leadership within the school system. These are individuals, teams or groups of teachers and students and organisational capacity. The intermediary outcome of leadership is the sixth components of teacher leadership. This means improvement in teaching and learning practice within the school system. The last component of their conceptual framework is student learning. This means that teacher leadership culminates in students learning.

The teacher leadership model of leadership is associated with the empowerment of non-positional teachers with leadership capabilities by entrusting them with leadership responsibilities beyond the classroom (Frost, 2008; Wenner & Campbell, 2016). It is a site-based school leadership model that galvanised the expertise of teachers via a participatory decision-making process, school-based curriculum implementation action plan, micro policy formulation and the actual curriculum implementation strategies (Katzenmeyer & Moller's, 1996: 5). Beyond the decision-making influence of teacher leadership model, studies have shown an association between teacher professional development and teacher leadership.

In their attempt to theorise teacher leadership, Poekert, Alexandrou and Shannon (2016) asserts that teacher leadership fosters professional development among individual teacher and their colleagues, engenders school effectiveness and are instrumental to policy implementation, as often reflected in teachers' quality and student outcomes (2016). It, therefore, implies that teacher leadership transcend decision-making activities; rather, it influences the entire school community (Hickey & Harris, 2005).

The rationale for the choice of teacher leadership theory in this study lies in the intercession of its principles with that of distributed leadership theory. Xie and Shen (2013) corroborated this view in a study that investigated the level of teacher leadership and compared it at elementary and secondary school levels in the USA. They assert that “distributed leadership closely aligned to teacher leadership which includes extending leadership practices to involve teachers in the decision-making process.” More importantly, considering the focus of this study and the theories adopted (distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory), a blend of the benefits of the teacher leadership model with adult learning theory coupled with distributed leadership theory would serve as a veritable tool for school administrators to promote teachers professional development. Poekert (2012:170) contends that there is a “relationship between professional development and teacher leadership because; professional development is both a cause and an outcome of teacher leadership.”

3.16.4 Constructivism theory of learning

The theory draws from interpretivisms paradigm principles (Fung, 2000:154), that there is not absolute truth, rather individual makes meaning or cognition out of a live experience or phenomenon in ways that make realities differ from one person to another (Elliott *et al*., 2000; Ratna, 2015). Generally, the theories assumptions hold as follow; first, there is not absolute truth. Epistemologically, it is believed that individual construction of knowledge is perceptual or personal. The second principle holds that previous knowledge plays a vital role in cognition. In contrast to the generic “pedagogy”, where the previous knowledge of learners does not necessarily form part of the curriculum, the constructivism theory of learning holds

that learners' (adult learners, for example, teachers) previous knowledge and needs should be brought to bear as an integral part of teacher professional development programme. The third principle holds that construct development or cognition is a function of social interaction among people.

Constructivism Learning Theory has three approaches and each dimension with each drawing its identity and principles from various scholars. These include cognitive constructivism, which originated from the work of Jean Piaget 1978 with a proposition that learning occurs as a result of the association between the existing scheme (previous knowledge) and the new material(s). “The cognitive view of learning is teacher-centred, and information must be presented in an organised manner in order to achieve the most efficient learning (Cakir, 2008:194; Ratna, 2015:3). Social constructivism draws from the work of Lev Vygotsky, who contends that cognition is social, cultural and contextual-based which he christened Zone of Proximal development; and thirdly, the *Radical Constructivism* that was developed by Ernst von Glasersfeld, 1974 (Ratna, 2015:4).

The choice of this theory premise on the overlap and resonance of its principles with adult leaning theory (ALT), distributed leadership theory (DLT) and, ultimately, its suitability and the high possibility of success if adopted as a framework for developing a professional development programme. I opine that the interplay and effective blend of the principles of these theories has the capacity to produce an astute school administrator capable of enacting an effective school-based TPD (Fung, 2000:155). Schwier (1995) concurs with this assertion by contending that “learning content, level of the learner and situation will determine what works, where and how in order to obtain some focus in the approach to instructional design. It is necessary to consider the context before deciding on a specific methodology.” Drawing from the overlaps in the principles of theories, it implies that cognisance should be taken while developing teachers' professional development training vis-à-vis the need to prioritise need-informed contents (especially those that draw from teachers’ previous experience of challenges), which resonates with the principles of adult learning theory. The context also

overlaps with the situation as an element of distributed leadership theory and social constructivism – meaning leadership and TPD should be context-based. The former holds that leadership is enacted through a situation, while the former states that cognition is socially mediated among a group of people that share common goals and beliefs (Adom & Ankrah, 2016).

3.16.5. Communities of practice theory

Communities of Practice (CoP) theory was propounded by Etienne Wenger in 1998 (Morley, 2016). It has a semblance of social learning theory, a dimension of social constructivism theory. communities of practice "are groups of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis" (Wenger, McDermott & Snyder, 2002).

The principles of CoP theory, according to Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015), hold that a viable CoP should possess the following characteristics: the domain, the community and the practice.

The domain: A CoP is typified as having an identity that reflects a shared domain of interest and shared competence, a characteristic that differentiates members from people belonging to other communities. Members of CoP value their competencies and tend to learn from one another (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015).

The community: This principle states that in a bid to pursue their interests, members of CoP in their domain engage in information sharing, collaborations, discussions and assisting one another. Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner (2015:2) argue that having the same job or the same title does not make for a community of practice unless members interact and learn together".

The practice: This principle holds that Members of a community of practice are practitioners who, over time, have developed a shared repertoire of resources such as skills, methodologies, experiences, stories, tools, and ways of addressing recurring problems, simply put, a shared practice (Wenger-Trayner & Wenger-Trayner, 2015:2).

In a study on how SMT cooperation translates to collaboration among teachers in Hong Kong, Lu and Hallinger (2017:253) found that adopting strategies in decision-making and leading fosters a significant level of cooperation among teachers. It could be inferred that one of the areas where SMT collaborate within the school is in the area of the community of practice which fosters collegiality among teachers. In another study that investigated the influence of collaboration and mutual supports on teacher professional development, Akinyemi, Rembe, Shumba and Toyin Adewumi (2019:16) found out that teachers who participated in a community of practice benefited in areas of "growth in terms of content knowledge, learnt a new method of teaching and handling learners, positive attitude to work, new skills, improvement with methodologies."

The relatedness of this CoP theory to this study hinges on the theory's applicability to school leadership in a distributed manner as well as its appropriateness as part of the framework for the enactment of school-based teacher professional development. According to Wenger-Trayner and Wenger-Trayner (2015:5), "the first applications of communities of practice have been in teacher training and in providing isolated administrators with access to colleagues. There is a wave of interest in these peer-to-peer professional-development activities."

3.16.6. Professional Learning Community

Professional Learning Community (PLC) is a term in the educational system that connotes a body formed and led by school administrators to foster collaboration among teachers in their areas of specialisation to improving instructional delivery, classroom management and leadership skills. From a global perspective, DuFour affirmed that the most effective school embrace the principles of professional learning communities as tools for teacher professional development that is collaborative, data-driven, and peer-facilitated (DuFour, 2012). PLC can be described as "a group of people sharing and critically interrogating their practice in an ongoing, reflective, collaborative, inclusive, learning-oriented, growth-promoting way" (Stoll et al. 2006: 223). Characteristics of PLC include; shared

values and vision, collective responsibility, reflective professional inquiry, collaboration, group, as well as individual learning is promoted.

Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the review of literature related and relevant to the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in Nigeria. Existing literature on the overview of secondary school in Nigeria in terms of grade levels and certifications were reviewed. School leadership and professional development were conceptualised and located within the extant literature. An attempt was also made to review the literature on transitioning from traditional TPD to innovative TPD as well as various forms of TPD. The chapter further typifies the realities of teacher professional development in both developed and developing countries with emphasis on its operationalisation in Nigeria vis a vis the adopted approaches. Literature on school-based teacher professional development and empirical evidence of the influence of TPD were also reviewed. Relevant policy statements on TPD for secondary school teachers and literature on the leadership roles of school administrators in TPD in Nigerian schools were also exemplified. The chapter ended with reviewing theories related to the two theories adopted in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the review of relevant literature to this study, while this chapter discusses the methodological suppositions that support the study of the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in Nigeria. Consensus exists among scholars on the need for consistency of research purpose and methodology (Dash, 2005:4; Cohen *et al*. 2007; Bryman, 2008; Maree & Van der Westhuizen, 2007:33). This chapter discusses the underlying paradigm, research approach, design, data collection process, selection of participants/sampling, data analysis, research values, ethical considerations and trustworthiness. The rationale for choosing various methodological components is also discussed. Additionally, this section provides a detailed account of methods employed for data collection, context, participants' profiles, researcher's positionality, and observed ethical considerations during data collection. Data analysis is also discussed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key issues discussed.

4.2 Research Methodology

Research methodology refers to the systematic, investigative process adopted by a researcher to study phenomena (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Lor (2017:2) describes methodology as "the study of method… a high-level decision on research approaches, strategy and research design." Drawing from this statement, methodology, therefore, connotes the study of procedures, tools and techniques that allow the researcher to systematically and logically collect data about a problem, analyse it statistically or in discourse to establish patterns, make inferences and draw conclusion(s). Research methodology entails the selection of a paradigm, theoretical model and stages cum the procedure of the adopted design (Igwenagu, 2016:4). It can be considered an approach or perspective used in solving research problems (Alanen & Pulkkinen, 2004). Research methodology

also involves the analysis of procedures, principles and assumptions in a specific approach to enquiry (Kothari, 2004:8). Since methodology means the study of method, method in itself means “procedures and techniques of research, the contents of the research ‘toolkit’, such as sampling, interviewing, surveying, observations, data analysis and their associated instruments, such as questionnaires, interview schedules and observation protocols” (Lor, 2017:2). The interconnectedness of methodology and methods are subsequently and sequentially discussed in this chapter.

To sustain “reading-flow” coherence and sequence in reading this thesis, bearing the goal of the study in mind, the research objective(s), that is (to explore the leadership roles of school administrators in teachers’ professional development in Nigeria with a view to proposing a leadership model for school administrators to promote teachers’ professional development) are highlighted as follows:

- Describe the participants' understanding of teachers' professional development in Nigeria;
- Examine the school administrators’ leadership practices in promoting teachers’ professional development in Nigeria;
- To evaluate the extent the existing school administrators’ leadership practices have influenced teachers' professional development in Nigeria and;
- Propose a leadership model for school administrators to promote teachers’ professional development in Nigeria.

4.3 Research Paradigm

This study was lensed through the interpretive paradigm, otherwise known as the constructivism paradigm. A paradigm is a researcher’s framework/blueprint that guide a study. It represents a researcher’s roadmap about a given phenomenon and how it could be perceived. Paradigm is the art of understanding and articulating the nature of realities or lived experiences. The construct of *paradigm*

was first used in relation to research by Thomas Kuhn in 1962 in his book titled *The structure of scientific revolutions*; according to him, paradigm connotes a "philosophical way of thinking" (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). In his views, Creswell (2009:6) describes paradigms as worldviews. Denzin and Lincoln (2008) conceptualised paradigm as a combination of beliefs that inform action. A paradigm is a 'basic set of beliefs that guides action' Guba (1990:17).

Guba and Lincoln (1994:108) assert that paradigm assists a researcher in understanding what they are about to do and whether they are within or outside of the confine of legitimate research. A paradigm could also be described as a model or framework that informs individual perception of their world (Hennink, Hutter & Bailey, 2011; Punch, 2011). In research, a paradigm is synonymous with the lens through which a phenomenon is studied. It describes the researcher's intent vis a vis his motivation and expected research findings (Botma *et al*., 2010:40). The rationales for the choice of a paradigm in this study enabled me to understand the realities of the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development through the eyes of the participants (the school administrators and the teachers). In view of the importance of paradigm in research as well as the aim of this study, I chose to adopt an interpretive paradigm.

4.4 Interpretive Paradigm

This study was influenced by the interpretive paradigm, otherwise known as the constructivism paradigm because of its principle that holds that individuals construct his/her own reality to the degree of their personal creativity and perception (Dammak, 2019:5). Interpretive paradigm research seeks to understand and interpret human behaviours within a given social context. It entails a subjective action because the social context must make sense to the researcher; also, what is regarded as knowledge is often filtered by the researcher (Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Moreover, interpretivist research entails researchers' quest to understand the "complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it" (Schwandt, 1998: 221). In this case, I engaged participants hoping to perceive or see through their eyes the realities of a

phenomenon of interest. It then follows that it is “a socially constructed activity, and the ‘reality’ it tells us about, therefore is also socially constructed” (Willis, 2007:96). As per the philosophical assumptions of interpretive paradigm, Candy (1991: 432) opined that a phenomenon can only be explained based on a multiplicity of intervening variables such as processes, events and factors involved; it is difficult to attain objectivity, enquiries should focus on an individual perceived meaning other than generalisation or universal laws; the world is a sum-total of multiple tangible and intangible realities; and that research is value-laden.

The interpretivist paradigm has been criticised on the basis that “the knowledge arising from interpretivist research is integrally linked to the participants and the context of the research, meaning that the products of interpretivist research are not universally applicable theories or laws but, rather, rich and contextually situated understandings” (McChesney & Aldridge, 2019:227).

In this study, I had to understand participants’ social context, lived experiences and worldviews in relation to school administrators’ roles in teacher professional development. This serves as the basis for me to understand and interpret their perceptions and actions. Similarly, Cohen *et al.* (2007) submit that the interpretive paradigm mostly concerns itself with individual concern. In this study, I am particularly concerned about how individual participants make sense of the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. More so, given the principle of interpretive paradigm, which states that reality is not objectively determined but socially constructed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008), its adoption and appropriateness in this study hinges on its suitability for the achievement of this study's objectives, which seek to understand the participants' perceptions in their social context in relation to the topic. Participants were allowed to express their lived experiences in relation to their understanding of teacher professional development, types of professional development and the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. This, I believe, ultimately helped shape the outcome of this study.

A paradigm cannot be discussed in isolation without recourse to its components of ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (how knowledge is being constructed) and methodology (the approach of enquiry) (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012:1). Hence, I would discuss a brief overview of these components in relation to the study in the subsequent section.

4.5 The Ontology of Interpretive Paradigm

"Ontology is the study of being" (Crotty, 1998: 10). It connotes a "philosophical way of thinking," which means an individual way of perceiving realities (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:26). Central to the interpretive paradigm ontology is the assumption that there is no absolute truth – individuals construct and make meaning of a given phenomenon based on their personal belief, perception, value and experience (Dammak, 2019). Thus, meaning and reality are socially constructed and are subjective because they vary according to the individual (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). The ontology of the interpretive paradigm affirms that reality is time, context, individual, group organisation and location bound. Hence, such a reality cannot be generalised.

Also, the ontology of the interpretive paradigm believes in multiple realities and that these realities are socially constructed (Crotty, 1998). The rationale for the adoption of an interpretive paradigm hinges on the appropriateness of its philosophical assumptions, ontology and epistemology for this study. Therefore, this study intends to explore/understand the multiple realities of school administrators' leadership roles in teachers' professional development from participants' perspectives in different school contexts using a semi-structured interview which gives room for social interaction. Given that distributed leadership entails the involvement of multiple leaders in overall school leadership, including teacher professional development, their multiple views/ realities on leadership roles informed the appropriateness of this interpretive paradigm.

The interpretive paradigm holds that a researcher must avoid being biased by allowing his views and opinion to be subservient and separate them from that of the participants with a view to retaining the originality and genuineness of data. On

the contrary, Corbin and Strauss (2008:11) argue that that is impossible to separate researchers from the research and analysis they do. This implies that researchers in the domain of interpretive paradigm would ensure that collected data are aligned/thematised to inform their finding and result as well as resonate with the objectives of the study.

There are various paradigms in the field of research with varying assumptions along ontology, epistemology and methodology. The most frequently adopted paradigm in the field of Social Sciences and Humanities where this study falls are Positivism (Bonache & Festing, 2020:104) and interpretivism paradigms. Generally, paradigms in research are categorised into positivism, post-positivism, interpretivism (constructivism), transformative as well as post-colonial indigenous paradigms (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). Suffice to mention the fact that interpretivist paradigm contrasts in some ways with positivism paradigm which holds that there exists a singular reality to be known out and that we all have access to the real world. While “positivists seek to find the truth, researchers operating within the interpretive paradigm believe that a phenomenon under investigation is underpinned by multiple realities (Makhasane, 2014:68). The differences between positivism and interpretivism are described by Carson *et al*. (2001:6) in Table 3.

Table 4: Positivism Versus Interpretivism Paradigm: Ontology, Epistemological and Methodological Perspectives

Ontology	**Positivist**	**Interpretivist**
Nature of 'being'/ nature of the world	Have direct access to real world	No direct access to real world
Reality	Single external reality	No single external reality
Epistemology		
	Possible to obtain hard, secure objective knowledge	Understood through 'perceived' knowledge
	Research focus on generalization and abstraction	Research focuses on the specific and concrete
'Grounds' of knowledge/ relationship between reality and research	Thought governed by hypotheses and stated theories	Seeking to understand specific context
Methodology		
Focus of research	Concentrates on description and explanation	Concentrates on understanding and interpretation
Role of the researcher	Detached, external observer	Researchers want to experience what they are studying
	Clear distinction between reason and feeling	Allow feeling and reason to govern actions
	Aim to discover external reality rather than creating the object of study	Partially create what is studied, the meaning of phenomena
	Strive to use rational, consistent, verbal, logical approach	Use of pre-understanding is important
	Seek to maintain clear distinction between facts and value judgments	Distinction between facts and value judgments less clear

	Distinction between science and personal experience Formalized statistical and mathematical methods predominant	Accept influence from both science and personal experience Primarily non-quantitative

***Source*: Carson *et al.* (2001: 6)**

4.6 Epistemology of Interpretive Paradigm

Epistemology means how we know what we claim to know. It means the process of constructing knowledge and the relationship between the knower and knowledge (Krauss, 2005: 759). The epistemology of the interpretive paradigm holds that knowledge does not exist out there; rather, it is socially constructed through interactions between the researcher and participants to understand a phenomenon through participants' perception (Henning, Van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Thus, the concern of interpretivist researchers is to understand individuals' worldviews vis a vis a phenomenon of interest and the interpretation thereof (Cohen et al., 2012). Given the subjective nature of interpretive paradigm, subjectivists epistemology assumption holds that researchers make sense (create knowledge from multiple realities embedded in the data generated from the participants) of data collected during tier interactions with participants (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Drawing from this background, the appropriateness of subjective epistemological assumptions of interpretive paradigm for this study hinges on the fact that it enabled me to mediate and construct knowledge via my interaction with the study participants by leveraging on multiple realities enshrined in their world-views as touching the realities surrounding the roles of school administrators in promoting teachers' professional development across varying school contexts.

The Axiology of Interpretive Paradigm

Axiology refers to the study of values and how they shape human behaviour and decision-making. In the interpretive paradigm, axiology is characterized by a focus on understanding the subjective experiences and perspectives of individuals and

how these shape their interpretations of the world around them (Simmons,1995). This approach values the importance of individual voices and experiences and seeks to uncover the meanings and values that people attach to their experiences. The axiology of the interpretive paradigm is highly relevant to the study because it helps to frame and guide the researcher's approach to studying the subjective experiences and perceptions of the participants involved.

In the context of the study on leadership roles in teacher professional development, an axiology of the interpretive paradigm is relevant because it enables me explore the subjective experiences and perspectives of the school administrators and teachers involved. Cognisance was taken of the personal values, beliefs, and experiences of these individuals and how these affect their perceptions of leadership and professional development (Scheiner, 2019). By understanding the values that underlie these perspectives, the researcher can gain a more nuanced and holistic understanding of the complex dynamics at play in the leadership of teacher professional development.

Overall, an axiology of the interpretive paradigm is crucial in helping me uncover and understand the subjective values and meanings that shape the experiences and perceptions of the participants involved in the study.

4.7 Methodology and Paradigm Point of Intercession

Extant literature reflects the need to align research paradigm and methodology (Creswell 2012:129; Yin, 2009:24) Methodological process is guided by philosophical beliefs about reality, knowledge and values, otherwise known as a paradigm. It means the theoretical analysis of research (Creswell, 2007:19; Mahlomaholo & Netshandama, 2010; Shannon-Baker, 2016; Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017; McChesney & Aldridge, 2019; Faryadi, 2019). It then follows that, in research, paradigm informs the choice of methodology, while methodology determines research method – approach, design, sampling techniques, data collection and analysis.

This study adopted interpretivist paradigm, qualitative research approach and case study design. Interpretive paradigm concerns itself with the need for the researcher to engage with participants contextually, socially and naturally with a view to understand and interpret the realities of the phenomenon under investigation from their standpoints. In view of this, I was able to engage with the participants in their natural settings to carry out an in-depth investigation on the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development.

Consensus exists among scholars like paradigm Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) that the qualitative research approach is suitable for interpretivist research because it enabled me to achieve the objective of the method adopted in the study by Imoni (2018) while carrying out an in-depth enquiry into a phenomenon of interest through the eyes of participants (Hammersley, 1992). This paradigm complements the qualitative research approach which aims to study and understand participants ' worldview of social and cultural phenomena (Abubakar, Douglas & Sani, 2018).

A case study research design was adopted to explore multiple realities of the phenomenon under investigation across different school contexts. Purposive sampling technique, semi-structured interview (with note-taking) and thematic analysis were adopted as sampling techniques, research instruments and methods of data analysis, respectively.

The rationale for the adoption of the interpretive/qualitative methodology in this study hinges on its suitability to enable me to achieve the objectives of the study, which is to carry out an in-depth investigation of school administrators and teachers' worldview leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in their natural and social contexts (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). Interpretive paradigm studies had also been established as suitable for studies within the qualitative approach (Avramidis & Smith, 1999; McChesney & Aldridge, 2019).

4.8 Research Approach

The three major research approaches commonly adopted in scientific enquiries include: “qualitative, quantitative and mixed-method approaches” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010:11). Qualitative research approach entails the researcher gathering data through the view of the participant by asking both general and broad questions, generating data in the form of words (text); describing and analysing these texts; categorising them into themes and making sense of them (Strauss, & Corbin,1990; Creswell,2009). Interpretation of this approach often has subjective and biased colourations (Fischler, nd:7). According to Shulman (1988:7), “there are times we wish to know not how many or how well, but simply how” one of the strengths of qualitative research that give is an edge over quantitative research approach.

In qualitative research, Creswell (2007:14) notes that the researcher “focuses on the meaning of the participants and describes a process that is expressive and persuasive in language.” This idea hinges on the ontology of the qualitative research approach, which holds that there is no singular truth as reality is socially constructed by an individual based on their perception and experience. This notion was corroborated by Merriam (2009:13), who maintains that the “qualitative approach is concerned with individuals’ opinions, emotions and experiences.” This research approach has greater flexibility considering its ability to adapt to a variety of research including ethnography, phenomenology, case study, narrative research and grounded theory (Smit, 2003). Central to the qualitative research approach is the adoption of observation, documentation, interpretation and analysing of a phenomenon to proffer possible solution (MacDonald, 2012:5). Qualitative research entails a systematic method of enquiry where researchers try to understand a phenomenon through the eyes and the understanding of participants whole live the reality of such phenomenon in their natural context. Newby (2010) asserts that contextual knowledge construction and data analysis in qualitative research enables the researcher to put his research aims and questions in the right perspective (Hammersley, 1992; Denscombe, 2002; Merriam, 2009; Denscombe, 2014). This was corroborated by Alase (2017), who noted that

qualitative research affords researchers the opportunity to explore and investigate the phenomenon of interest while using their interpersonal and subjectivity skills to explore their research topic. This exploration can help researchers understand their topic from different perspectives and gain new insights.

The appropriateness of qualitative research for this study lies in its strength and or advantages that enabled me to dig deep and gain insight through the participants' perception of the phenomenon of interest in this study (the administrative roles of school administrators as touching teachers' professional development). Secondly, I was also able to interact with the participants in their contexts. Thirdly, the qualitative research approach also afforded me the opportunity of resonating my research aims, research questions and objectives with the data collected. Extant literature also suggests that the "interpretive paradigm leans toward the use of a qualitative research approach" suggested by Chilisa and Kawulich (2012:16) as reflected in this study.

Suffice to mention as a rationale that qualitative research has been discovered to have shed light on contradictory and problematic areas in literature, give visibility to populations that are not well represented in the research literature as well as help to break new ground in less explored areas (Levitt, Bamberg, Creswell, *et al*., 2018). This idea resonates with the objectives of the study because the idea of school administrators' roles in teacher professional development has largely been shallow and limited to instructional supervision in the domain of quantitative research. Similarly, research on the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in Nigeria is at a very nascent stage. Therefore, approaching this study from a qualitative-transformative perspective would contribute to the existing merged literature and finding in this area.

Although the qualitative research sample size and areas of coverage are relatively small (Sarantakos, 1993) when compared with that of quantitative research, but, considering the objectives of the study, which is to explore and gain deep insight into the phenomenon under investigation, a small sample size is most appropriate. It has also been argued that there that the findings of qualitative research findings

cannot be generalised. However, the choice of multiple case study design helped me carry out investigation across multiple contexts, which ascribes the quality of triangulation to the findings of this study. Therefore, given the compatibility of qualitative research and case study design, I adopted a multiple case study design.

4.9 Research Design

A research design is a functional plan in which a research method and approach are linked together with a view to obtaining reliable data for empirically grounded analyses, conclusions and theory formulation (Vosloo, 2014). The research design comprises a detailed outline of data collection procedure, analysis and conclusion.

This study adopted a multiple case study research design. Creswell (2003:15) describes a case study as a "researcher explores in depth a program, an event, an activity, a process, or one or more individuals." This is consistent with this study because "most case research studies tend to be interpretive in nature" (Bhattacherjee, 2012:95).

A case study design is suitable for exploring significant problems of practice as well as deepening its understanding and interpreting observations of a given phenomenon (Merriam, 1998). This was corroborated by other scholars who submit that central to case study design is an in-depth analysis of a phenomenon within its context to understand the phenomenon from the participants' point of view (Stake, 2006; Simons, 2009; Merriam, 2009). Yin (1994:13) conceptualises a case study as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident." According to him, case studies can be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory.

A case in a case study could mean a programme, event, organisation, individual, group, social situation, phenomenon, or process (Helena, Melanie, Richard, & Jane, 2017). Each of these represents a unit of analysis. For instance, the case in this study is the phenomenon of the kind of support(s) and role(s) played by school

administrators in enhancing teacher professional development in Nigeria, which also serves as the unit of analysis in this study.

This study is a multiple case study of three selected secondary schools in Nigeria. As opposed to single case study design, which is suitable for the study of a singular case that has no replication, multiple-case design “can be adopted with real-life events that show numerous sources of evidence through replication rather than sampling logic” (Zaidah, 2007:2).

Multiple case study research design, otherwise known as a collective case study, enabled me to investigate the interactivity and interconnectedness of participants’ experiences on how school administrators influence teachers' professional development in multiple school contexts (Stake, 2005; Creswell, 2012).

It then follows that a multiple case study design is suitable for assessing a phenomenon in different contexts that share similarities to establish if such a phenomenon is common across contexts (Baxter & Jack, 2008). The essence is to determine the possibility of generalisation over a larger population. The case study design has the advantage of practical versatility because it is applicable across all ontological, epistemological or methodological perspectives (Rosenberg & Yates, 2007). Its strength also lies in it its compatibility with both qualitative or quantitative oriented study as well as mixed-method research (Merriam, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Yin, 2014; Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014). It was best captured by Luck, Jackson and Usher (2006:103) as “a bridge across paradigms.”

The rationale for the adoption of a multiple case study hinges on the need to carry out an in-depth exploration of the realities of leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teacher professional development (which is a social situation, a phenomenon, and a process) in different secondary schools' context within the same state. The need to establish compare and the repetitiveness phenomenon across multiple contexts as a goal of multiple case studies necessitated the choice of multiple case study design in this study. This gives credibility to the robustness of the data collected and relative findings generalisation (Imoni, 2018). Given the view that this study is lensed through

distributed leadership and adult learning theories, a multiple cases study design is suitable to explore relative prevailing phenomenon vis a vis principal leadership roles and teacher professional development in the selected schools' contexts. A case study design is also appropriate for comparing and contrasting cases and providing answers to the research questions in different contexts which give credence to the study's findings. The choice of a multiple case study enabled to achieve the research objectives by providing answers to the study research questions. Moreso, the case study design is suitable for both the testing of existing theories and the development of a new theory/model in a nascent field of study where theories and literature are limited. This is also germane, given the paucity of research in this area of study. The few literature and studies on teacher professional development were quantitative. Moreso, not many previous studies associated school administrators with teacher professional development as it is in this study. The study, therefore, adopted a case study research design with the aim of knowledge /construct construction, which could lead to the building of ground theory (Bhattacherjee, 2012:95).

As indicated in the above submission, the choice and appropriateness of multiple case study research design for this study resonate with one of the major objectives of this study, which is to propose a leadership model for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria.

4.10 Preliminary Tours to Research Field and Familiarisation with Research Participants

In this session, I discussed how I obtained ethical clearance from the university, got approval from the Ministry of Education through the teaching service commission, and obtained permission to conduct research from the school administrator. I also shared my experience in navigating the process of securing participant consent, the challenges I faced and how I overcame those challenges.

Sequel to the approval of my thesis proposal by the research committee of the University of the Free State, South Africa, I proceeded to apply for Ethical

Clearance to allow me to conduct my research by gathering data from the research site.

A provisional approval was issued to me on the 6th of October 2020. This approval was provisional because my application lacked the approval to conduct research from the Ekiti State Ministry of Education; hence, I was mandated to provide the approval to conduct research from the Ministry of Education Ekiti State Nigeria. In the face of the prevailing COVID-19 lockdown, international travel became impossible. This implied that I could not travel to Nigeria to receive an approval letter from the Ekiti State Ministry of Education. I proceeded to apply for the requested approval by proxy through a colleague who happened to be my coursemate during my master's programme.

My first application for approval to conduct research was rejected by the Ministry of Education because it was addressed to the Commissioner for Education. I was therefore advised to re-address the letter to the Permanent Secretary, Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) Ekiti State, a unit/parastatal of the Ministry of Education in charge of secondary schools in the state. This I did and was granted approval by the Ministry of Education through the Teaching Service Commission on the 9th of November 2020. Having submitted the letter of approval to conduct research from the Ministry of Education to the University of the Free State Ethical Committee, the final ethical clearance, number UFS-HSD2020/1304 was issued to me on the 30th of November 2020.

Meanwhile, I had embarked on seeking permission/approval to conduct research by proxy through a research assistant who happened to be my senior colleague during my master's programme, seeing that she had an affinity with the selected secondary schools as a former educator in the state. This colleague was trained by me using the research information leaflets containing what the research was all about, the participants' responsibilities and the ethics surrounding data gathering. I, therefore, forwarded my application to the selected schools through her to the

school gatekeepers who are school principals. The journey to secure approval from the school administrators occurred in the third week of November 2020.

4.10.1 Familiarisation tour and interview

In late December 2020, I embarked on a familiarisation tour of the selected schools. The first school I visited was the most famous in the state. I was led me to the office of the vice-principal, who had earlier issued the approval letter to conduct research in the school. Having met the vice-principal administration, I presented the letter of approval that was earlier issued. He then informed me that there were a few vice- principals within the school, such as vice principal academics, vice principal administration, and others. He then advised that the most appropriate participants in the capacity of school administrator given my research focus, was the vice-principal academics.

Having met the vice principal academics, I introduced myself and my purpose of visit. I explained the focus of my research and why he was chosen as a suitable participant for the study. I presented the participants' consent form to enable him to familiarise himself with the study's focus, his responsibilities and the ethics surrounding the research. I explained that I would need three additional classroom teachers who had spent a minimum of three years in the school. He was obliged to refer me to three teachers whom he considered suitable for the study. I was late to speak with the three teachers and familiarise myself with them in relation to the study. Two of them were favourably disposed, while the third was not. I realise that her non-cooperating disposition towards the study was largely due to a lack of incentive for her participation in the study. Since she could not be persuaded, a replacement was found for me. My appointments for interview with the four participants differed based on the school timetable and their convenience. I visited the teachers on the respective appointed days. The interview took place and it was successful.

I then proceeded to the second school to see the school principal. He could not attend to me because he was engaged with the documentation and orientation of

new teachers who were newly posted to the school. We then agreed to book an appointment for another suitable day. On 28 January 2021, I went to see the school principal as agreed. I explained my purpose of visit and showed him the approval letter to conduct research issued by the school a few months earlier. After a session of discussion with me, I realised that he was qualified to participate in the study in the capacity of a school administrator. Since the sample selection for the study is the compulsive snowballing technique, I requested that he referred me to three more teachers who fit into the criteria I had earlier explained to him. He referred me to the vice principal academics for further referral to suitable participants among the teachers. I equally explained the purpose of my visit to the vice principal and presented the letter of approval from the school principal coupled with the research information leaflet and the participant consent form. The vice principal nominated a male and female teacher as participants. She volunteered to be the third teacher participant since she still teaches in the classroom.

It should be noted that the initial sampling plan or technique was to select three classroom teachers who had spent three years in the selected school. The rationale for choosing her as a teacher participant was premised on the fact that there was a fresh redeployment of teachers across the state, an exercise that disqualified most teachers within the school from participating in the study. The vice principal academics summoned the two other teachers and explained my mission to them. she requested that I explain in detail which I did. Then we agreed on a suitable day for the interview. Due to a variation in their lesson timetable, we booked an appointment for two different days. I visited the teachers on appointed days as agreed and the interview was conducted successfully without a hitch.

In the third school, the school principal appeared to be very busy, and she quickly referred me to the vice principal for necessary assistance. The vice principal was favourably disposed; she agreed to stand in for the school principal as an administrator. I intimated to her my mission in the school like I did in the previous schools. She referred me to three other participants for the study. Two of the participants agreed to participate in the study, having been exposed to the

objective of the study and their roles as participants. We agreed on interview dates and equal exchanged phone numbers contacts for follow-up and reminders. The third participant agreed initially, but upon the second visit, she declined. It seemed that her refusal to participate resulted from incompetence and lack of confidence in herself. This prompted me to approach the vice principal for her replacement. The vice principal obliged and referred me to another teacher who was qualified to be a participant in the study. The suggested teacher obliged and we exchanged contacts and booked appointments for an interview date. The interview was conducted on the agreed dates with the participants within the school premises except for the third teacher, who was in a PhD programme at the state university. In her case, her own interview was granted outside the school premises.

4.11 Sampling

Sampling is the process of selecting a subset of a larger population (Mertler, 2009) with the view to eliciting data from them for a study. Sampling, according to Maree (2007:9), means “the process used to select a portion of the population for study.” Given the fact that this study is situated in the qualitative research domain, a non-probability sampling technique was adopted. The qualitative sampling technique is concerned with the selection of a few participants with a view to attaining in-depth data collection (Crabtree & Miller, 1992). It is a complex process that require an understanding of all aspects. It is concerned with working with small samples from the population to dig deep into meaning attributed by individuals or groups and understand in-depth about their experiences through their perceptions (Hesse-Biber, 2017:54).

In this study, a combination of purposive and snowballing sampling techniques was adopted to select three schools as research sites for the study based on accessibility to participants, the proximity of the researcher to the selected schools and the researcher's convenience. The purposive sampling technique, also known as judgemental sampling, is a non-probability sampling technique suitable for use in qualitative research (Creswell, 2007). Purposive sampling has proven to be

useful in qualitative research when the goal of data collection is to achieve specific objectives, and the investigator can theoretically identify individuals with characteristics that make them likely to provide valuable information or insights for this goal , according to Creswell (2007) and Cohen *et al*. (2007) and best “used alongside other types of sampling to reduce bias” (Kara, 2017: 70).

It is a scientific sampling technique used to sample atypical groups (Kirchherr & Charles, 2018:1). It is a sampling technique selection procedure “hand-picked for research” (because) given what I already know about the research topic and about the range of people … being studied, who … is likely to provide the best information Denscombe (1998). Moreso, Bryman (2008:458) notes that “most writers on sampling in qualitative research recommend that purposive sampling is conducted.” Given that I had earlier highlighted the study's objectives and that the study is located within the qualitative research approach, it became necessary to select suitable participants whom I believe would provide data relevant to the study. Purposively sampled databases may have limitations because they do not include all members of a community nor generalise well beyond those selected, but they are useful because they include members whose characteristics reflect "what researchers want to know about" (Creswell, 2007:125; Taherdoost, 2016:23).

Snowball is a non-probability sampling technique where additional participants are selected by means of a referrer. Having selected the first participant based on pre-set criteria, such a participant automatically becomes a referrer who can suggest other participants who as well satisfies the researcher’s pre-set criteria (Kirchherr & Charles, 2018; Iddris *et al*., 2019; Patra, 2021). In this study, the school administrators were the first participants in the selected schools. They turn out to refer other participants having realised that they are well informed about all teachers’ characteristics and the criteria that qualifies them to participate in this study. Snowball has been criticised on the ground of generalisation. The purpose of the snowball sample selection technique is not to generalise which I do not intend to do in this study. The intent [of qualitative research] is not to generalise

to a population, but to develop an in-depth [and contextualised] “exploration of a central phenomenon” (Kirchherr & Charles, 2018:3).

The rationale for my sampling technique was informed by first: the theoretical foundations of distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory. This I consider appropriate because school-based teacher professional development are primarily operationalised by school administrators with the support of other leaders (who owns formal and non-formal leadership portfolio) within the schools. Moreso, professional development could be categorised as adult learning. In view of this, I believe eliciting data from multiple school contexts on how school leadership influences teachers' professional development would afford me the opportunity of gaining deep insight into the varying/multiple realities, which will, in turn, answer the research questions.

The second rationale hinges on the need to overcome the difficulty of reaching the pre-qualified participants. In this case, they are teachers who had spent a minimum of three years in the selected schools bearing in mind that massive teacher transfer was going on in Ekiti State at the time this research was conducted. Third, considering the objectives of the study, pre-determined criteria for participant selection had been established (on purpose), which can only be reached through referrers. Fourth, the intent was to have an in-depth insight into the phenomenon under investigation: the roles school administrators play in teacher professional development. This can only be achieved through the selection of a few and pre-qualified participants using the referrer procedure of the snowball sampling technique. In the study, as earlier indicated, each school's administrators were the first participants. Since they are the captains of each school, they are in the best position to identify the right participants for the study, making them the referrers of participants for the study. The participants in this study will be described in the next session.

4.12 Research Participants and the Recruitment Process

School administrators: School administrators in Nigeria comprises the principal, the vice-principal, and the Heads of Departments (HODs). They are members of

staff who have been given administrative responsibility for running a school. School administrators plan and organize basic and special programs/activities in schools to ensure that students receive a quality education from qualified teachers. They are formal leaders with portfolios recognised by the Ministry of Education.

They were selected as participants because they are at the helm of the affair of schools as administrators. This makes them knowledgeable about their schools' affairs – an attribute that positions them to supply information concerning their school as touching the research questions raised in this study. They assisted in the snowball selection of teacher participants because they were well-informed of all teachers' characteristics and the criteria for the selection of participants for this study. Secondly, they spearhead and nominate teachers for school-based and Ministry of Education-organised professional development. This attribute also qualifies them to answer questions regarding their roles in teacher professional development.

Teachers: Teachers are professional educators. They are individuals who have undergone extensive training in the art and science of the teaching-learning process and are certified to teach in schools. Teachers were selected in this study because the topic is based on their lived experiences. In qualitative research, sampling is expected to continue until a point of saturation is reached where no new data is obtained (Saunders, 2012). Having interviewed three teachers in each school, I realised I was getting similar responses, and this made me conclude that three teachers excluding school administrators as sufficient participants in each school.

The total number of participants in the study was twelve. They comprised the school administrators from each school who had spent a minimum of 3 years in his/her present school. School administrators were selected because they are information-rich from the research question's point of view. Teacher participants were selected using purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Having interviewed the school administrator, he/she automatically became a referrer who referred me to teachers who had spent a minimum of three years in the school

(Shank, 2006; Faryadi, 2019). The rationale for the choice of purpose sampling technique is that it is often associated with case study research design and qualitative research (Taherdoost, 2022). This was also premised on the fact that spending three years in a school is considered enough for the participants to be fully aware of the school administrator's efforts towards teacher professional development in such schools.

4.13 Research Sites

The research sites for this study were located in the state capital - Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti State, Nigeria. The research site comprises three selected schools based on convenience and accessibility. One of the major ethics in research is anonymity. Hence, I would represent the schools with pseudonyms as I discuss their contextual characteristics. School XC, located by the roadside, is one of the oldest schools in the state with a long history of secondary education. It was said to have been founded by missionaries. It is a single-sex school known for excellence and good culture. The school is relatively big and has a high number of students. It has one entrance and exit with a few security men who rotate duties. At the centre of the school is an open tuck shop where students go for lunch during break. The alumni, regardless of year of graduation, have high cohesion and are well bonded worldwide. History has shown that the school principals have always been an alumnus of the school. There are four vice-principals in the school. The teachers are mixed-sex. Information has it that teachers see it as prestige being a staff member in the school. The school was considered appropriate because it is a point of reference for all schools in the state where all development or initiatives or policies concerning secondary school are first experimented, including teacher professional development.

I refer to school two as AXC. This school was also established by a Christian mission. It is located in the state capital city, Ado-Ekiti. It was not located at the heart of the town like the precious school. It is a mixed school. It has a large number of students. The school has one principal, two vice-principals and a few

Heads of Departments. The school has a major entrance manned by the security officer. It is also one of the oldest secondary schools in the state.

The third school is what I call MXC. This school was located off the city centre. It is a mixed school that is densely populated. The school principal confirms that the population of students is well over 2,000. There are two vice principals and about four Heads of Departments. Just like the two other schools, it has a major entrance with a security guard at the gate. It is also located by the roadside. The population of teachers in the school is relatively high. It is the school I visited the most because one participant could not easily access for interview due to a series of engagements. Two teachers turned down the proposal to be participants in this school because they felt they were not competent enough seeing the criteria, but I was referred to others who obliged.

4.14 Data Generation Instruments

This study adopted a semi-structured interview (SSI) as the main data collection instrument with the supplementation of Policy Documents Analysis (PDA).

4.14.1 Semi-structured Interview

Consensus exists among scholars that interview is appropriate as data-gathering instruments in qualitative research (Alloh, 2019). Worthy of note is that there are different types of interviews, namely, the structured, unstructured and semi-structured interview. A structured interview entails a set of pre-designed questions for the respondents. The interviewer asks the interviewee closed-ended questions with a relatively high level of conformity/rigidity by restricting discussion and responses from the interviewee to the question focus. An unstructured interview, as opposed to a structured interview, does not require the interviewer's adherence to pre-designed questions. In this case, the interviewer poses open-ended questions and anticipates open-ended response(s) as long as such response enables him/her to "gain deeper insight into fact/data about the phenomenon under investigation". It then follows that one question leads to the other until the interviewer or the researcher is satisfied (Merriam, 2002: 12).

A semi-structured interview is a data gathering instrument that enables a researcher to gather the depths of participants' thoughts. The interviewer sets the aim ahead of time, but during the interview, he or she also listens closely for pauses that allows them to ask new questions (probe) in order to get responses they may not have anticipated when developing guiding questions. In semi-structured interviews, there are rooms for spontaneity from both parties on one side, as the researcher listens carefully to the participants while exploring topics/questions at hand, he continues to engage the participant through probing question(s) as conversations progress. On the other hand, the researcher is also mindful about spontaneous moments that can yields fresh insights into the topic under discussion. “Semi-structure interview is a blend of structured and unstructured interview” (Ruslin et al., 2022:23). This principle is applied to this study. Drawing from the research objectives, a few leading questions were drawn to guide the interview sessions. Instead, I used these set of pre-designed open-ended questions to guide the interview in a manner that responses from the interviewee provide answers to the research questions, but not necessarily in a rigid form as obtained in the structured interview. In a semi-structured interview, the interviewee response to the main question leads to another probing question capable of giving more insights into the phenomenon under study (2005:171). This study adopted a semi-structured interview to generate data to explore participants’ perspectives on the roles of school administrators in teachers’ professional development. Al Balushi (2016: 2319) described semi-structured interviews as an effective tool that “helps the researcher gain in-depth data of participants' perspectives and make sense of their lived stories and experiences as told by them”. The rationale for using this instrument bothers on its ability to enable the researcher to dig deep into the areas covered by the research questions and objectives to gain first-hand information on the existing phenomenon from the participants.

Consistent with research ethics of convenience and its appropriateness for the study, semi-structured interviews and individualised face-to-face sessions were conducted with the participants in their respective school premises, particularly in

their offices. The study appropriated the strength of a semi-structured interview, which lies in its ability to optimise conversation via verbal and non-verbal communication; “researchers' ability to clarify seemingly complex terms and constructs; researchers' ability to ally participants' unspoken fear or concerns about the interview-a consistent act with research ethics” (McIntosh & Morse, 2015:7).

Moreso, semi-structured provide valuable insight into complex phenomena like opinions, feelings and experiences when used appropriately. It is an effective way of seeing through other people’s perspectives, according to, Patton (2002: 341) and developing “thick descriptions of a given social world analyzed for cultural patterns and themes” (Warren, 2002:85).

In this regard, interviews should only be conducted with informants who have first-hand opinion/feelings/experience and know what makes something happen based on their position in society (2014: 215; Mahat-Shamir *et al*., 2019). It has been noted that a semi-structured interview is characterised by flexibility and complexities (Collis & Hussey, 2014:134). This attribute is appropriate for case study research like this. This was corroborated by Rule and John (2011), who stated that “to capture the uniqueness and complexity of the case, some level of flexibility is desirable” (Rule & John, 2011:65). Semi-structured interviews also entail schematic presentation of questions to respondents with a time frame that usually lasts within the range of thirty minutes and over one hour (Jamshed, 2014: 87).

In this study, I adopted the Kvale (1996) seven stages of conducting an in-depth interview. The stages are thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, verifying and reporting. I will limit my discussion to thematising, designing and interviewing at this stage because other stages will be discussed later in this chapter at the appropriate sessions.

Thematising: This stage involves ascertaining the purpose of the interview and conceptualising the topic to be discussed or questions (in this case, the research

question(s) that need to be answered. I adhered to this principle by pre-conceptualising research questions that enabled me to categorise participants' responses (collected data) into themes that can answer the questions so raised.

Designing: At this stage, a researcher is expected to design an interview guide with key questions, bearing in mind the purpose of the interview in relation to key research questions (Collis & Hussey, 2014:133). It also requires that questioning be consistent across participants, though not rigidly, but in a manner that sustains the research focus. In this study, the research questions inform the purpose of the interview and the interview questions guide was developed in a manner that resonates with the research questions

Interviewing: The stage involves the observation of good research ethics, explaining the purpose of the interview to the respondents, making them feel at ease, clarifying anonymity issues and using media for data gathering. In this study, I also ensured that the respondents were well informed about the purpose of the interview by giving them the research information leaflets to familiarise themselves with the study and making them sign the participant consent form. I made them realise that their identity would not be revealed to the public on the pages of the thesis. I went further to seek and secure their permission to use an audio-recording device to record interview sessions for the purpose of easy recall during transcription. The interview venue was negotiated with the participants. The school administrators were interviewed in their offices while the teachers were also interviewed in their offices, with some having their offices in common staff rooms that house many teachers. In two schools, we sought permission to interview teachers (participants) in their Head of Department (HOD) offices to avoid distractions and noise interference in audio recording. With this approach, I was able to elicit sufficient data that spoke directly and indirectly to the research questions. The indirect and irrelevant responses were filtered during the thematising process without bias.

Though the interview as an instrument of data collection is being criticised on the ground generalisation, however, considering the paradigm (interpretivism) and the approach (qualitative), statistical data is irrelevant. This stance was corroborated

by Bryman and Bell (2007:28), who contends that “qualitative research can be construed as a research strategy that usually emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data.”

The rationale for the adoption of a semi-structured interview are first, it enabled me to gain in-depth insight into the phenomenon of the roles school administrators play in teacher professional development. This was corroborated by Bryman and Bell (2011), who assert that interviewing is common practice in qualitative research as it allows for non-reactive responses and the collection of contextual information that adds depth to results. Secondly, it afforded me the opportunity of flexibility to elicit data that could not be elicited using other instruments, such as a questionnaire or structured interviews. Thirdly, participants triangulation enabled me to gather and compare data across different school contexts with varying participants’ perspectives on the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. This, in turn, gives credibility and trustworthiness to the study.

Policy Document Analysis

As indicated earlier, policy document analysis was used to supplement semi-structured interviews as instruments for data collection. A policy document is a document that sets out the government's policy on a particular issue. At the same time, Policy Document Analysis (PDA) is a critical examination of a company's, organisation's or country’s written policies (Wach & Ward, 2013). It is used to identify strengths and weaknesses in the policy document, as well as to make recommendations for improvements. A policy document analysis typically includes a review of the document's organization, content, and style. It also assesses the document's compliance with applicable laws and regulations. Additionally, the analysis may make recommendations for changes to the policy document based on the findings of the review (Bowen, 2009). A policy document analysis can be a useful tool for the government to assess the effectiveness of its policymaking. It can also help the public to understand the government's policy on a particular issue.

The rationale for the adoption of PDA hinges on the notion that it can be a valuable supplementary data collection tool capable of providing insights that might otherwise be missed using other data collection tools (Bowen, 2009:29). It is useful in identifying key themes and issues, track changes over time, and juxtaposing documents or data from different sources. Policy document analysis can provide a more comprehensive understanding of a given issue when used in conjunction with other data collection methods, such as interviews and focus groups. It can also help to fill in gaps in other data sources, providing a complete picture.

It is common knowledge that secondary school education is free in some states in Nigeria; hence, school administrators rely on stipends from the government to run. It follows that school administrators are not empowered by policy to organise full-fledged school-based teacher professional development, yet they are expected to provide professional support for teachers. In this study, government policies at federal, state and government parastatals were analysed as touching the leadership roles of school administrator in teacher professional development. These policy document include National Policy on Education 2011*;* Education Reform Act 200; Professional Standards for Nigerian Teachers; Ekiti Teaching Service Manual 2011; Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria Act 199 and National Teacher Education Policy.

4.15 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of “evaluating and summarising collected data” (Mouton, 2013:108). Thematic Analysis (TA) was utilised in this study to analyse the data collected. “A useful way to think of your TA is as an ‘answer’ to your research question” (Braun, Clarke & Weate, 2016: 200). TA is one of the approaches suitable for the identification of patterns in a qualitative dataset. It is “a method for identifying, analysing, and interpreting patterns of meaning (themes) within qualitative data” (Clarke & Braun, 2017:297). The first step involved becoming familiar with the data by thoroughly reading and re-reading it in order to gain a complete understanding of its contents. This allowed me to fully immerse myself in the data and identify important patterns and themes. The second step

was to create initial codes by identifying significant units within the data and assigning codes to them. This step helped to organize the data and prepare it for further analysis. In the third step, I searched for themes by collecting and grouping together codes that were related to specific topics, concepts, or ideas. These groups of codes were then used to form overall themes. The fourth step involved reviewing and refining these themes to ensure that they accurately and coherently represented the data. The fifth step was to define and name the themes, which involved identifying the central ideas that underlined each theme and assigning them names that reflected their essence. The final step was to produce a clear and concise report that described the study, the methods used, the key themes identified, and an interpretation of the themes in the context of the research question. Case study research is often characterised by large volume of data; hence, the first step is to condense (without bias) raw data to a manageable size (Bassey, 2012: 166) in a manner that retains the portion that is relevant to the focus of the study. The hallmark of TA is “flexibility in terms of questions, sample size and constitution, data collection method, and approaches to meaning negation” (Clarke & Braun, 2017:297). In relation to this study, flexibility was reflected in participants' selection as indicated in the previous session, when certain participants declined and were replaced. Also, during the interview, flexibility ensued as a result of open-endedness of questioning and responses.

Since the instrument for data gathering were a combination of audio recorded-semi-structured interview and policy documents, sequel to verbatim transcription and extraction from the policy documents, I condensed the data into manageable size while still retaining vital points without bias (Clarke & Braun, 2017). This study adopted, Braun, Clarke and Weate’s (2016) six-stages of thematic analysis. These six stages are:

> guidelines that should not be compromised or used in place or replaced as linear, prescriptive and flexible rules during analysis, but rather used according to their connection to the research

question(s) and objectives alongside the available data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006:90).

The stages are "familiarization, coding, theme development, refinement and naming and writing up" (Braun, Clarke & Weate, 2016: 198; Maguire & Delahunt, 2017).

Familiarisation stage: Researchers are expected to be immersed in the dataset by reading and re-reading the dataset. The researcher should also take note of things/ideas that are of interest and capable of answering the research questions and also meets its objectives. The researcher is expected to analytically read through the dataset bearing in mind questions such as; why are the respondents making sense of things in this way and not the other way? What implication does this view have on the worldview? This and many other questions should help scrutinise the dataset with a view to making sense of it.

Coding stage: Coding involves the identification of what is of interest and relevant to the research questions in a dataset with "labels" or "tags. During this process, a piece of data could be ascribed double codes as long as it can serve two purposes. Also, codes could be collapsed if the contents are similar and make sense in like manner. Clarke and Braun recommend that this process be carried out twice for the purpose of discovering latent data that may be of interest, as well as achieving a systematic, coherent and robust set of codes.

Theme development stage: This process involves collapsing codes for higher-level patterns to emerge. Higher-level patterns are broader ideas or meanings that can be inferred through a combination of several ideas inherent in multiple codes. They are expected to address the research questions and objectives.

Refinement/reviewing stage: This stage involves juxtaposing the codes with the raw data to establish two things. First, ascertain whether the data "fits well" and that they are not misrepresented. Secondly to establish if the narrative is compelling and coherent in a way that answers the research questions and meet the objectives.

Them Naming/Definition Stage: “A theme definition is a brief description (a paragraph or two), which succinctly captures the ‘essence’ of each theme (its central organizing concept), and its scope and boundaries. Writing theme definitions can help to sharpen your analytic focus” (Braun, Clarke & Weate, 2016:198. This helps to sustain and sharpen analysis focus. The names given to themes should represent the dataset and tell stories that answer the research questions and meet the study's objectives.

Writing up stage: Writing at this stage connotes the compilation, development and vetting of the existing analytic writing that situates the writeup in the overall report. It usually has an introduction, method, findings and discussion.

The justification hinges on the fact that thematic analysis helps the researcher to interpret and analyse data with the objectives of the study segregated into themes (Boyatzis, 1998). Thematic analysis was therefore considered appropriate for this study because it enabled me categorise data generated for the study into themes that respond to research questions and objectives.

4.16 Trustworthiness

The Four-Dimensional Criteria of Trustworthiness in research are a set of standards used to evaluate the quality and reliability of research studies. These criteria were developed by Lincoln and Guba (1981) and are widely used in qualitative research. Creswell and Miller (2000:124-130) assert that “trustworthiness refers to the degree to which the data obtained, and the interpretations made, capture the reality, as seen from the perspective of the participants.” From a different perspective, trustworthiness in research connotes credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability criteria (Anney, 2014; Schwandt, Lincoln, & Guba, 2007. Unlike the positivist paradigm, where validity and reliability tests are carried out and ascertained using statistical tools, qualitative research establishes trustworthiness through “credibility, transferability and confirmability criteria” (Anney, 2014:272).

Credibility

Credibility is essential in qualitative research to ensure that the data collected are reliable as true reflection of the participants view and are accurate (Korstjens & Morse 2017: 121). There are several ways to establish credibility, including familiarisation with the research context, ensuring that the researcher is knowledgeable about the topic, conducting a thorough and comprehensive research process, and using reliable and valid data sources. Additionally, multiple data sources, triangulation, peer debriefing, member checks, and reflexivity are used Lincoln and Guba (1985). Adherence to these principles implies that the findings of the study are credible and trustworthy. In this study, concerning familiarisation, I'm familiar with secondary school operations in Nigeria. I had my secondary education in Nigeria and till date, I have secondary school that are located at close proximity to my place of abode. Also, I have colleagues who are teachers and administrators in Secondary schools. I spend about two weeks familiarising myself with the selected schools especially the gate-keepers prior to the field work. The field work lasted for a couple of weeks which gave me ample opportunity to get more familiar with the respondents and the context they carried out their job. Section 4.10 exemplified this in detail. Policy Document Analysis was adopted as the second data source with a view to establishing the credibility of the data gathered via semi-structured interview instrumentation. These are policy documents on teachers' professional development in Nigeria and the leadership roles of school administrators in TPD in Nigeria.

Transferability

The hallmark of transferability in research ethics is the possibility of replication of the research methods in another context (Gunawan, 2015: 10). To address this issue, researchers need to provide a detailed description of the setting and participants in their study, as well as a discussion of how these factors influenced the findings. Additionally, they should discuss the generalizability of their findings and how they can be applied to other contexts. By doing so, researchers can ensure that their findings are transferable and can be used to inform practice in a

variety of settings. In this study, conformity with the principles of transferability as an indication of trustworthiness was exemplified in section 4.10.1 in this study.

Confirmability

Confirmability is important in this study to ensure the objectivity and neutrality of the research findings. The researchers should provide a clear and transparent description of their research process, including how they collected and analysed data, and any biases or assumptions that may have influenced their findings (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). This element of trustworthiness requires researchers to ensure that the conclusions they draw from their study accurately represent the experiences of the research participants, rather than the researcher's own personal impressions or biases. Triangulating different sources of data helped to establish confirmability in this study. Moreso, I made effort to clarify inferences with the participants. This approach helped to minimize biases and discrepancies and ensure the accuracy of the findings.

Dependability

Dependability principle of trustworthiness was observed in this study to ensure that the findings are consistent and stable over time and across different researchers (Moon et al.,2016 :16). In doing this, I provided clear and transparent description of this research process, including how I collected and analysed data. There was no change nor modification made to the research design. Systematic approach to data analysis was adopted via thematic analysis. This was explicated in section 1.8.5 in this study. This increased the dependability of the findings and allow other researchers to replicate the study in the future.

To ensure credibility and trustworthiness in the study, I adopted multiple data sources. These include semi-structured interviews and policy document. Additionally, efforts were made to ensure that the findings of this research are verifiable, and original and remain “a true representation of the data collected from the participants” (Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams & Blackman, 2016:16).

4.17 Ethical Considerations

Ethical consideration connotes “what is right and wrong in carrying out research” Mouton (2001:238) by giving consideration to participants and the study's objective. In this study, I applied the principle of informed consent as outlined by the Ethical Committee of the University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa. Approval was sought and secured from the Ministry of Education and authorities of the selected schools before embarking on data gathering.

In this case, I ensured that all participants were well informed about the objectives of the studies, their roles during the interview and the possibility of withdrawal at any point should they feel uncomfortable. However, I made effort to ensure that such withdrawal did not negatively impact the study's overall findings. This was further reinforced by serving each of the participants with Research Information Leaflets and consent forms. The research information leaflet is a summary of what the research is all about; the roles of the participants, the possible risks and how the risks are to be mitigated. The participants were requested to sign the consent form after they were persuaded to participate in the study. I assured the participants of their confidentiality and the use of pseudonyms in the study as a form of anonymity to protect their identities. I did not promise the participants any form of incentive before, during and after the interview. Participants' consents were sought before recording the conversations that ensued during the interview. They were also informed that the data would be stored for a period of time, after which it would be destroyed. I ensured that the rights and interests of the participants were well-respected. I also ensured that their well-being and official duties were not negatively affected due to the interview sessions. During the write-up, I ensured that all sources were correctly cited and referenced.

4.18 Summary of Chapter

This chapter presented the methodology adopted in the current study, as well as the steps are taken to achieve its aims and objectives. Detailed analysis of the adopted research paradigm, Methodology and Paradigm Point of Intercession, research approach, research design and phases of this study were exemplified.

The target population and context in which the study was conducted were described, as well as the data collection techniques and methods used to ensure legitimation. The data sources and instruments employed to collect the data were equally expounded. The use of thematic analysis was justified by its traceable connection to the research objectives. The chapter concluded with the ethical considerations considered and adhered to in this study. The findings of the study were presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the methodology that served as the blueprint for this study. While this chapter presents and analyses the data. The purpose of this study was to explore the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in Nigeria. One primary research and four secondary questions were raised. They are as follows:

- What are the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria?
- What are the participants' perceptions of school leadership in the selected Nigeria secondary school?
- How can teachers 'professional development be understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?
- What are the school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teachers' professional development understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?
- How have the existing teacher professional development practices influenced teacher professional development in understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?
- What leadership model can be designed for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria?

The main data-generating instrument in this study was a semi-structured interview, while policy document analysis served as a supplementary data collection tool where applicable. As indicated in chapter four, the method of data analysis in this study was Thematic Analysis (TA). Datasets generated through interviews with the

participants were first analysed, followed by document analysis where applicable. The emerging themes and subthemes helped me answer questions regarding the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development.

It is important to note that, in an attempt to ensure that the themes that emerged adequately answer the research questions, the primary research question: What are the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria? was answered under two themes, namely, participants perception of school leadership and the influence of school administrators' leadership practices on Teacher Professional Development. In other words, participants' understanding of school leadership was first established before they were made to respond to interview questions on the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. The primary research question is the central point of departure that is elaborated by secondary research questions. All the findings or themes respond to the primary research question, even though a given theme may respond to a specific secondary research questions.

Overall, five main themes emerged from the data, with each having sub-themes. The main themes are:

1. Participants' perceptions of school leadership
2. School administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher professional development
3. Role of school administrators in teacher professional development
4. How is teacher professional development operationalised in Nigerian schools?
5. Suggested approaches for implementing SBTPD.

I indicated in chapter four that the selected schools and the participants would be described with pseudonyms in compliance with research ethics. The school's fictitious names are Kingdom Schools, Church School, Up Hill School and Church School. The participants' names used in this analysis are not their real names. Participants in Kingdom Schools are named Mr King (vice- principal), and the teachers are Mrs Kate, Mr Blessing, and Mrs Grace. Participants in Up Hill School are named Mr Braimo (school principal), and the teachers are Mrs Folaranmi, Mrs Agbabiaka and Mr Ade. In Church School, the participants are Mrs Apata (vice-principal), and the teachers are Mr Badmos, Mrs Aderemi and Mrs Adebare.

The findings from the schools are simultaneously presented to corroborate or contrast the realities of the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. Responses from the school administrators were first presented in each theme, followed by teachers' responses. I began by presenting the interview data and then moved on to policy document analysis where applicable.

5.3 Theme 1 Participants' Perceptions of School Leadership

During the interviews, I asked questions and probing questions to elicit participants' perceptions of school leadership. Having made sense of the data set generated through the questions, two sub-themes emerged: *Leadership is distributive* and *he Roles of the School Management Team (SMT) in school leadership*. Specifically, the main question I asked was, *"What do you understand by school leadership?"* This was followed by probing questions as dictated by the natural course of discussion and the principles of open-ended questions and responses of semi-structured interviews.

5.3.1 Sub-Theme 1: Leadership is distributive

Leadership is the arrowhead of schools. School leadership dynamics vary according to countries and context Diamond and Spillane (2016:148). Nevertheless, its outlook is shaped by the education system in practice as contained in the National Policy of Education/Education Policy Statement. Therefore, the outlook of school leadership and the roles of school administrators

in a centralised education system is subservient to various levels of education authorities. This is unlike a decentralised education system where the school principal has the autonomy to determine the mission and the vision statement for the school as well as design the pathway to achieve them.

The organogram of secondary schools in Nigeria is bureaucratic, with a resemblance of distributed leadership in its operation and structure. In other words, Nigerian schools practice pseudo-distributed school leadership. Typically, in all schools, the academic hierarchy of authority assumes the top-down mode – from the school principal, followed by the vice principal(s), then the Heads of Departments (HODs), the year tutor or the year head, followed by the teachers, the student representatives and the general student body. The duties and responsibilities of the academic officers are often spelt out in a manual or code of conduct with different titles and nomenclatures as deemed fit by each state. For instance, the Ekiti State Teaching Service Manual was the name given to the policy document that stipulates school staff duties and responsibilities. It is a policy statement that highlights the objectives of secondary education and the duties of stakeholders within the school.

The hierarchical nature of school leadership in Nigeria is mixed with distributive elements but lacks distributed leadership principles, as confirmed by the data set from the field. When I asked the question, “What do you understand by school leadership?” Some of the responses I got were subsequently discussed.

Looking at school leadership from a delegation point of view, Mr King, the vice-principal of Kingdom School, has this to say:

> *…no, you can't do all things alone. You have to designate. You have people like the Heads of Departments, the blockheads and others. You have to delegate to them and from time to time, you have to monitor the work you give to them.*

In her response to the same question, Mrs Apata, the vice-principal of Church School, shares the same view. She remarked:

> *…in the school academic chart, we have the school principal as the leader, supported by the vice principal, the Head of Department for various subjects – science, humanities, languages and the year heads or year tutors who are in control of class teachers. They all constitute the school leadership.*

Unlike two decades ago when students and teachers' population could be easily managed by one principal and one vice-principal (Mbonu & Azuji, 2021:8). The situation in Up Hill School shows that, indeed, it is practically impossible to single-handedly lead a school these days. Mr Braimo, Up Hill School principal, equally supported the idea of supervising the subordinate, having assigned leadership responsibilities to them. He remarked:

…no, it is practically impossible. How can you manage over 1,800 students all alone? I have about five vice-principals. I manage and work with about 130 teachers. …his (principal) responsibility is to oversee. His responsibility is to motivate the vice principal to work.

This was corroborated by the responses from teacher participants, as indicated in their responses. Mrs Grace's remark further reinforces the opinion of the school principals by referring to them as the chief accountants of their schools:

> *…no, it (school leadership) is not resident with the school principal alone, but the school principal is the chief accountant of the school. He has subordinates who assist in discharging leadership responsibilities.*

Mr Blessing and Mr Ade were detailed by citing examples of duties that are being delegated by the principals to the subordinates.

According to Mr Blessing in Kingdom School:

> *The school administrators cannot do it alone; they delegate duties. There are hierarchies. We have the vice principal and the head of departments. We have the vice-principal administration and the*

vice principal academics. The vice principal administration is in charge of the school administration. He reports to the principal on issues that have to do with school administration, while the vice principal academics is in charge of supervision of teachers in the classroom, lesson note supervision and all academic-related matters within the school. They go as far as checking the students' notes to ensure that teachers are teaching effectively.

Mr Ade in Up Hill School responded and said:

…for instance, the vice-principal administration does work hand-in-hand with the school principal, especially on how the teachers are performing in moving the school forward. While the vice principal academics is in charge of records. The vice principal student affairs also see to the welfare of the students. He works together with the school counsellor.

As indicated above, teacher participants' views on school leadership are in tandem with the views of the school administrators. The data therefore suggest that school leadership is understood among the participants to mean the act of delegating leadership responsibilities by the overall superior to the subordinates in a manner that get the job done.

5.3.2 Sub-Theme 2: "Spread-Over" Leadership Practice to Appropriate Non-positional Leaders' Expertise

The recognition of expertise that could be of benefit to the school among teachers or members of staff who are not positional leaders could go a long way to enhance school leadership effectiveness. The data indicates that the school administrators in the selected schools spread over leadership to teachers who do not have a formal portfolio as leaders.

The practice of spreading over leadership responsibilities to non-formal leaders in the schools also conforms with the principle of distributed leadership Spillane

(2006:215). The principle states that leaders should leverage the expertise of subordinates to get things done rather than on their portfolio or formal positions. Remarks from vice principals of Church School and Kingdom School confirm that they often assigned leadership roles to non-positional teachers. In addition to assigning leadership roles to non-positional leaders, Mrs Apata noted that some of these teachers are trained before they are assigned leadership roles. The two of them agreed that their performances were satisfactory as far as their superiors were concerned. The question I asked was “Are teachers without formal portfolios assigned leadership responsibilities in your school?” The following are the excepts from their responses:

According to Mrs Apata, one of the vice-principals in Church School:

> *…some teachers are given leadership roles besides the general teacher leadership roles. These teachers are trained in terms of what is expected of them before we assign leadership roles to them, and they have been performing very well.*

In his response to the question, Mr King, the vice-principal academic at Kingdom School, said:

> *…here we are well satisfied with their performance because of the levels of the outcome we do make regular inspections, so from there, we record their performances and they have been performing very well.*

Worthy of note are the excerpts from the interview with Mrs Agbabiaka and Mrs Kate, noting that these teachers are expected to report their activities to a senior positional leader such as the vice-principal. Examples of departments and units where non-positional leaders are often assigned leadership responsibilities were also mentioned.

In her response, Mrs Agbabiaka, Up Hill School, noted:

...yes, they are. Sometimes we'll make some teachers leaders of certain communities in school, such as the environmental committee and have some of the senior teachers as the leader. Sometimes sports activities are led by teachers without formal portfolios. He is responsible to the vice-principal administration overall.

Still on department/units where non-formal leaders perform leadership roles, Mrs Kate, in Kingdom School, affirmed:

We also have the timetable coordinator, who happens to be the head unit that coordinates the school timetable to ensure that timetables do not clash. We have the environmental unit leader. We have a punctuality unit leader. And so on and so forth.

The data revealed that teachers without formal portfolios are assigned leadership responsibilities in school by senior school administrators and that their performance is satisfactory. More so, they may have to be trained if the expected duties need a degree of expertise.

5.3.3 Sub-Theme 3: School Management Team (SMT) Roles in School Leadership

Different schools and states ascribe different names to SMT. It is a body within the school that oversees the school affairs in its entirety. Provision for SMT in the education policy statement gives credence to their existence and functions in schools in Nigeria. Beyond role delegation to subordinates, the enactment of a committee system, teamwork or board systems in school leadership has proven to enhance leadership effectiveness.

Since the roles of SMT include teacher supervision and professional development, I wanted to know participants' perceptions of SMTs in schools. Probing questions to gain deeper insight into participants' understanding of the team/committee system as an integral part of school leadership reveals that they have a limited understanding of SMT, its formation and roles. Although all the participants are

aware that their schools have SMT, their responses are contradictory regarding the formation and functions of SMT in their schools.

The first question I asked was, “Does your school have a school management team?” Sequel to their responses, I further probed by asking, “What is their (SMT) formation and functions?”

As I indicated earlier, they all acknowledge that SMT exists in their schools but differ in their understanding of SMT formations and functions. Some of the responses I got as touching the formation are as follows:

According to Mr Braimo, the school principal at Up Hill School:

> *Yes, we do. In the committee or management team, we have the principal, the vice principal and the Heads of Departments*

Concurring with Mr Braimo, Mr King, the vice-principal, Kingdom School, also remarked:

> *Yes, the formation we have is the principal, the vice principals, the heads of departments and the school board supervisor.”*

So also, Mrs Apata, a vice-principal in Church School, remarked:

> *Yes, as I indicated earlier, everyone in the school chart constitutes the school management team. That is, the school principal as the head of the committee, the vice principals the head of departments and Year Tutors.*

Teacher participants' responses are also diverse as touching those who constitute SMTs in their schools. They mentioned some school staff in addition to those mentioned by the school administrators. They include non-school staff, as well as bodies that do not participate in school daily affairs as members of SMTs. Mrs Adebare in Church School said:

> *…yes, this involves the school principal, the PTA, the PTA committee, and the vice principal.*

While responding to the same question, Mr Badmos, in Church School, mentioned that in addition to school-based educational practitioners,

individuals or entities are not actively involved in school daily activities. He has this to say:

> *They include the school principal, the vice principals, and a clergyman who is involved and the chairman of the Board representing the church because the school is a missionary school- The representatives of the Parent-Teacher Association as well as student representatives. We have teachers' representatives, and the Heads of Departments are also represented.*

So also, Mrs Agbabiaka Up Hill School remarked:

> *…the school principal, the vice principals, the head of departments, and the blockhead or tear tutor, the registrar, and the counsellor.*

Broadly speaking, regardless of the nomenclature ascribed to SMT, its function is to ensure the smooth running of schools as well as uphold the standard, among which is teacher quality and competence. Hence, the need to understand participants' perceptions of SMT roles in their respective schools.

Drawing from the disparity in participants' understanding of the formation of SMT, the dataset suggests that their understanding would differ regarding its functions. As a matter of fact, some teacher participants have no idea of SMT functions in their schools. This is exactly what the data revealed when I asked the question, "What are the functions of the SMT in your school?" Some of the participants responded according to their understanding.

Mr King, the vice-principal, of Kingdom School asserted asserts that SMT functions include instructional supervision and counselling of teachers:

> *Their function is to impart knowledge to the teachers… they would have to study the teachers and notice the areas of their weaknesses …you will observe that and during the course of counselling, you call the attention then and advise them based on your observation.*

According to Mrs Kate in Kingdom School, in addition to supervision, they also perform other roles. Her words:

> *"They see to the supervision of the school teachers during teaching-learning process. That is called instructional supervision. They also ensure that the attendance registers of the teachers are updated. They also ensure that the yellow book that contains the performance of the students is also updated."*

Besides instructional supervision, counselling and upkeep of some school records, as indicated by Mr King and Mrs Kate, Mr Badmus and Mrs Agbabiaka dwell on school funding and planning as part of SMT functions. The following excerpts show this:

> *…they ensure the smooth running of the school. They also see to how the school is being financed with various grants from the government and the World Bank.*
>
> *They are the ones that plan the school activities for the year. They meet before the school resumes every session to deliberate on the activities for the year.*

Unlike other participants, Mr Adebare has no idea about the functions of SMT in his school. He said:

> *…well, I don't have an idea of what their functions are because I am not part of the committee. They don't relate information that has to do with their functions to us except for information that concerns teachers and students. Most times, we don't even know when such meetings are being held in the school.*

Mrs Apata, the vice-principal of Church School, gave a detailed explanation of the roles of SMT members in her school as follows:

> *…the role of the principal is to control the school system, the teaching and the non-teaching. The vice principal had to do each of the duties of the school principal as assigned to them. This entails monitoring the teaching and non-teaching staff, supervision*

of the head of department and the blockheads, and the supervision of the class teachers. The head of the department also supervises and monitors the lesson notes of the teachers. They assigned subjects to the teachers and the number of periods they are to spend in the classroom. The blockheads or the year tutors are to monitor the registers given to the class teachers to ensure that the teachers are punctual in the class and also ascertain the number of students present in the school that week.

The comments of school administrators touching on SMT formation are somewhat similar but with variations. They all agree that the principal, vice-principals and HODs are part members of the committee, but Mr King included the school board supervisor, while Mrs Apata included the year tutors as members of SMT. The above data set revealed that participants' perceptions of SMT formation and functions vary from one school to another and from one participant to another. This implies that teachers and schools, in general, are deprived of the contributions of SMT in their schools, especially in the area of teacher professional development.

5.4 Theme 2: School Administrators' and Teachers' Perception of Teacher Professional Development

The first secondary research question in this study was targeted at uncovering participants' understanding of what constitutes teacher professional development. The questions states*, "How is teachers' professional development understood in the selected schools?* The theme that emerged in the data *is school administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teachers' professional development* with the following subthemes: (1) Acquisition of Higher Degree (2) Collegial Support (3) Instructional supervision (4) Seminar, Conference and Workshop. They are hereby discussed as follows:

Professional development has been variously conceptualised with different names by scholars. It is otherwise known as in-service training (in-set), Continuous Professional Development (CPD) and on-the-job training. Regardless of the nomenclature, the main aim of professional development is to ensure that

professionals are kept abreast of the latest development in their areas of specialisation. In the education sector, the pivotal roles of teacher and the dynamic of the school landscape require that teachers need to constantly update their skill set through professional development. One of the hallmarks that guarantee an effective school system in countries such as Finland, Canada, Australia and USA is the mandatory teacher professional development for teachers (Darling-Hammond, Wei & Andree, 2010:2). This practice differs in developing countries, including Nigeria. In this study, I sought to understand the perception of school administrators and teachers on how Teacher Professional Development is being enacted in the participant schools. I also analysed policy documents to determine the provisions for teacher professional development.

5.4.1 Sub-Theme 1: Acquisition of Higher Degree

Higher Professional development could be achieved through the pursuit of a higher degree. For instance, the minimum prerequisite for being a teacher in Nigeria is National Certificate in Education (NCE) (FGN, 2014), while the highest requisite degree is a Bachelor's degree in education (B. Ed). This implies that teachers who got employed with the minimum requirement of NCE could proceed to acquire a Bachelor's degree (B. Ed) in education. Surprisingly, I found out that some teachers in the selected schools possess higher degrees such as a Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGD), Master of Education and even a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree. During our conversation, I realised that the motive behind pursuing degrees higher than Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) varies from one participant to the other.

Some of the reasons attributed to the pursuit of a higher degree include: first, Ekiti State, where the research site was located, is considered the most educated state in the country with the highest number of professors across the 36 states, including Abuja, the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) (Kolesnik, 2018). Hence, having a higher degree is a pride and a show of true representation of the state. Second, the possibility of higher job offers with a pay rise, such as lecturing in a higher institution of learning or researchers in a research institute, is also ascribed to the

pursuit of a higher degree. Third, though very similar to the last point, teachers pursue a high degree as a way of having an edge during job search because first-degree holders in the country are enormous, thereby making B.Ed commonplace; fourth, a higher degree is believed to increase teacher's pedagogical know-how and ultimately enhance performance.

Regardless of the motive, the participants perceived pursuant of a higher degree as a means of professional development. When I asked some of the participants the question, "what do you understand by teacher professional development?" A good number of them responded as follows:

Mr Braimo, the principal of Up Hill School, has this to say:

> *Teacher professional development includes the additional qualification and improvements that the teacher undergoes while on the job. In this school, we have three teachers who obtained their Master's and PhD degrees while teaching. About two of them had concluded and just resumed duty this morning from their master's degree programme. Personally, I started teaching with a bachelor's degree, and I have obtained my Postgraduate Diploma (PGD) and Master's degree. I just decided to hold on because of the age factor.*

From his expression, it is obvious that Mr Braimo sees the acquisition of higher degrees as a form of professional development. Moreso, the fact that he shelved the idea of pursuing PhD due to age factor confirms that having a higher degree could be a means of personal satisfaction and true representation of Ekiti State – his state of origin.

Reinforcing Mr Braimo's view, Mr King, the vice principal academic, at Kingdom School, also remarked:

> *… some of the teachers came here with their Bachelor of Education but are now PhD holders. They did that while in service with us.*

To confirm Mr King's claim, Mrs Kate, Mr Blessing and Mrs Grace are participants in Kingdom School who had acquired master's and PhD degrees while on the job. Here is an excerpt from my interview with them:

> *I started my teaching career with a National Certificate of Education - NCE today, I am a holder of a Master's degree in education. I was granted a study leave to embark on a higher degree by the government.*
>
> *…I obtained my first degree through a part-time programme also known as a sandwich. I did this while I was working at the same time. We have master's and PhD degrees holders in the school.*

Mrs Kate in Kingdom School was one of the PhD holders who participated in the study. She has this to say;

> *…opportunity was given to teachers who were willing to further their educations. It happened to be study leave with pay. My school principal allowed me to embark on my master's degree; similarly, the same happened during my PhD programme.*

Participants in other schools shared similar views on the acquisition of higher degrees as a form of professional development. For instance, Mr Ade in Up Hill School sees professional development as a means of personal development and a way of enhancing performance through a higher degree. He remarked:

> *I see teacher professional development as various means by which teachers try to enhance their performance on a job. For instance, I did not study an education-related course in my first degree, but I proceeded to a Postgraduate Diploma… and I also have a plan to embark on my master's degree. To develop myself. So professional development also entails going for a higher degree?*

Similarly, Mrs Aderemi, a teacher at Church School, was on the verge of completing her PhD programme during the interview. She comments:

> *By the grace of God, let me say I am a PhD holder by faith. It was in this profession that I realised that I have to move further. I went for my master's, now I am doing my PhD.*

To further establish the importance that participants ascribe to a higher degree as a means of teacher professional development, Mrs Folaranmi in Up Hill School attempted a master's degree on two occasions before giving up. Her narrative:

> *…I started my career with a bachelor's in education, I attempted to embark on my master's degree programme, but I was discouraged because of my supervisor's attitude. I did it twice but could not finish for this reason.*

Overall, it is evident in the above excerpts that both school administrators and teachers who participated in this study recognised the acquisition of higher degrees as a form of teacher professional development. Beyond the recognition of higher degrees as a means of TPD, most of them obtained higher degrees while on the job. One interesting thing is that the state government allows teachers to pursue higher degrees beyond a Bachelor of Education, which is the maximum requirement for teaching in the country. Another sub-theme that depicts the perceptions of participants' TPD is collegial support which is discussed subsequently.

5.4.2 Sub-Theme 2: Collegial support

Collegiality among teachers is a veritable component of teacher professional development that has been proven effective (Gore & Rosser, 2020:228). It entails learning from a peer or experienced colleagues in the same area of specialisation. It is one of the flexible and easy-to-come-by components of professional development. Collegial support could be formal or informal. Teacher collegiality informs and improves instruction delivery, classroom management, job satisfaction and adaptability among teachers, indicating sources for all factual information. One of the probing questions I asked to elicit data on participants' understanding of teacher professional development was, "Have you had a cause (s) to approach a

colleague for assistance in the subject you teach?" I categorised their responses into four: one-on-one collegiality, feedback from training, departmentalisation and lesson note committee.

5.4.2.1 One-on-one collegiality

One-on-one collegiality entails a situation where a teacher approaches another teacher in his/her area of specialisation to learn something new that can positively influence his/her skill set. Mrs Grace in Kingdom School had this to say:

> *It is a common thing. Personally, I do that often when I realise I have difficulty understanding certain concepts. I do approach even junior colleagues for assistance. In my former school, we have a forum during school hours where we update ourselves on the new development in our area of specialisation.*

Similarly, while responding to the same questions, Mr Ade in Up Hill School commented as follows:

> *I have personally approached an experienced teacher for assistance; some teachers had approached me for assistance on the subject I teach in the past.*

The response of Mrs Aderemi in Church school reinforces the experience of the previous two teachers in a slightly different form. But in her case, she was the one who offered collegial support to another teacher. Moreso, she indicated that it is a usual practice to approach teachers in other departments for assistance. This is evidenced in the following excerpt:

> *I have had occasions where people walk up to me because I studied economics in my first degree. There was a particular topic in Agric and I think the teacher needed an explanation and requested that I explain to her what the calculation meant. I sat her down and I taught her and she was happy and said thank God for your life. Even English issues like that happened especially in the area of tenses. There are times when one has finished lesson*

objectives that one may have to walk up to people in Language Art to see if the tenses are correct.

Drawing from the above, teacher collegiality is a professional development practice that cuts across the three selected schools. It is evident that the teachers find it useful and do not hesitate to ask for help when needed. Another sub-theme that emerged from the data is "Feedback from Training." Compare and contrast with the findings of previous studies.

5.4.2.2 Feedback from Training

Feedback from training as a form of professional development is a practice whereby a teacher nominee for a training (seminar, conference or workshop) returns to school to share the knowledge he/she has acquired with other colleagues who did not participate in such training. This could be on a departmental basis or general. Moreso, the school administrators mandate and motivate such teachers to impact knowledge gained by training other teachers.

Mr King, the vice-principal of Kingdom School, commented on the efforts of the school in this direction. His comments:

…so, at times, when you have people going out for outside seminars that are sponsored by the government, sometimes we give them a stipend to impart that knowledge on others in the same department. These are what we have been doing at our level.

Mrs Agbabiaka in Up Hill School corroborated this while responding to the same question. She said:

Sometimes the school principal would ask the teachers to assemble and ask those who went for such training to brief the rest of the teachers.

Mrs Grace and Mr Blessing in Kingdom School confirm the assertion of their vice-principal respectively, as follows:

…those who attend such training organise a forum through which they give the rest of the teachers feedback on the new developments in their areas of specialisation.

It is a usual practice for them to update the rest of the teachers with the new information and knowledge gained during the conferences.

Mrs Aderemi in Church School confirmed that the practice is similar in her school also. She remarked:

Many times …school principals usually select some teachers …to go for seminars …they will now tell them that once they are back in school, they will have to impart what they have learnt on others. So, it is a normal thing to train and retrain within the school.

Evidence from the three selected schools established the view that feedback for non-attendees of professional training is a common practice for those who attended. This is because not all teachers from all the schools in the state can be accommodated into the venue of such training. Hence, the need to nominate teachers from each department to attend the Ministry of Education, State Universal Basic Education, Teaching Service Commission and International Development Partners professional development training. Worthy of note is that in some cases, the feedback process is less formal and initiated by departmental heads while in another, the feedback process is formal and more routine. In some schools, teachers who attended such training are incentivised to impart knowledge gained to other teachers.

5.4.2.3 Departmentalisation

School restructuring or reorganisation in a manner that enables same subject teachers' offices or tables to converge at close proximity is what I refer to as departmentalisation. This type of collaborative organisational structure often results in robust and sustained collegiality that promotes professional development

among staff members in an organisation, including the school system. Departmentalisation of teachers on the basis of subject emerged from the data set as a sub-theme under participants' understanding of teacher professional development.

This was evidenced in Dr (Mrs) Kate in Kingdom School's comment as follows:

> *The principal ensures that he puts individual teachers in the same departments together to enable them to support themselves. For example, in mathematics, all the teachers are within the same office.*

In the same vein, Mrs Apata, the VP of Church School, pointed out that heads of departments often organise departmental training for teachers in a bid to keep them abreast of the latest development in their areas of specialisation as well as improve performance. According to her:

> *Teacher professional development is very important. Our school is professional development friendly. Sometimes the head of department organises team teaching where teachers update themselves on new developments in their subject areas. In spite of the training teachers had acquired at institutions of learning, we still organise training for them at the level of the school to enable them to perform effectively. We train them on topics such as the use of English, the new developments in their field and so on.*

Departmentalisation as an agency of professional development takes the form of departmental teachers' forum in Up Hill School. A forum where and during which same subject teachers converge for the purpose of subject-related information sharing. Mr Ade in Up Hill School remarked:

> *… my HOD usually does that through our departmental forum. Sometimes we do half sections of orientation and reorientation of teachers on how to enhance our performance as teachers.*

Overall, it could be inferred from the above statements that departmentalisation as an agency of collegiality which culminated in teacher professional development, cuts across the three schools. The school administrator believes that departmentalisation breeds team spirit and enhances effectiveness. The enactment of the forum within schools is another form of collegiality that fosters teacher professional development.

5.4.3 Sub-Theme 3: Attendance of Seminars, Conferences and Workshops

Attendance of seminars, conferences and workshops remains one of the hallmarks of professional development across industries, including education. Organisers of these training could be private or public sector through the State Ministry of Education (MoE), State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB), Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) and International Development Partners (IPDs). The data revealed that teachers are nominated on a departmental basis to attend seminars, workshops and conferences. It was revealed that the most attended TPDs are those organised by MoE, SUBEB, TESCOM and IDPs. The participants' perceptions on seminars, conferences and workshops as components of TPD are captured hereafter.

Mr King, the vice-principal of Kingdom School, opined that school-based seminars and workshops are a means of improving TPDs in schools. He said:

> *… there are many ways, for instance, you organise seminars and workshops. So, when you do this, you increase their intelligence levels because they will have acquired much intelligence. In that case, this is another way of improving their professional development...*

Mrs Aderemi of Church School spoke about teachers' attendance of seminars, conferences and workshops as components of TPD from an off-school perspective. She spoke about nominations of teachers for off-school training, the incentives attached to attendance, and the need for the attendee to train his or her colleagues who did not attend such training. She remarked:

Many times, the school principal selects some teachers and asks them to go for seminars and in most of the seminars, they pay each of the teachers. They will now tell them that once they are back to school, they will have to impart others with what they have learnt. So, it is a normal thing that gives room for training and retraining within the school.

Dr (Mrs) Kate in Kingdom School re-echoed Mrs Aderemi's perspective and added that TPD could be formal and informal.

We have formal and informal professional development support, such as seminar workshops and research. The school principal had, on many occasions, appointed teachers to go for seminars, workshops and conferences organised by the government through the Ministry of Education.

While responding to the same question, Mr Ade in Up Hill School shared the same sentiment as Dr (Mrs) Kate but added personal research as a form of TPD. According to her:

…He (the principal) also ensures that all departments are well represented whenever there is a seminar. Attending workshops and conferences, personal research is also another way of professional development

It was also revealed that attendance of seminars, workshops or conferences organised by the Ministry of Education was on a quota basis. According to Mrs Adebare in Church School;

I had worked with the school principal who encouraged that. He would always encourage teachers to go to seminar workshops and so on. There are times the state government organises seminars, and it is only those who are selected that attend. Not all teachers can participate in such seminars because there are quotas for each school.

Drawing from the participants responses, the data shows that teachers in the selected school are of the opinion that attendance of seminars, workshops and conferences contribute to TPD. More so, given that fact that not all teachers can attend such training at the same time, the modus operandi was nomination/selection of teachers on a departmental basis.

5.5 Theme 3: The Leadership Roles of School Administrators in Teacher Professional Development

School administrators are appointed by the government through the Ministry of Education for the purpose of effective school administration and management. The main objective of this study was to investigate the leadership roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development. The dataset in this study revealed that their roles include instructional supervision, endorsement of teachers' application for further studies, and motivation and moral support.

5.5.1 Sub-Theme 1: Instructional supervision

Instructional supervision entails overseeing and monitoring instructional delivery practices of teachers within and outside the classroom with the aim of adherence to the standard. Standards for instructional delivery are often stated in the curriculum, but implementation could differ from teacher to teacher due to various factors. Some of the factors include personality traits, experience, content knowledge, school context, class context and availability of instructional material/teaching aids. Nevertheless, regardless of the shape of these factors in a given school, school administrators are expected to monitor and motivate teachers to uphold standard, a process that often culminates in professional development.

Data generated through semi-interview revealed that participants see routine and unannounced instructional supervision by school administrators or their delegates, such as the vice-principal and the HODs, as a form of teacher professional development. This was evidenced in data captured from the interview with both school administrators and teacher participants. Below are some of their responses.

Looking at instructional supervision from teachers' welfare in the classroom, monitoring and counselling perspective, Mr King, the Vice Principal of Kingdom School has this to say;

> *…supervision can take different forms. There is a need for you to go to the classes to monitor them because you have to see how comfortable they are in the classroom. Then from time to time, you will have to invite them to ask them questions to know what their problems are. Supervision also involves monitoring their records and lesson notes to ensure they're properly written. If there are other things to do, you would be able to correct them. If there are things that go wrong, then you, as a leader, would be able to advise and counsel them.*

Similarly, while responding to the same question, Mrs Apata, the Church School vice-principal, stated that:

> *We also move around to carry out instructional supervision and check their lesson notes to ensure they are teaching the right thing.*

Sharing the same view but from a delegation perspective, Mr Braimo, Up Hill School principal, also remarked;

> *Automatically we have a vice-principal for that, but I oversee the activity of that vice-principal. Sometimes we call teachers' attention to different teaching methods if we realise that the methods they are adopting are not effective.*

Teacher participants also corroborated the views of school administrators on instructional supervision as a form of TPD. For instance, Mrs Aderemi in Church School talked about announced (routine) and unannounced instructional supervision by school administrators, an inspection of teachers' lesson notes and monitoring of teachers' class attendance. Below is an excerpt from my interview with her:

There can be routine checks and there are some you don't have to tell them; you just move around to see, if you are not on ground whether they will do what is expected of them. So, it is expected for you to go on inspection unannounced and there are some you announce. Sometimes you collect lesson notes from teachers and cross-check them. My school principal does that. He would cross check that of the HODs to see what they have. In fact, there was a time the HODS were given exercise books to take attendance of classroom teachers who used to write their lesson notes properly and promptly… there are times the school principal goes to the students to ask them what is going on. Many times, suggestion boxes are used to collect data from the students in an anonymous way.

Partly confirming some of Mrs Aderemi's view, Mrs Adebare in Church School said:

To ensure that they go to class as and when due. (I once worked with a vice- principal who was always on supervision from 8 a.m. to 2 p.m.). He also ensured that teachers went to the classroom when they had lessons. The vice principal made a checklist for the students to attest to the topic taught in the class each day.

Detailing the modus operandi of instructional supervision in Church School, Mr Badmos stated that:

Yes, they do on a regular basis. In this school, we have six vice-principals. A vice-principal is attached to supervise each block/building that contains students levels such as Junior Secondary Schools 1, 2 and 3.

While agreeing with Mr Badmos's view, Mrs Folaranmi in Up Hill School spoke about the mode of correction of teachers that need to be corrected by the supervisor during supervision.

Yes, our school principal embarks on instructional supervision on a daily basis. And if the teacher is found wanting, such a teacher is being corrected sometimes after the lessons, but definitely not in the presence of the students.

It is evidenced from participants' responses that instructional supervision is perceived as a component of teacher professional development. Not only that, it was understood as a means to enhance teachers' performance and effectiveness. It was revealed that school administrators could carry out instructional supervision from the HOD cadre to the principal cadre. I found out that instructional supervision could be a routine or spontaneous activity within the school. The data set showed that teachers' lesson note inspections and counselling form an integral part of instructional supervision. It was also revealed that school administrators set students as watch-dogs to ascertain teachers' punctuality in class which is also one of the attributes of a professional teacher.

5.5.2 Sub-Theme 2: Endorsement of Teachers' Application for Further Studies

On-the-job training with a view to acquiring high degree often necessitate that a member of staff (in this case, teachers), apply for study leave from their employer. Study leave implies that teachers on study leave would be off from school throughout the study period. Sometimes such leave comes with pay, while in some other instances, the teacher's salary is suspended by the employer until the teacher resumes duty upon completing such programme. Pivotal in the process of study leave application is the approval/endorsement of the applicant's form by the school administrator. Given the fact that government is the employer of teachers, the endorsement of their supervisors/school principals is germane to the overall approval of their application for study leave by the Ministry of Education.

One of the questions I asked teacher participants during the interview was, "In what ways does your school administrator support your professional development?" Flipping the question, I asked the school administrators: "In what way(s) do you support your teacher's professional development?" The finding of

this study revealed that approval for further studies is one of the ways through which school administrators support teachers' professional development. While making references to how he has been able to support and approve teachers' applications for study leave, Mr Braimo of Up Hill school said:

> *Teacher professional development includes the additional qualification and improvements the teacher undergoes while on the job. In this school, we have three teachers who have embarked on their master's and PhD degrees while they are teaching. About two of them had concluded and just resumed duty this morning from their master's degree programme.*

The response of Mr King in Kingdom School was corroborated Mr Braimo's submission on school administrators' support for TPD in forms of approval for further studies.

> *…yes, we do allow them the moment they obtain permission from the Ministry of Education; we have no choice but to allow them to embark on their studies.*

To further establish the claims of these school administrators, responses from teacher participants evidenced that school administrators endorse teachers' applications for study leave. According to Mr Badmos in Church School:

> *the school principal's roles in supporting teacher professional development include endorsing application form for higher degrees that has been granted by the Teaching Service Commission.*

One of the beneficiaries of such endorsement is Dr (Mrs) Kate in Kingdom School. She bagged her Master's and PhD degrees through study leave with pay. She attributed this to the support of her school administrators in schools where she had served as a teacher. According to her:

I remember that if not for the support of my school principal, it would not have been easy to embark on my Master's degree programme in the year 2010, although our government in Ekiti State usually give us study leave.

Another beneficiary of study leave with pay is Mr Blessing from the same school. He also attested as follows:

Teachers with minimum qualification of National Certificate of Education (NCE) are encouraged by our principal to embark on higher degrees such as Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.). I started my teaching career with NCE, and today, I am a holder of a Master's degree in education. I was granted a study leave to embark on a higher degree by the government.

To confirm if the narrative is the same across schools, I asked similar questions in all the schools. I discovered that the narrative is no different from the responses of Mr Ade and Mrs Agbabiaka in Up Hill School.

Mr Ade in Up Hill School responded:

Yes, they (school administrators) support teacher professional development. For instance, some of our colleagues are currently embarking on their higher degrees. Some just returned after the period of study leave.

Similarly, Mrs Agbabiaka Up Hill School has this to say:

Most of the school principals I have worked with encouraged teachers to embark on further studies. In this school, we have those who have benefitted from study leave with pay.

Overall, the findings that constitute this sub-theme show that school administrators' endorsement of teachers' application for study leave supports TPD. The data revealed that both school administrators and teachers affirmed study leave as a component of teacher professional development and that school administrators'

roles in application approval are a factor to be reckoned with. Interestingly, some of the participants were beneficiaries of study leave with the approval of their school administrators as a token of support towards their professional development.

5.5.3 Sub-Theme 3: Motivation and Moral Support

Motivation and moral support by school administrators were the impetus that was revealed in the data as school administrators' means of contributing to teacher professional development. Both school administrators and teachers attested to the influence of words of motivation and diverse moral support from school administrators as factors that positively influence their professionalism. According to the data, motivation and supports to teachers are in the form of counselling on professional and personal issues, financial and kind gestures of various kinds that are capable of enabling teachers to attain and maintain the right frame of mind towards their job.

According to Mr Braimo, Up Hill School Principal:

> *It is the principal's responsibility to motivate the vice-principal to work. Personally, I encourage my teachers, I motivate them, and sometimes I push them. I encourage them to read and to research even when they complain that there is no money to further their education. I encourage them to embark on personal development. I challenge them to buy the latest textbooks with a promise to refund them when the school receives a grant from the government.*

Similarly, Mr King, the vice principal of Kingdom School, has this to say:

> *Management and the school principals encourage teachers to go for an additional degree. Yes, we allow them the moment they obtain permission from the Ministry of Education; we have no choice but to allow them to embark on their studies.*

Mrs Apata, the vice-principal of Church School, corroborated the assertions of the above two school administrators.

> *…Yes, we do encourage our teachers to go for further studies to enhance their performance in the classroom.*

The narrative was similar to the data generated by teacher participants. For instance, Mr Blessing in Kingdom School said:

> *The current school principal supports the teachers in several ways. Sometimes he impacts on the individual by way of counselling and instructional support. They motivate the teachers by counselling them and supporting them in areas where they are lacking. Teachers with minimum qualifications of NCE are encouraged to embark on higher degrees such as Bachelor of Education (BSc Ed.).*

Dr (Mrs) Kate in Kingdom School shared her personal experience on how performance-based incentives and rewards from the school management have positively influenced her commitment and performance to the teaching profession.

> *Our school principal usually reinforces and rewards the teachers based on their performance. Sometimes he will call on the teachers and charge them to develop themselves. For example, in the year 2020, I happened to be the overall best teacher in the school and a certificate of recognition was given to me. He also gave the best vice principal award and the same goes for the best teacher. This motivates me to work harder and in most cases, I resume duty very early to school to teach the students. I remember if not for the support of my school principal, it would not have been easy to embark on my master's degree programme in the year 2010, although our government in Ekiti state usually give us study leave.*

While responding to the same question, Mrs Grace in Kingdom School noted:

> *In this school, we have good leadership. The school principal and vice principal give the staff moral support by calling their attention to how noble the profession is and encouraging them to give their best.*

Motivation and support in the forms of teaching aids were highlighted by Mr Ade in Up Hill School:

> *They also give incentives such as manuals for teaching our subjects more effectively. Through this we have been able to improve on our instructional delivery.*

Speaking from a moral and financial point of view, Mr Badmos said, “support could be in formal emotional, financial, advice or any other thing.” This view was broadened by Mrs Agbabiaka in Up Hill School who stated that:

> *Sometimes the school principal usually comes to teachers' aid if they are in a problem. They can assist them financially and most times, if such a teacher needs counselling, such a principal can assist. It could be spiritual advice or fatherly or motherly advice.*

The data is suggestive of indicating that teachers receive multi-faceted motivation from school administrators, which, in turn, boost their morale towards upholding teaching best practices. This also implies that leadership supports professional development transcends formal rules.

5.6 Theme 4: Operationalisation of Teacher Professional Development in Nigerian Schools

The contemporary speedy evolution of knowledge and the ever-changing dynamics of the school landscape occasioned by modernisation, globalisation and the influx of technologies necessitates constant professional development training for teachers. The data was generated in a bid to answer the question, *Who is responsible for teacher professional development?* It revealed that the government via the Ministry of Education, education parastatals such as TESCOM and Teacher

Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), agencies and International Development Partners (IDPs) are on the front burner of TPD in Nigeria (TRCN, 2005).

As indicated in the literature, the education system in Nigeria is highly centralised and as such, the government as the teachers' employer plays a prominent role in the enactment of teacher professional development in the country. An attempt was made to unpack policy provisions with regard to who should be (and who is) responsible for TPD. This was juxtaposed with responses from participants during interview sections. The provisions in relevant policy statements consulted and data from the field were in tandem. They show that government is at the centre of TPD.

This theme was discussed under three sub-themes, namely: the entity responsible for TPD; teachers' perception of Ministry-organised TPD; and teachers' preference for School-Based TPD.

5.6.1 Sub-Theme 1: The Entity Responsible for Teacher Professional Development

The National Policy on Education Section 5 Subsection B provides for teacher education. The section gives credence to the need for quality teachers to provide quality education. Since teacher professional development is an integral part of teacher education, the National Policy on Education (2013) stated the goals of teacher education in part as follows:

> *… in-service training shall be part of continuing teacher education. It is mandatory that all school proprietors provide in-service education for teachers.*
>
> *...teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) shall continue to register teachers and regulate teachers' professions and practices.*
>
> *… efforts towards the improvement of quality education at all levels shall include; putting in a coherent national framework for*

teacher development and professional teaching standards that set out what teachers should know and be able to do at all levels of education and the various stages of their professional development (i.e. on graduation from initial training on completion of an induction and for professional accomplishments).

...employment and regulation of long-life professional development of teachers through the provision of a wide range of programmes and multiple pathways to provide serving teachers with regular opportunities for updating their knowledge and skills (NPE, 2014:43-45)

A critical look at the above policy statements shows that the government acknowledges the importance of quality teachers in relation to quality education. However, the National Policy of Education did not clearly state the modality and framework for the design and deployment of teacher professional development. Another important point to be noted is that the government, through the federal and state Ministry of Education, are at the centre of teacher professional development in the country.

Similarly, FME (2007:55), in Education Reform Act 2007 further established the centralised nature of TPD and the legitimacy of the Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) as the body responsible for the management of TPD in all the states of the federation. The statement reads in part:

… Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) is the body corporate constituted under section 1 of the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria Act 1993 as the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria. …conduct mandatory Continuing Professional Education (MCPE) for registered teachers (FME, 2007:55).

It was believed that the involvement of TRCN would foster professionalism and improve performance among teachers, but it did not. The continuing deplorable situation led to a series of workshops in all states in the federation in search of

strategies to attain professionalism and improved teacher performance. This was captured in (FME, 2017:5) policy statement tagged *Framework for Monitoring the Implementation of the National Policy on Teacher Education in Nigeria* as follows:

> *"In 2013 and 2014, a series of national and state-level workshops were held to discuss the issue of poor teacher performance and to identify actions to be taken in pre-service and in-service teacher education to address these issues. In addition, a study visit to Bangladesh by the Heads of Federal and State Education Ministries,*
> *Departments and Agencies (MDAs) took place, which included a Strategy Meeting to initiate a draft strategy for the implementation of teacher reform in Nigeria. This strategy was then used by states to develop a strategic framework to implement the reform of teacher professional development processes* (FME, 2017:5).

This was also corroborated by the data generated from the field. Many of the participants confirmed that TPD is being organised by the government through MoE, SUBEB and IDPs. Sometimes, these bodies collaborate to organise TPD for teachers and at other times, they organise such training independently.

Below are excerpts from participants' responses to the questions "Who is responsible for teacher professional development?"

While responding to the question, Mrs Apata answered in affirmative as well as at government involvement in TPD from the perspective of further study via study leave with pay. Mrs Apata said:

> *…looking at it officially, the government should be responsible for teachers' professional development. It is the duty of the employer. They try their best by allowing teachers to embark on further studies. The Government grants study leave to teachers with pay*

which is a very good way of encouraging teachers to develop themselves.

Mr Braimo, Up Hill School principal, shared the same sentiment with Mrs Apata. According to him:

The government is really trying, hardly will a month past without the government organising training for the principals.

Confirming the above school administrators' views, Mrs Aderemi in Church School stated the magnitude of government involvement in TPD.

Basically, the government is responsible. There was a time the government of the state sent some teachers to train overseas on educational law. So, this takes the government to ensure the standards of teachers' quality. They do this and it is helpful. The government try to ensure that teachers become more efficient. They give study leave to teachers who are interested in studying and I know that the present administration can ask a teacher with a master's or PhD to come and head any unit because he is a learned fellow.

Mr Badmos in Church School, Mr Blessing in Kingdom School and Mr Ade in Uphill School, held similar views. They pointed out the collaborative efforts of the government with IDP, MoE and parastatals in TPD. According to them:

The role of professional development lies with the individual teacher and the government …It is the government, in conjunction with the World Bank and the Ministry of Education.

The government is responsible via Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) .

"*The employer is responsible, that is, the government. There was a time when the state Universal Basic Education Board organised one I was equally part of.*

In her response, Mrs Adebare explained, from an empowerment point of view, the rationale for government involvement in TPD through the Ministry of Education:

> *…professional development being handled by the principals of the schools is not easy. Because majorly teacher professional development is being handled by Teaching Service Commission. So, there is no room for the school principals to handle that. Since the state government does not empower the school principals to embark on school-based teacher professional development, the school administrators should intensify efforts to monitor and supervise the teacher.*

Drawing from the policy documents' provisions and the participants' views on the entity responsible for TPD, the data revealed that the government, through the MoE and TESCOM, in conjunction with other IDPs are the major players in TPD. It was also revealed that school administrators are not being empowered both policy-wise and financially to embark on TPD in their schools. The subsequent session reveals the view of participants on MoE, parastatals and IDPs organised TPD. I will refer to this type of training as centralised TPD hereafter.

5.6.2 Teachers Perception of Ministry-organised TPD

The previous sub-theme suggests that TDP are majorly organised by the government and its allies. The participants' perceptions vis a vis the effectiveness of centralised TPD informs this sub-theme. Perception, in this case, implies the observation, importance and value attributed to centralised TPD by the teachers. The data revealed that many teachers are not pleased with centralised TPD by the Ministry of Education and its allies due to what they perceived as its shortcomings.

Due to his observation of shortcomings that characterised the organisation of centralised TPD, Mr. King, the vice-principal of Kingdom School, spoke on the need for the organisers to incorporate experienced education practitioners as facilitators. According to him:

This has been made known to them in the ministry. I mean, the need to incorporate on-the-job facilitators in teacher professional development at the level of the states? … The administrators at the ministry had once taken to this correction and we appreciate them for that. I have had the opportunity of calling the attention of the Ministry of Education to this issue. That there is a need for the involvement of field workers either on the job or retired. These people have the experience and they know what is obtainable in the classroom and the school in general.

Mr Blessing in Kingdom School expressed displeasure with the partial representation of teachers and overcrowding in centralised TPD. This is because few teachers are selected from all schools to congregate in a single venue, thereby constituting a large crowd, a practice that negatively influence TPD effectiveness:

Although this type of training has its own shortcoming for me because not all teachers are represented…government organised training with a large number of attendees.

In consonance with Mr Blessing's submission, Mrs Olajide in Up Hill School noted that overcrowding in centralised TPD led to participants' loss of focus. According to her:

Many teachers lose focus during training that is organised by the ministry. When they get there, they embark on different or personal agendas leaving behind the purpose of such activity.

Overall, data on participants' perception of centralised TPD revealed shortcomings that characterised training, such as non-engaging appropriate facilitators, inadequate teacher representation, overcrowding and loss of focus. This sub-theme suggests that teachers have a preference for SBTPD. Hence, data on teachers' preference for SBTPD is analysed in the subsequent sub-theme.

5.6.3 Sub-Theme 2: Teachers' Preference for School-Based TPD

Informed by participants' perception of centralised/traditional TPD vis a vis the deficiencies that characterised it as indicated in the previous sub-theme, this sub-theme presents data on teachers' preference for SBTPD. This sub-theme emerged from responses to one of the probing questions: *"How do you compare ministry-organised training to school-based teacher professional development?"* The data set revealed that the rationale for participants' preference is associated with overcrowding in centralised TPD, lack of real-time collegial support during training, absence of the community of practice, wrong choice of facilitators and the need to align TPD along with teachers' professional needs.

While responding to the question, Mr Blessing in Kingdom School spoke about the negative effect of overcrowding in centralised TPD. He remarked:

> *I will suggest that the government encourage all schools to embark on school-based teacher professional development. This will enhance teachers' professional development. It will be more effective than government-organised training. This is because teachers will be few in number and that makes the management of training very effective as opposed to the government-organised training with a large number of attendees.*

The view of Mrs Adebare resonates with that of Mr Blessing. In addition, she emphasises the need for collegial support during training which is absent in the centralised training. According to her:

> *School-based teacher professional development is a good idea because teachers tend to learn better. It is better than the one held in a large crowd. During school-based teacher professional development, teachers can easily ask questions, and share knowledge within themselves, but when it is an outside seminar with about 1,000 trainees, such training are not always effective. That is why I prefer school-based teacher professional development.*

Juxtaposing centralised TPD and SBTPD, Mrs Folaranmi in UP Hill School share the same sentiment:

> *Personally, I think school-based teacher professional development will be more effective when compared with what is obtainable in general or ministry training. …. During such training, teachers are able to ask questions and they will have a better understanding. As for me, I prefer school-based teacher professional development.*

Mrs Grace in Kingdom School spoke from the community of practice point of view. This is to say that both the facilitators and the teachers are practitioners in SBTPD as opposed to a centralised TPD where the so called “experts” who could not relate to typical class contexts are hired as facilitators.

> *Yes, I prefer school-based professional development because it will be an assembly of professionals and teachers to gain much better than what they will have gained in the training organised by the Ministry of Education.*

Mr Badmos in Church School prefers SBTPD to centralised TPD because he believes some schools have in-house resource persons capable of anchoring such programmes.

> *It is possible it all depends on individual principal. It depends on their will to do it. There is a lot of potential resource persons among the teachers. In this school, we have many Master's and PhD holders who are capable.*

Teachers’ professional needs-oriented TPD and interactivity during training are the basis for Mr Ade in Up Hill School's preference for SBTPD.

> *I prefer school-based teacher professional development. The principal knows the area of need of each teacher. He will tailor the programme towards the needs of each teacher. This is preferable*

to the government or ministry-organised teacher professional development. It will be more interactive and people who gain a lot from it as opposed to the government-organised ones.

The data set that informs this sub-theme is evidence that teachers prefer SBTPD to centralised TPD. This disposition cut across all the selected schools for various reasons suggesting that centralised TPD has lost its significance among teachers. The next sub-theme presents possible school-based strategies for TPD that emerged from the data set.

5.7 Theme 5: Towards the Development of SBTPD

This theme is predicated on the earlier findings in this study as indicated in the previous themes. It was also necessitated by research objective number 5, which indicated that a strategy would be proposed for the implementation of TPD schools. To achieve this, I further probed the participants on possible ways to launch SBTPD in schools as well as possible threats that can mitigate its deployment.

5.7.1 Sub-theme 1: Emerging Approaches for Implementing SBTPD

One of the distinctions between andragogy and pedagogy is that andragogy principles hold that adult learners understand their needs and prefer that the contents of their training align with their needs. They also want to have input in their training content. Unlike pedagogy, where the content of the training is pre-designed for students without their input. The dataset in this study reveals that teachers are aware of their professional needs and capable of suggesting probable means of meeting *them ceteris paribus*.

The question I asked to elicit data was, “What model of TPD can be designed for school administrators to promote teachers’ professional development?” Some of the suggested approaches to SBTPD include: school-based conferences, workshops and seminars, discipline-based collegial support, leveraging on internal resource persons, need-assessment oriented SBTPD, invitation of experienced

and retired subject teachers and organising SBTPD shortly before school resumes.

Mr King, the vice-principal of Kingdom School, suggested school-based seminars, workshops and conferences as approaches to SBTPD. He has this to say:

> *…Yes, there are many ways. For instance, you organise seminars, workshops and conferences. So, when you do this, then you increase their levels of intelligence because they will have acquired many bits of intelligence in that case, this is another way of improving their professional development. …we are doing that at our level here. Sometimes we teach them how to write lesson notes. However, the will is equally important. The willingness of the school administrator to carry out school-based teacher professional development is equally important.*

Mr Braimo, Up Hill School principal, spoke about the SBTPD approach he adopted in his school, believing such could be replicated in other schools.

> *Yes, we do in-service training in the school. Sometimes we invite your retired but not tired school administrators. I've not done it this year, but I did last year. The training is facilitated by this set of people, including the school principal and vice-principals. Sometimes we receive offers from external education bodies to come and train our teachers. I screen through the contents of their training and allow them to deliver those contents I feel are appropriate for my teachers. Sometimes I allow them to spend about 1 hour with my teachers.*

The idea of SBTPD does not seem new to these school administrators because each of the school seems to have a resemblance or existing supportive system for teachers; though not a full-fledged SBTPD, they opined that this could be upgraded to a full-fledged SBTPD. Mrs Apata, Church School vice-principal, has this to say:

Our school is professional development friendly. Sometimes the head of department organises team teaching where teachers update themselves on the new developments in their subject areas. In spite of the training, teachers had acquired at institutions of learning, we still organise training for them at the level of the school to enable them to perform effectively. We train them on topics such as the use of English and the new developments in their field and so on.

The initiative to start a community of practice was contemplated at the time of this interview by teachers in the Mathematics department in Kingdom School. According to Dr (Mrs) Kate:

I think this is one of the things you want to discuss with the school principals. This is because we realised that many teachers, especially the new ones, cannot effectively teach the hard topics in Mathematics. In view of this, we want to ensure that the school principal approves the collaborative support of teachers who are well-grounded in this difficult topic for inexperienced teachers. So, we intend to propose a forum or an avenue where a group of teachers will be able to come together and mentor one another, especially in the area of difficult topics.

Though from the same school, Mr Blessing in Kingdom School spoke about the school's existing school-wide structure for SBTPD and the school's efforts in sourcing external facilitators.

In this school, we have the lesson note committee headed by the vice-principal academics and the Heads of Departments. This committee organised training for the teachers on how to write lesson notes once a term within the school. The vice principal academic embarks on lesson note routine checks and corrections. Sometimes the school administrators invite facilitators or experts to enlighten teachers on how to write good lesson notes. They also

train teachers on teaching methods and class management. During these sessions, teachers are informed about the current trend in the teaching profession.

Mr Badmos in Church School, talking from experience, suggested that competent teachers within the school can be appointed resource persons for SBTPD in addition to external facilitators.

Yes, I remember we used to have training within the school in my former school. It was a private school anyway. Resource persons were selected among teachers to handle difficult subjects and topics. Sometimes we used to invite resource persons from outside the school. But in government or public schools this doesn't happen. It is possible that it all depends on individual principal. It depends on their will to do it. There are a lot of potential resource persons among the teachers. In this school, we have many Master's and PhD holders who are capable.

His suggestions were also supported by Mrs Adebare in Church School. She said:

Yes, there are teachers who can facilitate such training in the school. Yes, we have some teachers who are very good at that.

Speaking from the standpoint of teacher professional need, funding and timing for SBTPD, Mr Ade in Up Hill School suggested as follows:

The principal knows the area of need of each teacher. He will tailor the programme towards the needs of each teacher. It will be more interactive and people who gain a lot from it as opposed to the government-organised ones. …my school usually does that through our departmental forum. Sometimes we have sections of orientation and re-orientation of teachers on how to enhance our performance as teachers. With the availability of sufficient funds, schools can organise teacher professional development training

towards the end of sessions or terms. During the training, resource persons will be sourced within the school among teachers, the Heads of Departments, the vice-principal and even the principal himself will stand as the key facilitator. With this, everyone will be happy and learn a lot from one another.

This idea was also subscribed to by Mrs Agbabiaka Up Hill School. She remarked:

> "As an administrator, if I have my way, I would like training to be organised prior to school resumption at the beginning of each term. This will enable the teachers to perform excellently well during return because they know what is expected of them."

In summary, the dataset that constitutes this sub-theme suggests that school administrators and teachers are aware of their professional needs. It was also revealed that the selected schools have a semi-structure for SBTPD despite the lack of provision for such in the National Policy on Education and relevant policy documents. The school administrators and the teachers are willing to embrace a full-fledged SBTPD if such finds a place in policy and is recognised by the government.

Upon further probe into the possibility of organising effective SBTPD, participants' views on possible threats also emerged as a sub-theme. This is discussed in the subsequent paragraph.

5.7.2 Sub-Theme 2: Possible Threat to SBTPD

In furtherance of the previous interview question on possible approaches to SBTPD, probing questions on factors that could mitigate its successful implementation in school revealed two major factors. These are funding and the will or discretion of school administrators to organise SBTPD. First, the financial predicament stems from the premise that education policy does not make policy and financial provisions for SBTPD. Secondly, school administrators are not allowed to levy the students for any reason; hence, there are no feasible means of

generating money to fund SBTPD. The dataset also revealed that since school administrators are not mandated by policy to organise SBTPD, organising SBTPD becomes discretionary for school administrators.

5.7.2.1 Lack of Finance, Policy Mismatch, Lack of Teaching Aids and School Administrators' Apathy

Planning and implementing professional development programmes require resources and funds irrespective of the size and context. This narrative was re-echoed in the dataset. Virtually all the participants identified lack of funds as the major obstacle capable of mitigating against the successful implementation of SBTPD. One of the participants mentioned the lack of policy provision in support of SBTPD, and about two teachers remarked that school administrators' will or desire to organise such training is also a factor to consider. One of the teacher participants see a lack of instructional materials as a potential threat to SBTPD. The interview question I asked was: "What are the possible challenges that could mitigate the successful implementation of SBTC?"

In presenting funds as a potential threat to SBTPD, I tried to avoid over-saturation as much as possible. On the other hand, presenting two few pieces of data could be misrepresented as little or no data. Hence, I decided to present a sizeable amount of data. Moreso, some of the construct/sub-sub theme has few responses. Their responses are discussed below:

Mr King, Kingdom School responded as follows:

> *For now, there is no fund in the schools to do this, except we call on the government to increase the grant allotted to each school. This money would be judiciously spent to organise school-based professional development for the teachers. If the finances are made available the school will do the needful.*

Another school administrator, Mr Braimo Up Hill School principal, has this to say:

> *The fund is a fundamental factor. The government grants are not enough to cater for school-based teacher professional*

development. Sometimes when I embark on such training, I end up spending from my salary.

Teachers' responses were in no wise different on the issue of funds. Some of them responded as follows:

One important factor is the availability of funds. The school administrators are not allowed to levy the students. In other words, there is no other source of income for the schools. School-based teacher professional development requires funds. Even if the school principal intends to organise training, the fund to pay the facilitators and take care of the participants need to be in place.

Similarly, Mr Ade in Up Hill School shares the same sentiment with other participants. According to him:

I think school-based teacher professional development can be best organised when there is funding. The government gives grants to schools, but this is not enough. With the availability of sufficient funds, schools can organise teachers for human development.

Responding from policy, financial and availability of teaching aids point of view, Mrs Adebare in Church School said:

Since the state government does not empower the school principals to embark on school-based teacher professional development, the school administrators should intensify efforts to monitor and supervise the teacher. The first problem I know is the financial constraints. Schools are not buoyant enough to run such programmes. The students are not levied and there is no other source of income for the schools. Secondly, the schools do not have sufficient instructional materials such as apparatus and textbooks. For example, students could not get a government textbook to borrow from the school library and the school librarian

attested that for years the school did not have priced books on Government subjects.

School administrators' will and readiness to organise SBTPD was identified as a potential threat by Mr Badmos:

It all depends on the individual principal. It depends on their will to do it.

From the above dataset, it is obvious that lack of funding is the major threat that hamper the operationalisation of SBTPD in schools.

Summary of the Chapter

This chapter chronicles the data collected with the instrumentation of semi-structured interviews. The data were thematised in a manner that responded to the research question. The themes were further segregated into sub-themes to give more clarity to participant responses.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS AND FORMULATION OF FRAMEWORK

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the interpretation and discussion of the data presented in chapter five as well as proposes a School-based Teacher Professional Development (SBTPD) Framework that school administrators can enact at the school level. As previously indicated, this study investigated the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. It also set to explore participants' understanding of teacher professional development, school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teacher professional development, the influence of the existing teacher professional development on teachers' professionalism as well as determine a leadership model that could enable school administrators to promote teacher professional development in their schools. Specifically, the research questions were raised as follows;

- What are the participants' perception of school leadership in the selected Nigeria secondary schools?
- How can teachers' 'professional development be understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?
- What are the school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria?
- How have the existing teacher professional development practices influenced teachers' professional development in Nigeria?
- What leadership model can be designed for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria?

To answer the above research questions, the following themes emerged from the data collected.

1. Participants' Perception of School Leadership
2. School Administrators' and Teachers' Perception of Teacher Professional Development
3. Roles of School Administrator in Teacher Professional Development
4. How is Teacher Professional Development operationalised in Nigerian schools?
5. Towards the development of School-based Teacher Professional Development (SBTPD)

In the subsequent sessions, I discuss the themes that emerged from data analysis with respect to the existing literature and the two theoretical frameworks that underpinned this study. Also, I attempted to establish the interrelatedness of the themes while addressing the research questions.

6.2 Theme 1: Participants' Perceptions of School Leadership

School leadership has been associated with school effectiveness via its direct influence on teachers' efficiency and indirect influence on student achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). It, therefore, became imperative to elicit data on participants' understanding of school leadership to further deepen insight into the expected leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teacher professional development. With regard to research question 1: "What are the participants' perceptions of school leadership in the selected Nigeria secondary schools in Nigeria" Based on the analysis of data, the following theme emerged "participants' perceptions of school leadership" with three sub-themes: distributive leadership, spread-over leadership and the roles of the school management team in school leadership. The sub-themes are discussed in the subsequent session.

6.2.1 Sub-Theme 1: Leadership is Distributive

As indicated in the findings, most participants believed that leadership is distributive. This view is linked with the complexities that characterise the modern school system and school leadership whereby a single leader can no longer shoulder leadership responsibilities in school, hence, the need to distribute leadership responsibilities over a string of sub-ordinates. This is consistent with Spillane's (2006) principles of distributed leadership which hinges on the leader, followers and situation.

Distributed leadership, from Spillane's perspective, consists of four elements: collaborative, collective, and coordinated (Spillane, 2006), which addresses the complexity and interdependence of modern school systems. This was also corroborated by the submission of Bush (2018:537) that distributed leadership in Nigeria has a semblance of the ideal model of distributed leadership but in reality, it is more of prescriptive distribution**.** The distributive nature of leadership could also be attributed to the traditional top-down nature of the Nigerian school system. The data further suggested that both school administrator and teacher participants agreed that distributing leadership roles to sub-ordinates engenders effective school leadership.

The data indicated that vice-principals, heads of departments and school management teams play key roles in professional development. In this study, the participants indicated that leadership responsibilities are often distributed among teachers. Consistent with this finding, the result of one of the pioneering studies on distributed leadership in the School of Education and Social Policy at Northwestern University 2004 by Spillane (2005:145) showed that “responsibility for leadership routines involves multiple leaders.” According to him, the number of leaders involved are determined by routine and subject areas. For example, he found out that monitoring and evaluation could be handled by the school principal and the vice-principal, while teacher professional development responsibilities involved the school principal, curricular specialist and heads of departments.

6.2.2 Sub-Theme 2: Spread-over Leadership Practice to Leverage on Non-positional Leaders' Expertise

School leadership from a distributed leadership perspective transcends allocation of leadership responsibilities to formal leaders to involving teachers without formal portfolio – who possess the necessary expertise to “get the job done”. During the interview, the question I asked the participants was, “Are teachers without formal portfolios assigned leadership responsibilities in your school?” The result from the study showed that participants agreed that school administrators assigned leadership responsibilities to teachers without formal leadership portfolios with the aim of leveraging on their resourcefulness and expertise in units/departments such as sports council, sanitation committee, staff welfare committee, teacher professional development among others. This practice is in consonance with the principle of Distributed Leadership Theory (as indicated in chapter two of this study), which holds that leaders should leverage multiple leaders, including the expertise of non-formal leaders in an organisation, to achieve set goals (Spillane, 2005:147).

The findings showed that school administrators are satisfied with the performances of teachers who are not formal leaders but are assigned leadership responsibilities. This implies that spreading-over leadership positively influences school effectiveness. This is similar to the findings of a systematic review of the literature study on the effect of a principal’s distributed leadership practice on students’ academic achievement by Daniel and Lei (2019). Bearing in mind that the positive effect of distributed leadership on student achievement is indirect through teachers’ effectiveness, they concluded that distributed leadership becomes effective when school administrators encourage “shared vision, shared power, enable others to act focus on capacity building and involve others in decision-making” (Daniel & Lei, 2019:195).

6.2.3 Sub-Theme 3: School Management Team (SMT) Roles in School Leadership

It is a common practice backed by law that schools in Nigeria should have a school board or school management team. The body comes under different nomenclature; nevertheless, the name(s) given their main function is to ensure effective school leadership. The result revealed a consensus among participants that their schools have a school management team which contribute to overall school effectiveness even in teacher professional development. Some of the participants indicated that Heads of Departments and other members of SMT do participate in instructional supervision. This suggests that in addition to the leadership roles of the school principal, SMT leadership roles also influence teachers' professional development. The result of this study indicated that SMT plays vital roles in leadership in the selected school. This was consistent with Williams and Young's (2022) notion. She argued that abolishment of school board participation in schools could have a profound negative effect on school effectiveness.

6.3 Theme 2: School Administrators' and Teachers' Perception of Teacher Professional Development

School administrators' and teachers' understanding of Teacher Professional Development (TPD) is a precursor to understanding their roles and the benefits they stand to gain (Bowe & Gore, 2016:361). One of the aims of this study was to describe the participants' understanding of teachers' professional development in Nigeria. Research question 2: "How can teachers 'professional development be understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?" was raised to address this objective. The question during the interview was, "What do you understand by teacher professional development?" This question also generated sub or probing questions during the interviews, which enabled me to gain deeper insight into their views on what teacher professional development means to them. Having analysed participants responses to the questions, the main theme that emerged is what I titled: "School Administrators' and Teachers' Perception of Teacher Professional

Development.” In the course of data analysis, participants' understanding of TDP was categorised into the following sub-themes: acquisition of higher degree, collegial support, one-on-one collegiality, feedback from training, departmentalisation; workshops, seminars and conferences.

6.3.1 Sub-Theme 1: Acquisition of Higher Degree

In a bid to categorise participants’ understanding of TPD, the results showed that consensus among the majority of them that acquiring a higher degree is one of the means through which teachers develop themselves professionally. The data indicated that, besides acquiring a higher degree as an approach to TPD, it is also a thing of pride and culture to be well-read in Ekiti State, where the field of the study was located. The result showed that the state government made provisions for teachers who are willing and have satisfied certain conditions to embark on further study as a means of professional development.

The result revealed that some of the teachers hold PhD degrees and that this feat positively enhanced their productivity in class. For example, two of the teachers (first, a PhD candidate and second, a PhD holder) indicated that other teachers approach them for guidance on subject knowledge content and pedagogical practices to enhance their instructional delivery practices. This finding supports the result of Fox *et al*. (2015) in a study that examined the influence of early career (EC) and experienced (EXP) teachers’ enrollment in an advanced master's degree programme in the USA on their teaching practice, reflective capacity and professional leaning. They found out that early career (EC) teachers became more confident and knowledgeable in pedagogical knowledge, while experienced (EXP) teachers gained from such targeted or strategic professional development.

Similarly, in a study titled “The difficulties that the teachers who continue master of science education experience,” Çalışoğlu and Yalvaç (2019:107) found out that it is advantageous for teachers who embark on a master’s degree programme to apply the knowledge gained in their teaching practice. It was also determined that such programmes enable them to constantly renew their knowledge and make

progress in their career. It then follows that teachers pursue postgraduate degrees to improve their professionalism.

6.3.2 Sub-Theme 2: Collegial Support

Collegial support emerged as a form of professional development during data analysis. Collegiality connotes the cross-fertilization of ideas and experiences among groups of teachers with the aim of improving teaching practice. A sense of belonging, trust, and support emerged over time in this group of colleagues who intend to improve their teaching practice. As a result, these teachers felt supported and empowered to take risks and move forward in a new way with their personal growth as teachers and collective professional development.

The result of this study suggests that participants perceived collegial support as an approach to professional development. For instance, some participants noted that it is a common practice for them to approach their colleagues who are more knowledgeable in the areas they are deficient in for assistance in the subjects they teach. This, they said, had contributed to their professional development. Drawing from the assumptions of adult learning theory, the ideal learning occurs among adults when they have opportunities to interact with one another and are able to connect their learning to their own contexts, purposes and needs.

This finding confirms Kelly and Cherkowski's result in qualitative case study research based on teachers' experiences in a professional development initiative called Changing Results for Young Readers, which examined how they construct their realities relative to their involvement in professional learning communities that have collegiality as its components. They found out that teachers who participated in collegiality improved their practices better than those who did not (Kelly & Cherkowski, 2015:22).

This study also showed that school administrators organise feedback sessions for teachers who attended out-of-school professional development to influence the knowledge they had gained into their colleagues who could not attend. In this case, the responsibility of professional development through collegiality becomes distributed to the leading teacher(s) who attended the out-of-school training.

From a distributed leadership perspective, this finding concurs with that of Anthony, Gimbert, Luke *et al*. (2019). In a study titled, “Distributed leadership in context: Teacher leaders’ contributions to novice teacher induction,” the authors examined the contribution of teacher leaders towards the induction of new teachers and how this influence novice teachers instructional delivery practice. The researchers noted that teacher leaders made unique contributions to novice teacher induction by providing novice teachers with grade and subject-specific professional development, serving as mediators between new teachers and principals in a distributed manner (Anthony, Gimbert, Luke *et al*., 2019:75).

The result of the study also showed that departmentalisation (that is, the arrangement of teachers’ offices and tables in the staff room) aids staff interactions as well as facilitates informal collegiality. In all the selected schools, departments were organised according to department, thereby making teachers who share a similar area of specialisation cluster together. Schools with adequate facilities segregate staff room/office based on subjects, while schools with limited facilities organised teachers’ tables in a manner that make teachers in the same department cluster. Spillane, Shirrell and Sweet (2017:164) concluded in a study that investigated the role of proximity among teachers in their teaching practice that “physical arrangements also structure these interactions in important ways.”

6.3.3 Sub-Theme 3: Attendance of Workshops, Seminars and Conferences

The age-long traditional teacher professional development approaches include workshops, seminars and conferences (Borko, Jacobs & Koellner, 2010:549). These are training sessions where teachers learn new skills, cross-fertilise ideas, solve problems, and benefit from known discoveries in their subject areas through research. In this study, the analysis of data suggests that participants’ participation and attendance of seminars, conferences and workshops significantly influence their professional development. For instance, one of the school administrators indicated that it is the custom of the school leadership to nominate and sponsor teachers to attend seminars, workshops and conferences with a view that if such teacher returns, he would impart the knowledge gained on teachers who could not

attend such training sessions. Hence, it could be inferred from the data that all participants indicated that seminar, conferences and workshop attendance had positively contributed to their professional development.

The above finding is in tandem with the result of Braga, Jones, Bulger *et al.* (2016) in a study that examined the perception of teachers in relation to their experiences with a research-informed teacher professional development initiative and how their experiences during the workshop sessions inform their instructional delivery and professional practices. The result shows that such workshops enhance teacher professional development (Braga *et al*., 2018).

Workshops and seminars are problem-solving oriented and hands-on. Workshops are practical oriented with a view to addressing teachers' instructional/professional challenges, while new discoveries and practices are brought to the front burner with a view to improving teaching practice during seminars. Ideally, the purposes and programme contents of workshops, seminars and conferences should be in tandem with the assumptions of adult learning theory (ALT) that emphasise the "The need to know" and "The role of the learners' experiences." These adoptions hold that adult learning should be premised on their needs and that their experiences should count in developing the training content. Teacher are adults, and their learning is often need-driven while their experiences make such training relevant. Meeting these two criteria could lead to improvement in teachers' professional development, as in the case of the participants in this study.

Considering the importance of conference attendance to teachers' classroom practice, one of the participants noted that the state government (Ekiti State Government where the fieldwork was carried out.) has the tradition of sponsoring teachers to participate in overseas conferences, believing this would enable them to imbibe world-class professional practices in the classroom. This finding corroborates that of Navy, Maeng and Bell (2019) in a qualitative study that investigated teachers' personal interests, needs and relevance-oriented conference experience of 68 beginning secondary school teachers. The result showed that the state-organised conference contributed significantly to teacher

professional development. This finding was also corroborated by Fan et al. (2021) in a study that investigated the benefits of professional conference attendance to physical education teachers. The result suggested that conference attendance positively influences teachers' learning and professional growth, especially in the areas of professional networking and increased awareness.

6.4 Theme 3: Leadership Roles of school Administrators in Teacher Professional Development

Second to classroom practices is school leadership among variables that determines school effectiveness (Bush & Glover, 2014:567; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2019:5). This has been associated with the instructional leadership, motivation, and provision of a conducive school environment by the school head. This study's main objective is to explore school administrators' leadership roles in teacher professional development. Evidence from the data in this study showed that school administrators provide instructional leadership to teachers in the selected schools.

During the interview, the lead questions for teachers were: "How can you describe the leadership of your school in relation to teachers' professional development?" And for the school administrators, how can you describe the influence of your leadership style on teachers' professional development in your schools?"

Emerging from these questions was the main theme titled "Leadership roles of school administrator in teachers' professional development." Responses from further questions were thematised into three sub-themes*:* instructional supervision, endorsement of teachers' application for further studies, motivation and moral support.

6.4.1 Sub-Theme 1: Instructional Supervision

Instructional supervision entails overseeing and guiding the teaching and learning process in school-by-school administrators including, heads of subjects, heads of departments, vice-principals and the school principal (Umar *et al*., 2021). The result from this study showed that instructional supervision was the concerted

effort of both school principals and administrators such as the vice-principals and the heads of departments. This is consistent with the principles of distributed leadership on the need to leverage the expertise of multiple leaders in a school to achieve school effectiveness (Mullen & Hutinger, 2008).

School administrators and teachers who participated in the study affirmed that instructional supervision is a routine in their schools. School principals, vice-principals and heads of departments routinely undertake instructional supervision to inspect classroom teachers and give them feedback accordingly. As part of instructional supervision, the heads of departments are also saddled with the responsibility of inspecting teachers' lesson notes with a view to upholding the standard and giving necessary feedback. These activities tend to improve teachers' professional development.

Hence, it was also evident from the data that both school administrators and teachers concurred that classroom instructional supervision by school administrators positively influences their professional development. Confirming this result, Tesfaw, and Hofman (2014:96), in a study on the relationship between instructional supervision and professional development, found that instructional supervision correlates positively with professional development. The indirect influence of instructional supervision on teacher professional development was evidenced in student performance in another study by Usman (2015: 164) titled "impact of instructional supervision on academic performance of secondary school students in Nasarawa State, Nigeria". He submitted that there was a significant positive influence of school administrators' class visitations on students' students learning outcomes.

6.4.2 Sub-Theme 2: Endorsement of Teachers' Application for Further Studies

One of the questions during the interview was meant to elicit information on the supporting roles of school administrators in relation to TPD. Worthy of note is the fact that earlier in this chapter, acquisition of a higher degree emerged as a sub-theme as well as an approach to teachers' professional development. As indicated

in the previous chapter, this procedure for teachers to embark on further studies or acquisition of higher degree requires that the school principal makes a recommendation to the ministry of education and endorses teachers' application. This study's result implies that school principals show their commitment towards teacher professional development by endorsing their applications to embark on further studies. Additionally, the result also showed that school administrators use their discretion to nominate teachers for out-of-school training such as workshops, seminars and conferences. This result was corroborated by a quantitative study by Abdullahi (2019). The study investigated the management of secondary school teachers in enhancing quality education in Kwara State, Nigeria. The author found out that teachers' effectiveness and professional development are predicated on the need for government and school administrators to encourage teachers to embark on further studies. This is also consistent with the adult learning theory principles of "t*he need to know* and *orientation to learning"*.

6.4.3 Sub-Theme 3: Motivation and Moral Support

During the analysis of data, motivation and moral support emerged as a sub-theme and means through which school administrators support teacher professional development in the selected schools. This finding depicts that motivation in the forms of recognition awards, encouragement from school administrators to teachers to embark on further studies, attend seminars, workshops and conferences, and sharing skills on strategies to maintain balance in the home-work interface, among others, contribute to teacher professional development. This might be a result of the school administrators' understanding that beyond being formal in the discharge of their duties, they also need to be humane by motivating their teachers. Teachers are human beings wearing several caps, as teachers, parents, and religion practitioners with various obligations. Some of these responsibilities could interfere with their job performance. Hence, moral support from their school administrators could help them ward off likely stress or strain these responsibilities could have on their job, thereby improving their professional development.

This finding was consistent with the result of a qualitative study that investigated motivating and inhibiting factors that determine teachers' participation in continuous professional development by McMillan, McConnell and O'Sullivan (2016). The result showed that teachers should be motivated to attend professional development organised by organisations such as subject associations or society. Similarly, in another qualitative case study that investigated "workplace condition created by principals for their teachers' professional development in Vietnam," Tran *et al*. (2020:248) found that motivation strategies adopted by school principals vary across schools and, more importantly, the school principals understand teachers peculiarities (inclusive of their family plight and the implication of this on their professional development, hence, their motivation strategies are informed by this understanding. The findings of the present study is, therefore, in tandem with the previous studies that motivation from school administrators enhances teacher professional development.

6.5 Theme 4: Operationalisation of Teacher Professional Development in Nigerian Schools

Participants' responses to questions that bother how TPD is operationalised in Nigeria were categorised and thematised into two: the entity responsible for teacher professional development and teachers' perception of ministry-organised TPD.

6.5.1 Sub-Theme 1: The Entity Responsible for Teacher Professional Development

Teachers' professional development cannot be discussed without a recurse to the body responsible for such training. When asked who is responsible for the operationalisation of TPD, analysis of data revealed that a larger number of the participants mentioned that the Ministry of Education, in conjunction with international development partners (IDPs), are responsible. This might be a result of the huge cost that goes into organizing such training. Ekiti State has 203 secondary schools, hence, the responsibility of providing professional development for teachers in all these schools is onerous and capital-intensive. This

might be responsible for the collaboration across the 3-tiers of government (federal, state and local) and International Development Partners (IDPs) cum education consultant bodies to co-provide professional development teachers through seminars, workshops and conferences.

Similarly, Ahmad *et al*. (2015:620) asserted that the Kingdom of Saudi Arabian government has been responsible and committed to the provision of TPD for teachers in a study that assessed the influence of TPD programmes on Saudi Arabia's science teachers' needs and how it helps them to implement the new educational reform in the classroom. According to them, the government through Ministry of Education established a General Administration for Educational Training and Scholarships (GAETS) to provide two forms of TPD: teacher training and internal and external scholarships. Also, the participation of independent education consultancy bodies in the provision of TPD was evident in a study by (Wehbe, 2019). The study investigated the disparities in the perceptions of education consultants and teachers in relation to the match between TPD opportunities and teacher's needs.

The result also revealed that some teachers took personal financial responsibility for the funding of their higher degrees. This could be associated with the fulfilment that comes with the attainment of a higher degree and the willingness to become more competent in their field. Moreso, the acquisition of a higher degree is a source of pride among citizens in Ekiti State, where the research field is located. It is common knowledge in Nigeria that the highest number of professors in Nigeria are of Ekiti state origin. This was evident in participants' quest to embark on further studies to acquire higher degrees, as indicated in the data. One of the participants was a PhD holder, while another one was on the verge of completing his PhD programme. In a study that investigated the motivation and the inhibiting factors that determine teachers' participation in TPD, McMillan, McConnell and O'Sullivan, (2014:155) found that teachers were personally responsible for TPD. This was attributed to personal interest, intrinsic motivation and self-fulfilment.

6.5.2 Sub-Theme 2: Teachers' Perception of Ministry-organised TPD

The purpose of TPD has been linked to teachers' personal development and the need to attain improved student learning outcomes. However, the attainment of these objectives could remain elusive if teachers' perception in relation to TPD is not factored into the planning, contents and implementation of such training. When asked, "What is their assessment of the existing TPD?" the result suggested mixed reactions. The result shows that the majority of the participants agreed that government-organised TPD training is somewhat beneficial to teachers, but they are poorly organised. This was, to a large extent, associated with overcrowding at the venues of TPD. Worthy of note is that Ekiti State comprises 16 local government areas/municipalities and 115 towns and villages, with over 80 per cent of these towns and villages having at least one secondary school. This has made the operationalisation of TPD in the state cluster-based.

The result suggested that teachers were not satisfied with the existing traditional approach to TPD in Ekiti State. Some participants noted that due to overcrowding of participants at training venues, oftentimes, the training is ineffective. Many participants in such training lack comfortable seats while some peep through the venue's windows from outside the venue. This result confirms the findings of Mumhure, Jita and Chimbi (2020) in a qualitative study investigating subject panels as a sustainable approach to replace the orthodox teacher professional development. The authors found out that overcrowding at the seminar venue made is difficult for facilitators to address the concern of participants, thereby rendering such training ineffective.

This study's result also suggested a disconnect between TPD contents and classroom realities cum teachers' needs. One of the participants indicated that he had called the attention of the Ministry of Education (MoE) to the need to involve teachers in the planning, content development and implementation of TPD for it to be effective. Other participants also shared similar concern. This indicates that teachers are aware of their professional needs as against the assumption of traditional TPD organisers who believe they can address teachers' needs without

involving them. This notion is upheld by “the need to know” and “previous knowledge” principles of adult learning theory. For adult learning to be meaningful, such training needs to consider the adults' need to know and how much training would benefit them. The principle of previous knowledge is also key when enacting TPD. This is because learning becomes meaningful and beneficial to adults when it creates room for an association between what is known and the new content. This resonates with Knowles's (1970) submission that andragogy (adult learning) design should help them connect experience with reflection and action. TPD should therefore be seen as a means of facilitating “teachers learning” and not “teachers' change” as change could be difficult to achieve if teachers do not see the need to change their practices.

This finding contradicted Soodmand Afshar and Doosti's (2022) finding in a study that focused on “Implementing and evaluating a peer-coached EFL teacher professional development programme” the authors found out that teachers were more satisfied with an interactive workshop that enabled them to negotiate the content and the implementation of the programmes by themselves. More importantly, such training had a positive influence on their classroom practices. Similarly, in a study that investigated what teachers considered supportive professional development as a response to 21st-century educational reforms, Haug and Mork (2021) found that such training involved teachers in decision-making, goal-setting and problem-solving processes. In consonance with these findings, Valiandes and Neophytou (2017) found that response to teachers’ needs by providing a programme focused on both content and pedagogical knowledge is of the components of effective TPD in a study that investigated best practices in teachers’ professional development in the United States.

It could therefore be deduced from the findings that teachers are not satisfied with the status quo of how TPD is organised in Ekiti State and the misalignment between the teachers' need and what is offered in the existing TPD. Hence for TPD to be effective, government bodies and apparatus for TPD, as well as education consultants/training facilitators, should take into account the

professional needs of teachers, enable teachers' voices in the planning, make the programme more collaborative and practical-oriented, and more importantly, engage the service of experts who can resonate with classroom realities/challenges and proffer solutions to them.

The above-stated deficiencies that characterise the existing TPD (which is traditional in approach) prompted the participants to share their views on what they expect from TPD. This will be discussed in the next session.

6.6 Theme 5: Towards School-Based Teacher Professional Development

Teachers are adults who are fully aware of their professional needs. Literature shows that one-size-fits-all TPDs that accommodate teachers of varying levels of experience, subject areas and professional needs are ineffective (Hunzicker, 2011:177; Bush, 2018). The result of this study suggests that the participants prefer tailor-made school-based TPD to the one-shot traditional ones.

6.6.1 Sub-theme 1: Emerging Approaches for Implementing SBTPD

The result revealed that participants preferred School-based TPD (SBTPD) approaches in the form of seminars, workshops and conferences. This could be attributed to the fact that such training takes cognisance of individual teacher needs, school context and peculiarity and how these influence the teaching-learning process. During school-based TPD, the core components of ideal professional development are featured. Moreso, the participants, suggested that experienced and competent teachers in each subject should be assigned as facilitators during SBTPD. This idea would also give room for collaboration and cross-fertilisation of ideas during such sessions.

Confirming this finding, Valiandes and Neophytou (2017:135) in a study that examined the characteristics of teachers' professional development programmes for differentiated instruction in mixed-ability classrooms on teachers' and students' achievement. They found that effective TPDs are; school site-based, respond to teachers; content and pedagogical needs; are held over a considerable length of

time; comprise initial and follow-up components as well, as give room for collaboration with experts and colleagues.

The result also showed that teachers suggested establishing a Professional Learning Community (PLC) at the school level. For instance, during an interview, one of the teachers in the Department of Mathematics indicated that teachers in the department are on the verge of proposing a Professional Learning Community to the school management. This was intended to be a teacher forum comprised of teachers who teach the same subject to support one another. Similarly, one of the school administrators mentioned that team teaching among teachers is a usual practice in her school. This idea would go a long way to enable teachers who teach the same subject cross-fertilise ideas and teaching skills, which would influence teachers' professional development. Also, in one of the selected schools, school administrators served as supervisors in Lesson Note Writing Forum.

This result is in consonance with Aksoy's (2018:109) findings in a study titled "Developing a school-based professional development program for improving technological skills and andragogical knowledge of teachers in private night high schools." He found out that teachers saw SBTPD as an opportunity and avenue to formally express their teaching challenges coupled with the fact that such training took cognisance of their school context. The study affirmed that SBTPD is highly beneficial to teachers as opposed to one-shot and one-size-fits-all government/district-organised TPD.

These results indicate that teachers prefer SBTPD enacted through seminars, workshops, conferences, professional learning community and team teaching. This can be associated with benefits of; existing social relations, loyalty, trust, awareness of teachers' needs, freedom to ask questions and contribute during such training, the possibility of practical sessions and post-training evaluation.

6.6.2 Sub-Theme 2: Threats and Challenges to School-Based Teacher Professional Development

Treats and challenges are difficulties schools could experience in a bid to deploy SBTPD. Participants in this study highlighted four factors that could hinder the

effective deployment of SBTPD. These factors were thematised into three sub-themes: lack of finance, policy-mismatch, lack of teaching aids and lack of administrators' will.

6.6.2.1 Lack of Finance

The result showed that participants identified lack of finance as a major obstacle to executing SBTPD. This appears to be associated with the state's modality for school management cum funding. Ekiti state government is solely responsible for the funding of secondary schools through the Ministry of Education, a situation that made the government exercise undue influence on the school administrators, leaving them with little or no autonomy regarding executing their initiatives, including school-based teacher professional development. By implication, the schools were not allowed to raise funds to finance self-help initiative(s) such as SBTPD that could benefit the school community. As indicated by one of the participants, even students are not allowed to be levied under any guise because the state government has declared that education is free. It should be noted that, regardless of the size and duration, finance plays a vital role in organising an effective TPD. Lack of finance decapacitated school principals when it came to funding SBTPD. This result confirms Zhang, Yuan and Yu (2016:13) in a study that investigated factors that inhibit the development of a professional learning community in China by school administrators and teacher leaders. They found that the school administrator highlighted a lack of finance as a major obstacle to organising SBTPD.

6.6.2.2 Policy Mismatch

Policies are blueprints for the operationalisation of education activities in a country. Nevertheless, at the policy and curriculum implementation level, school administrators' and teachers' initiatives and creativity are crucial to effective policy and curriculum implementation. The result of this study shows that up to the time of the interview for this study, TPD in Ekiti State was centralised as provided for in the education policy. Moreso, they were traditional one-shot and one-size-fits-all in nature. Meaning, TPD attract teachers/participants from over 200 secondary

schools Ekiti state, though on cluster basis. Therefore, the ideal of SBTPD would be a mismatch or parallel to the existing policy guiding TPD operationalisation in the state. This explains why there is not provision for funds at school levels to facilitate SBTPD. It then follows that for SBTPD to be effective, the government ought to formulate a policy that will accommodate and make necessary provisions for the enactment of SBTPD in all schools.

This result corroborates Lee and Chiu's (2017:14) result in a study that investigated school principals' perception of teacher professional development in the school-based management context using school banding as a unit of analysis. They found out that school principals recognised the importance of contextualised teacher professional development but were restricted by the state-defined rules.

Similarly, the result is in consonance with the finding of Kinyota *et al.* (2019:57) in a comparative literature review that chronicles the history, features, and challenges of School-Based Professional Learning Communities (SBPLCs) in China, hoping to highlight lessons that can be learnt by Tanzania education system. They reported a lack of clear-cut policy provision in 1995 and 2004 National Policy on Education as per the roles of school administrators and teachers in implementing SBTPD. On the contrary, they equally found that adequate policy provision was made to accommodate SBTPD in China.

Nigeria operates a centralised education system, a model that requires that school administrators complies with rules from education authorities at various levels Thus, school system operations and activities are consistent with Policy on Education at various levels of government. Therefore, for school-based initiative(s) including (SBTPD) to thrive, such initiative must be provided for in the extant National Policy of Education.

6.6.2.3 Lack of Teaching Aids

School-Based Teacher Professional Development, like other forms of teaching-learning process, requires teaching aids. Teaching aids concretise abstract concepts, thereby making leaning meaningful. This study revealed that a lack of

teaching aids in schools could constitute a threat to SBTPD. This result confirms the findings of Wang (2014:18) in a study that examined the practices of teacher collaboration and PLCs in two urban, high-performing secondary schools in Northeast China. He found that a well-coordinated SBTPD with adequate resources guarantees the success of such a programme. This was corroborated by the findings of de Groot-Reuvekamp, Ros and van Boxtel (2018:290) in a study titled “A successful professional development program in history: What matters?” They found that “educative curriculum materials contributed to the success of the Professional Development Programme because teachers evaluate the types of teaching materials employed during TPD to see if they can facilitate such training.

6.6.2.4 School Administrators’ Apathy

One of the sub-themes that emerged as possible threats and challenges to the enactment of SBTPD is apathy on the part of school administrators. The result indicates that even if the requisite policy and the resources that facilities SBTPD are provided, the will to execute such a programme is relative among school administrators. Contrasting this finding, Ke, Yin and Huang (2019:10), in a study that investigated if teachers’ participation in SBTPD in China translates to improved teaching practice, found that teachers’ willingness to participate in SBTPD is a major determinant of teachers’ efficacy and teaching strategies.

Teacher participation in school-based professional development in China: does it matter for teacher efficacy and teaching strategies. This implies that for SBTPD to be successful, school administrators are willing to support and participate in such a programme.

6.7 Fig 4: PROPOSED SCHOOL-ORIENTED TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (STPDF)

Fig 4: Proposed School-oriented Teacher Professional Development (STPDF)

The proposed framework for school administrators to implement School-Based Teacher Professional Development in their schools is tagged **"School-oriented Teacher Professional Development" (STPDF).** The ideation of this framework emanated from 3 sources; 1) the responses from the participants with regards to their views on how best SBTPD can be best organized at the school level; 2) It also derived from the principles of the two theories adopted in this study – Distributed Leadership Theory and Adult Learning Theory and how these principles can be enacted adopted to deploy SBTPD in schools; and finally, 3) Drawings from extant literature on SBTPD.

Participants' responses on how best SBTPD can be organised and the possible challenges somewhat address the contextualisation and customisation dimensions of SBTPD. As part of the building blocks for the proposed framework, the principles of the adopted theories serve as the theoretical underpinning for the "School-oriented Teacher Professional Development Framework." School administrators are expected to leverage assumptions of distributed leadership theory to coordinate the programme while adult learning principles assist in designing the programme in a manner that take cognizance of school factors and is consistent with principles of adult learning.

6.8 Drivers of SBTPD

For STPDF to be effective, it has to be driven by certain education stakeholders. These include the government policymakers, International Development Partners (IDPs), school principal, vice principal, head of department, subject leader teacher and external facilitators/consultant. Their roles range from policy formulation to the implementation stage.

6.8.1 Inputs of STPDF

Among the inputs that should go into STPDF are the following: distributed leadership framework, appointment of subject leaders/facilitators, contextual analysis, teachers need-based analysis and means of finance.

6.8.2 Guiding Principles for STPDF

The core of SBTPD is a function of the blend of the principles of DLT and ALT, as explained in the subsequent session.

6.8.3 STPDF Delivery Channels

For STPDF to translate from a mere drawing to programme(s). It has to find expression through events and the formations of teachers into professional groups for effective collegial relationships. Some of the formations and programmes are: professional learning community, teachers' network, instructional supervision, school-based workshops, school-based seminars and school-based conferences.

6.8.4 Outcome

All things being equal, effective implementation of SBTPD should yield the following outcome: teacher efficiency, improved class management, improved student learning outcome, school effectiveness and sustainable SBTPD.

6.8.5 Threats to STPDF

As good as this framework appears, there are potential threats. These include; lack of finance; policy mismatch, lack of teaching aids and school administrators' apathy.

6.9 Drawing from Distributed Leadership Theory

DLT stands on three basic components, according to Spillane (2006), namely, Leader, Follower and Situation. SBTPD is a programme that comprises these three components.

Leader: The principle of ***leadership*** in DLT states that leadership should be *spread-over* subordinates in their areas of strength. Leadership should be a practice rather than a position. Hence, school administrators are expected to identify and coordinate resource persons within and from outside the school who could facilitate training sessions in their schools. As indicated in the result, participants agree that each school has competent teachers (some of whom are PhD holders in the subjects they teach) who can serve as resource persons. It is

the duty of the school administrators to assign leadership roles to teachers who possess the requisite abilities across all departments and subjects, both to serve as coordinators and facilitators. For instance, each Head of Department or Subject could serve as a coordinator while experienced and competent teachers from within the department could serve as facilitators. In coordinating SBTPD, school administrators also need to leverage the principles of leadership distribution which are; *collaborative, coordinated* and *collective* leadership distribution. With this, he will be able to galvanise the contributions of all teachers (including coordinators, facilitators and the teachers) towards achieving a sustainable SBTP. Moreso, he will be able to coordinate the programme effectively as well as bring all activities to focus on achieving an effective school.

Follower: The tenet of following holds that followers serve as the agency through which activities that culminate in the actualisation of the institution's vision are carried out. Leadership, vision and resource may not translate to vision actualisation without the agency of followers. In view of this, school administrators are to galvanise the necessary resources and tools that would make for effective SBTPD through the followers(teachers). For instance, pilot needs-assessment activities could be organied for the teacher to ascertain their areas of needs, which will inform a tailor-made SBTPD. Moreso, followers (teachers) participation in planning, implementation and attendance in training are very germane.

Situation: This principle holds that situations such as routine, artefacts and tools mediate task execution in schools. SBTPD is not an exemption in this regard. Regular SBTPD should be part of school routing in other to achieve sustainability as opposed to one-shot traditional TPD, as suggested by some participants. Requisite artefacts and tools such as teaching aids are to be put in place to facilitate such a programme. It is noteworthy that inherent in the situation is the school context. Previous studies on TPD show that one-size-fits-all TPD are ineffective majorly because such training do not take cognizance of the diversities in contexts and peculiarities of the participants' schools. For SBTPD to be effective,

such a programme must take cognizance of the school context (Fischer et al., 2018:114).

6.10 Drawing from Adult Learning Theory

The need to know: This principle holds that adults are aware of their need to learn and if they are not, the training organiser (in this case, the school administrator) should bring them to awareness of the need to know through a "consciousness-raising exercise" which could be need-assessment exercise.

The learners' self-concept: This principle holds that adult learners expect their learning to be self-directing and non-overdependent on the teacher(facilitators). This implies that SBTPD ought to allow for teachers' involvement rather than a top-down lecture delivery method.

Readiness to learn: This principle holds that despite the declining willingness to learn new concepts among adults, the pain and the gain motivation associated with their social roles prompt them to learn. Teachers must be made aware of the benefits and the pains associated with professional development as it relates to their personal development and professional expectations.

Orientation to learning: This assumption is otherwise known as the principle of relevance. Contents of SBTPD should be relevant to teachers' ongoing challenge(s), hands-on and practical. It should be characterized by a problem-solving and an informative approach.

Motivation: It is believed that adult learning is intrinsically motivation driven. School administrators and SBTPD should take cognisance of the resultant effect of job satisfaction, enhanced self-esteem recognition and job enlargement and how they can be enhanced during training.

6.11 Blending Distributed Leadership Theory with Adult Learning Theory to Justify the Need for the Proposed Framework

The primary aim of this study is to explore the leadership roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development in Nigeria; hence, an attempt

was made to lens the study via a blend of two theories, namely, Distributed Leadership Theory and Adult Learning Theory as conceptualised by Spillane (2006) and Knowles (1973) respectively. The rationale for the adoption of two prolonged theories was necessitated by the need to have theories that are complimentary in understanding, explaining and possibly developing a model that addresses the two dominant variables in the research topic- leadership roles of school administrators and teachers' professional development with a view to answering the research questions and achieving the aims of the study. I adopted distributed leadership theory to portray the ideal leadership *style* that gives room for effective school-based teacher professional development that can leverage of the principles of adult learning theory.

The centralised nature of the education and school system in Nigeria, with the attendant bureaucratic bottleneck, had short-changed the systems from exploring the full potentials of the school-based education practitioners - the school administrators and the teachers. This experience resonates with some developed countries that later decentralised their education systems, having realised the inherent benefits of a decentralised school system (Lu & Hallinger, 2017:252).

It is against this background that this study attempts to investigate and propose the possibility of having school administrators to support teachers' professional development in Nigerian schools. In doing this, distributed leadership theory principles; leader, situation and followers, if well adopted by school administrators, could serve as a veritable tool for appropriating his subordinates' expertise towards achieving school goals. One thing I found profound in the blend of these two theories is that some of their principles resonate and are at congruent. The theories, though addressing different variables, converge at the following components; experience, situation and contextualization and social interaction as a basis for ideal school leadership that promotes teachers' professional development.

While distributed leadership theory principles hold that leadership should be by *practice* and such should be *spread-over* subordinates who have expertise and

experience in some respect through social interaction, one of adult learning theory assumptions also holds that learners' experiences often form the basis for their learning. In view of this, school administrators should leverage the expertise and experiences of teacher leaders to develop a school-based professional development programme. For instance, HODs and subject heads could be saddled with the responsibilities of instructional supervision. The outcome could form the basis for designing a training programme targeted at fixing the observed instructional deficiencies among teachers using the learners' experience principle of adult learning theory.

There are no two school situations that are exactly the same; hence, the distributed leadership theory assumption holds that leadership, to a great extent, determines and is determined by the prevailing situations in an organisation (including schools); thus, the need for leaders to be dynamic. The situation, in this case, includes routines, structure, artefacts, and staff composition. In the same vein, the andragogy in the practice model also advocates the need to design adult education training according to the organisational situation. By implication, school administrators are expected to consider the prevailing situation in their schools to lead and design teachers' professional development best suited for their schools. They should avoid adopting *templates* that were successful in other schools that do not share the same characteristics as theirs. Rather, they should carry out teacher professional development needs assessment using the worksheet for andragogical learner analysis proposed by Knowles et al. (2005) to ascertain their teachers' training needs. This will enable them to contextualised such training.

One of the underlying principles woven into the two theories is *social interaction*. Distributed leadership theory holds that leadership practices are enacted through social interactions among leaders and followers. Andragogy principles also advocate for a healthy organisational atmosphere for adult education. It follows that, for leadership to be successful, the school administrators must possess an attribute known as *social capital* that forester seamless interpersonal relationships among teachers. This culminates in loyalty, authority legitimacy, trust, openness

and cooperation, which create room for the design and implementation of teachers' professional development programmes. These components resonate with; sense-making, diagnosis and design ideas of (Spillane & Anderson, 2014: 1-42) on school leadership.

6.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a detailed discussion of the findings from the qualitative data collected from the participants (School administrators and teachers) using semi-structured interviews and policy documents The discussion was done in consonance with extant literature in the area of school administrators' roles in teacher professional development. Drawing from the result, the chapter also proposed a framework for the execution of School-Based Teacher Professional Development (SBTPD), while possible threats were also discussed.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the; summaries of the chapters in this study, conclusion, contribution to knowledge, Implication for educational practitioners (The policymakers, school administrators, TPD consultants and teachers), as well as recommendations for further studies.

7.2 Summary of Chapters

The subsequent session describes the abridged version of this research's chapters from chapters one to seven.

7.2.1 Chapter One: Introductory Background to the Study

Chapter one X-rayed and problematised the expected roles of school administrators in teachers' professional development in secondary schools in Nigeria. A gap was identified in the literature and among previous research to justify the necessity for a framework capable of mitigating the identified anomalies associated with the roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. A short review of the literature was also attempted to further establish the need for the study. Statement of the problem was rationalised. Next was the discussion of the theoretical framework adopted– Distributed Leadership Theory (DLT) and Adult Learning Theory (ALT) and justification for their blend. Research questions, aims and objectives were highlighted in the chapter. Attempt was made to discuss the research design and methodology that guided the study. In this case, interpretive paradigm and case study research design was exemplified. The study was also located within the qualitative research approach. Also discussed were data collection process, participants selection criteria, sampling, data analysis, research value, ethical considerations and trustworthiness.

7.2.2 Chapter Two: Theoretical Framework

This chapter unpacked the two theories that underpinned this study: distributed leadership theory (DLT) and adult learning theory (ALT). The origins of the two theories were traced. The perspectives of renowned scholars and their contributions to the theories were consecutively explored. Specifically, the study was underpinned by James Spillane's (2006) DLT and Malcolm Knowles's (1973) ALT perspectives. The tenets of both theories were explored in relation to how school administrators can adopt them to administer school-based teacher professional development using DLT principles as well as the act of developing such programme leveraging on the principles of ALT. The chapter also explored how previous studies adopted these theories as the relate to the present study.

7.2.3 Chapter Three: Review of Literature

This chapter exemplified the extant literature vis a vis the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. To start with, a bird-eye view description of secondary education in Nigeria was discussed. Related topics were discussed, including school leadership in retrospect, conceptualising school leadership and conceptualising teacher professional development. The literature review also covers; Transition from Traditional Professional Development to Need-Based Teacher Professional Development and The Realities of School Leadership in Developed Countries. The review also encapsulates the realities of school leadership in developing countries; School Management Team (SMT); the distributive dimension of school leadership; conceptualising teachers' professional development; teachers' professional development in Nigeria and approaches to teacher professional development in Nigeria. In addition, school-based teacher professional development; education policy statement and teacher professional development; traditional versus innovative forms of teacher professional development; education policy statement and teacher professional development in Nigeria and school administrators' leadership roles and teachers' professional development were also captured. The chapter concluded with the following:

empirical findings; and selected related leadership concepts and theories. The research methodology adopted in the study is discussed in the following session.

7.2.4 Chapter Four: Research Methodology:

The research methodology and paradigm that informed the study were discussed in this chapter. This study adopted the interpretive paradigm; hence, an attempt was made to discuss its ontology and epistemological perspectives. The rationale for the choice of the discussion of the methodology and paradigm was discussed. The nexus of the study methodology and its paradigm was also exemplified. The chapter also detailed the research approach: qualitative research; research design - case study and the rationale for their appropriateness for the study, respectively. Furthermore, the preliminary tour of the research site and familiarisation of participants with the interview process; sampling process, a description of participants, their recruitment process, and the research site. Also discussed in the chapter include; data generation instruments - semi-structured interview, policy documents; data analysis - thematic analysis (TA) and the justification for their selection; ethical considerations and trustworthiness. The next session depicts the result session.

7.2.5 Chapter Five: Data Analysis and Result

This chapter provided evidence about the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in the case study schools. The principles of thematic analysis, according to Braun, Clarke and Weate (2016), were upheld and exemplified in analysing the data via “familiarisation, coding, theme development, refinement and naming and writing up.” The data were thematised to respond to the research questions and the study’s objectives. The first theme that emerged from the data was participants perception of school leadership. The dataset revealed that there is a degree of consensus among administrators and teacher participants across a school that school leadership is distributive and spread-over both positional and non-positional members of staff. Evidence emerged from the data that all the schools have School Management Team (SMT), however,

opinions are divided among participants as to the formations of SMT as well as their functions.

Second, school administrators' and teachers' perceptions of teacher professional development emerged as a theme that depicts an understanding of TPD. Their perceptions came under three sub-themes: acquisition of higher degree; collegial support; seminar, conference and workshop. Participants hold that professional development can be obtained through these means or a combination of two or more of them.

Also emerging as a theme in this study was the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development, which is the focal point of this study. The theme was further divided into 3 sub-themes namely; instructional supervision, endorsement of teachers' application for further studies, motivation, and moral support.

Finally, the operationalisation of teacher professional development in Nigerian schools emerged as a response to questions asked to elicit data on the shape of the existing professional development the teachers are currently exposed to. The sub-themes include the entity responsible for teacher professional development, teachers' perception of ministry-organised TPD and towards school-based teacher professional development. The data also indicated sub-themes, suggested approaches for implementing SBTPD and possible threats to SBTPD.

7.2.6 Chapter Six: Discussion and Interpretation of Findings and Formulation of Framework

Discussion and interpretation of findings as well as a framework that respond to the challenges associated with leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development was discussed in this chapter. The chapter revealed; that school leadership is a mixture of centralized and distributive approach as a result of the complexities that characterizes modern day school system and the centralized system of education being practiced in the country respectively; that school leadership was spread among both positional and non-positional teachers; that School Management Team contribute to school effectiveness; that participant

perceived TPD as acquisition of higher degree; collegial support; one-on-one collegiality; feedback from training; departmentalisation, workshops, seminars and conferences; that school administrators supports TPD through instructional supervision; endorsement of teachers application for further studies; motivation and moral support; that government through Ministry of Education (MOE) and International Development Partners (IDPs), such as the World Bank are responsible for TPD; that MOE-organised TPD programmes are poorly organised thereby ineffective; that teachers preferred School-base Teacher Professional Development (SBTPD) to traditional one-shot and one-size-fits -all TPD in practice; that possible threat to SBTPD include; lack of finance, policy mismatch, lack of teaching aids and school administrators' apathy. Finally, drawing from the principles of DLT and ALT relevant extant and data from the field, an attempt was made to propose an SBTPD framework tagged *"School-oriented Teacher Professional Development Framework"* as a blueprint for the enactment of SBTPD.

7.3 Reflection on the Research Journey

This session gives an overview of how the research questions raised in chapter one of this study were answered based on the result that emanated from the dataset. The study purposed to investigate the leadership roles of school administrators in promoting teacher professional development. Consensus exists among scholars that school leadership is the second index for measuring school effectiveness. School administrators are the final arbiter of education policy at the school level, hence their contribution(s) towards classroom instructional delivery cannot be underestimated. This is the crux of this study. Notably, the prevailing teacher professional development in the state where this research was carried out or in Nigeria generally was the centralised traditional teacher professional development approach – a practice where teachers are drawn from various schools based on clusters to attend professional development either at the local authority headquarters or states headquarters. Previous studies reveal that this approach to teacher professional development is deficient. Five research questions were advanced to guide the study. These are:

1. What are the participants' perception of school leadership in the selected Nigerian secondary schools?
2. How can teachers 'professional development be understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?
3. What are the school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria?
4. How have the existing teacher professional development practices influenced teacher professional development in Nigeria?
5. What leadership model can be designed for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria?

These questions were answered in chapters 5, 6 and 7 in this study; hence, this reflection will draw from these chapters. The research questions are highlighted and addressed in the subsequent session.

1. ***What are the participants' perceptions of school leadership in the selected Nigerian secondary schools?***

The perception of school leadership in the selected schools could be referred to as the nature of school leadership in the selected schools. Going by the complexities that characterise contemporary schools, the responsibility of leadership can no longer be shouldered by a single person. Hence, the need to distribute leadership responsibilities across multiple leaders in a school setting. This is consistent with the principles of distributed leadership theory, according to Spillane (2005:145), who showed that "responsibility for leadership routines involves multiple leaders." Bush (2018: 537) similarly noted that leadership in Nigeria has a semblance of the ideal distributed leadership. Do you like him in the core principles of distributed leadership?

These assertions were corroborated by the majority of the participants' responses, which showed that leadership was distributed in the schools among positional and non-positional teachers. The result shows a distinct description of school leadership in the case study schools as; distributive delegation of leadership

responsibilities to teachers, assigning leadership responsibilities to both positional and non-positional leaders, as well as the involvement of the school management team in school leadership.

For instance, Mr King, the vice-principal of Kingdom School, says school administrators cannot do the job of leadership alone so they have to delegate responsibilities to teachers and monitor them from time to time. This goes on to allude to the nation that school leadership in Nigeria has a semblance of distributed leadership. Another school administrator also confirmed that school leadership in her school is a joint effort of both formal and informal leaders, considering the school size in terms of the student population and staff strength.

School leadership also entails the collaboration between external players who are stakeholders in the school and the school authority. This body is knowns as a School Management Team. Not all participants were aware of the roles of the School Management Team in school leadership, however, they all agreed that such team exists in their schools.

Given the above narrative, one could infer that the nature of school leadership in Nigerian secondary schools entails the distribution of duties to sub-ordinates by the super-ordinates, allocation of leadership roles and responsibilities to both formal and informal leaders coupled with the involvement of the school management team.

2. ***How can teachers' professional development be understood in the selected schools in Nigeria?***

Since the study's primary aim was to investigate the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development, it then became necessary to explore participants' understanding of teacher professional development. Generally, teacher professional development connotes the post-study or in-service training activities geared towards improving teaching practice among teachers. Based on responses from the majority of the participants, their understanding of

professional development was categorised into five; these include; acquisition of a higher degree; collegial support; instructional supervision; seminars, conferences and workshops.

Acquisition of higher degrees was discovered to be a common practice among teachers in the case study schools and, by extension, the entire states. In this case, a teacher is expected to seek formal permission from the Ministry of Education before starting a further degree. In some instances, teachers are being paid salaries while embarking on their studies. While in another, the cases are study-leave without pay. Confirming the accusation of a higher degree as an approach to professional development, Mr Braimo, a school principal in Uphill School, noted that he was a master's degree holder and that three of his teachers were also post-graduate degree holders.

Participants also confirmed collegial support as a means of teacher professional development. According to them, it is a usual practice to consult teachers to be considered knowledgeable in an area whenever they run into difficulties. Though informal, this approach to teacher professional development has been upheld in literature as one of the components of teacher professional development.

Notably, the most prevalent teacher professional development in the case study schools are the traditional forms of teacher professional development. These include conferences, seminars and workshops. For instance, Dr (Mrs) Kate in Kingdom School and Mrs Aderemi's concurred that it was a regular practice for teachers in their schools to be nominated for centralised teacher professional development in the forms of workshops, seminars and conferences. Those who had participated in these forms of training confirmed that their participation positively influenced their teaching practice and classroom management (Fan et al., 2021:409-410). However, some expressed their displeasure in relation to how this programme was organised. According to them, centralised teacher professional development is ineffective as a result of overcrowding and the proximity of training

centres to their respective schools. Failure of such training to address differentiated teachers' needs was also a major concern raised by the participants.

3. What are the school administrators' leadership practices in promoting teachers' professional development in Nigeria?

The focal point of this study was to explore the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. Leadership has been described as the second indices in measuring school effectiveness; hence the role of the school principal in teacher professional development cum teaching practice is key. The result reveals that school principal administrators contribute to teacher professional development using formal and informal approaches. Instructional supervision and the endorsement of teachers' applications for further studies we revealed to be formal approaches adopted by school administrators to support teacher professional development.

During instructional supervision, school administrators embark on routine and non-routine classroom tours to ensure compliance with the best instructional delivery practices and give teachers feedback where necessary. This was confirmed by Mrs Apata, a vice principal in Church School. According to her, "we also move around to carry out instructional supervision and check their lesson notes to ensure their teaching the right thing." The findings also showed that part of the support received from the school administrators towards teacher professional development was the endorsements of their applications to further their education, which culminates in the acquisition of higher degrees.

The informal participants did not undermine the importance of motivation and moral support they received from school administrators towards their well-being and, ultimately, their professional development. The three school administrators all agreed that it is a usual practice for them to encourage their teachers to pursue higher degrees, put their best in the classroom, and maintain a good balance of home-work interface. In church school, one of the teachers noted that recognition is accorded to teachers whose performances are outstanding. These gestures

were said to have motivated other teachers to be committed and more professional in their disposition to teaching practice.

4. ***How have the existing teachers' professional development practices influenced teacher professional development in Nigeria?***

The result reveals that the existing teacher professional development practices exposed to by the teacher in the case study schools include conferences, seminars and workshops. Participants' opinion varies among participants as, touching on the influence of these forms of professional development on teaching practice. While some agreed that such training had a positive influence on their instructional delivery, others noted that such centralised professional development training often failed to achieve the desired objectives both on the parts of the participant and the organisers as a result of poor organisation and management. For instance, one of the participants noted that centralised conferences, workshops and seminars are avenues for some teachers to meet their old colleagues with whom they have lost contact. This practice was ascribed to overcrowding at the venue of such training – a situation where facilitators cannot manage the mammoth crowd of teachers drawn from over 200 secondary schools across the state. Given the above situation, one could infer that the existing teacher professional development training offered by the Ministry of Education in conjunction with independent development partners has little or no influence on teachers' practice compared with the desired objectives.

5. ***What leadership model can be designed for school administrators to promote teachers' professional development in Nigeria?***

There is a growing body of knowledge in favour of innovative teacher personal development against the traditional approach due to its deficiencies. The findings of this study are consistent with the notion that effective teacher professional development transcends a one-time-sit-and-get training with little or no input from the teachers. It was revealed that teachers are no longer satisfied with the traditional approach; rather, they prefer a custom-made TPD tailored towards their

professional needs. In doing this, such training must be inclusive and contextualised. This perception gives credence to the ideation and development of a school-based teacher professional development in the study tagged School-based Teacher Professional Development Framework (STPDF). STPDF is a teachers' professional development framework that was developed on the strength of; the two theories (distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory) that underpinned the study, extant literature on teacher professional development, and data from the field. The aim was to domesticate teacher professional development in a manner that addresses teachers' professional needs in their respective domains. The proposed framework has six (6) components: drivers of STPDF, input of STPDF, guiding principles for STPDF, STPDF delivery channels, outcome and possible threats to STPDF. It is my belief that if this framework is injected into TPD policies and applied to teacher professional development in schools, teachers would experience better school administrators' support in their professional development effort and this will culminate in overall school effectiveness.

7.4 Conclusion of the Study

This study problematised and investigated the existing leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in Nigeria using DLT and ALT as lenses and benchmarks for the enactment of suitable SBTPD by school administrators. A suitable research methodology was adopted, while Thematic Analysis was also adopted to make sense of the data. The result of the study indicated that existing centralised and one-shot TPD is no longer effective. To mitigate this situation, school-based teacher professional development emerged as a panacea to traditional TPD. Nevertheless, possible threats to SBTPD were also highlighted.

Drawing from the interpretation of the result, the study concluded that effective leadership roles of school administrator in TPD is a function of the nexus of the principles of DLT, ALT and contextualised SBTPD, bearing in mind that lack of finance, inappropriate policy framework, non-availability of teaching aids and apathy on the part of school administrator could also serve as potential threats.

It could be concluded from the study that the roles of school administrator in teacher professional development was minimal in the selected school due centralized school system practice in Nigeria. Hence, there is a need policy reform on school leadership in Nigeria; an idea that will empower school administrators to effectively enhance teachers professional development.

7.4.1 Contribution to Knowledge

This study brought to the fore the school administrators' and teachers' perceptions of the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. This study contributed to knowledge under; theoretical contribution, methodological contribution, contribution from findings and formulation of framework for SBTPD.

7.4.2 Theoretical Contribution to Knowledge

Osanloo and Grant (2016:19) contend against linear and unitary adoption of a singular theory to understand a phenomenon; rather, they advocate the adoption of theories that resonate with a study's key concepts and the epistemological values of the researcher. This study was lensed on two theories: distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory. The assumptions of both theories were perused to understand the challenges associated with the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. These assumptions were fused to form a theoretical foundation for the proposed *"*School-oriented teacher professional development framework*"* as a panacea to the challenge facing TPD in Nigeria. Worthy of note is the fact that prior to this time, no study has combined distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory to investigate the phenomenon investigated in this study.

7.4.3 Methodological Contribution to Knowledge

This study demonstrated the usefulness of adopting a qualitative research approach to gain insight and proffer solutions to a phenomenon of interest. Notwithstanding the paucity of studies on the leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development in Nigeria, many of them

adopted the quantitative approach, making this study stand out. The participants attested to this. They remarked that this type of research is unique compared to questionnaire administration often adopted in quantitative strands. According to them, answers or responses to the questionnaire might not be a true representation of subjects' opinions and is also restricting in terms of view-expression. In contrast, the methodology adopted in this study made both the researcher and the participants co-researchers.

7.4.4 Contribution to Knowledge from Result

The general notion is that MOE and education consultants fully understand teachers' professional needs and can meet them. On the contrary, this study showed that teachers are aware of their professional needs and capable of proffering solutions to them. For instance, during the semi-interview, one of the participants indicated that teachers in his department were on the verge of formally proposing the establishment of a Professional Learning Community (PLC) in his school. This shows that teachers are aware of their teaching practice challenges and are eager to solve them among themselves within the school.

7.4.5 Contribution of Knowledge to Practice

The result of this study contributed to the practise of TPD. Prior to this study, the approach to TPD was the traditional top-down model. On the contrary, the result of this study suggested that both external and school-level facilitators of TPD should embrace a bottom-up approach in planning and implementing TPD.

7.4.6 Formulation of School-Oriented Teacher Professional Development Framework (STPDF) as Contribution to Knowledge

Of utmost importance in terms of contribution to knowledge in this study is the formulation of the ***School-oriented teacher professional development framework*** as a response to the challenges surrounding school administrators' support towards teacher development. It informs policymakers on the need to formulate policies that accommodate SBTPD. As per the school administrator, STPDF serves as a blueprint for the deployment of SBTPD in their schools.

School-oriented teacher professional development framework also depicts that the fusion of distributed leadership theory and adult learning theory principles are germane in the development of SBTPD.

7.5 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following are hereby recommended:

7.5.1 The study has demonstrated that policies on SBTPD are almost non-existing in the National Policy on Education (NPE) and state by-laws. Hence, the Federal Ministry of Education should put machinery in place to overhaul the existing policies on teacher professional development in the country. The new policies should provide for the enactment of school-based teacher professional development in all schools. Moreso, a uniform but adjustable SBTPD blueprint that can be customised to suit school's contextual peculiarities should be developed. Notably, School-oriented Teacher Professional Development Framework (STPDF) would serve as a suitable blueprint.

7.5.2 Seeing that school administrators are accustomed to the centralised traditional TPD, the Ministry of Education should facilitate a train-the-trainer pilot programme that would orientate school administrators and equip them with requisite skills to enact school-based teacher professional development in their schools.

7.5.3 Adequate financial provision must be made through the annual budget for education to facilitate SBTPD in schools. Moreso, policies on school funding should be relaxed to accommodate internally generated revenue within the schools as part of this fund could assist school administrators in organising SBTPD.

7.5.4 In place of the one-short, centralised, traditional, cluster-based TPD programmes that fail to accommodate teachers from all schools, subject leaders and teachers who would serve as facilitators of SBTPD in their schools should be drawn and centrally trained by the Ministry of Education.

This idea gives room for uniformity in the subject matter to be presented in their respective schools and flexibility in terms of programme implementation at school levels.

7.5.5 Drawing from the result, this study proposed school-oriented teacher professional development framework, which serves as a blueprint for school administrators to support teacher professional development in Ekiti State Nigeria. The framework is a fusion of the principles of the DLT and ALT.

7.5.6 Further studies can adopt both theories in another context to examine the phenomenon under investigation. Also, since the proposed framework, school-oriented teacher professional development framework was based on the findings of this study, it has to be tested to validate its efficacy.

7.5.7 Finally, the research methodology adopted for this study allowed for relatively few participants in three secondary schools in Ekiti State Nigeria, making generalisation difficult. In view of this, large-scale studies in a quantitative strand that covers multiples state in the country would be required to provide more insight into the topic.

7.6 Limitations of the Study

Research is often characterised by limitation in one way or the other. This study is not an exemption. Among the limitations encountered by this study were geographical limitation and methodological limitations.

7.6.1 Geographical Limitation

The researcher was an international student in the Republic of South Africa who hails from Nigeria. Since the selected study site was secondary schools in Nigerian, it became necessary for the researcher to embark on international travel. Unfortunately, the COVID-19 outbreak was at its peak at the commencement of seeking permission from the school gatekeepers (school principals). The pandemic led to both national and international lockdowns and the closure of countries' international borders, including Nigeria and South Africa. In this case,

trained research assistants were recruited and engaged through online correspondence (via online training, video calls and email correspondence) in Nigeria to secure permission to conduct research from the school gatekeepers. Worthy of note is that the lockdown had been suspended when the interviews took place; thus, the data collection was not hindered in any form.

7.6.2 Methodological Limitation

This study adopted a case study case research design with twelve participants that cut across three schools. This implies that the findings cannot be generalised. However, as dictated in the research design section, the aim of this study is not to generalise the findings; rather, it was purposed to gain deep insight into the phenomenon of leadership roles of school administrators in teacher professional development. This aim was adequately achieved in the study.

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Appendix 1

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT, POLICY AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

Thesis Title: Leadership Roles of School Administrators in Teachers' Professional Development in Nigeria

I. What do you understand by schools' leadership?

II. What roles does your school principals perform to enhance your teacher's professional development?

III. Does your school have School Management Team (SMT)?

IV. What roles does the team perform?

V. What do you understand by teacher professional development?

VI. Who is responsible for teacher professional development?

VII. Have you ever been part of any form of teacher professional development?

VIII. How can you describe the leadership of your school in relation to teachers' professional development? (Does it support teacher professional development?)

IX. How does your school principal leadership style influence on your professional development?

X. In your own opinion how do you think school administrators can best carry out school-based teachers' professional development in schools?

Appendix 2

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION MANAGEMENT, POLICY AND COMPARATIVE EDUCATION

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF THE FREE STATE

Thesis Title: Leadership Roles of School Administrators in Teachers' Professional Development in Nigeria

I. What do you understand by school leadership?

II. As a school administrator, what roles do you perform to enhance your teacher's professional development?

III. Do you have School Management Team (SMT)?

IV. What are your SMT functions?

V. Explain what you understand by teachers' professional development?

VI. Explain the forms of professional development that exist in your school.

VII. How can you describe the influence of your leadership style on teachers' professional development in your schools?

VIII. Explain other ways through which school administrator can enhance teachers professional development?

IX. In your own opinion how do you think school administrators can best carry out school-based teachers' professional development in schools?

X. What are the perceived obstacle that can prevent its implementation?