

**PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS ON MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS IN ZIMBABWE**

BY

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the memory of my mother, Marie Mudzingwa née Matumba. I can never thank you enough for the unconditional love and support that you gave to me as I grew up. You always gave me invaluable wisdom and advice when I needed it most. You shall always remain a source of inspiration to me. I knew one day I would make you proud.

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- I also wish to express my heartfelt gratitude and appreciation to the scores of participants who sacrificed their time to participate in this research study. Thank you all.

DECLARATION

I declare that the research report entitled PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS ON MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS IN ZIMBABWE is my own work, and that all sources used or quoted have been indicated or acknowledged by means of complete references.



Signature

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ABSTRACT

The education system in Zimbabwe has experienced a wide range of educational reforms and technological changes since the last half of the 20th century. These changes have resulted in a significant expansion of the duties and responsibilities that school heads are expected to perform in schools. Despite these changes, there has not been a comprehensive training programme meant to prepare newly promoted secondary school heads for the daunting task of school leadership in Zimbabwe. The study sought to examine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding management development programmes (MDPs) for beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs). The study employed the descriptive case study approach based on a qualitative research design. A total of 28 participants were initially selected for the study but only 27 took part. The participants comprised five BSSHs, five practising secondary school heads, four deputy heads and 10 senior teachers who were drawn from 10 selected secondary schools in Zaka district. Three school inspectors from the district education office in Zaka district also took part. The participants were purposively sampled using the maximum variation sampling approach to account for the differences of their professional categories. Individual semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the BSSHs, practising secondary school heads and school inspectors, while focus group interviews were used to collect data from deputy heads and senior teachers. A review of relevant documentary sources such as vacancy announcement circulars, the Civil Service Commission (CSC) training and development policy and policy circulars from the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) was also undertaken. The findings indicated that there was a need for a management development programme that would equip newly promoted school heads with the relevant technical skills and competencies that would enable them to provide sound leadership to schools. The study established that BSSHs required knowledge and skills in financial management, instructional leadership, general administration, ICT, policy issues, human resources management, community relations, documentation and asset management.

ISIFINQO

Uhlelo lwezemfundo eZimbabwe seluhlangabenzane nezinkinga ezinkulu ezimayelana nezinguquko kwezemfundo kanye noshintsho kwezobuchwepheshe kusukela kuyisigamu sokugcina sekhulu leminyaka engama-20. Lezi zinguquko ziholele ekwandisweni okuphawulekayo kwemisebenzi kanye nezibopho okumele othishanhloko ezikolweni bayifeze. Ngaphandle kwalezinguquko, akukaze kwabakhona uhlelo lokuqeqesha olunzulu olulungiselela othishanhloko abasanda kuthola izikhundla ezintsha kulomsebenzi onzima wokuhola eZimbabwe. Isifundo sizohlola sibheke imibono yamadlelandawonye mayelana neZinhlelo Zokuthuthukisa Ukuphatha kwalabothishanhloko bezikole zamabanga aphezulu abasafufuza. Isifundo sizosebenzisa ucwaningo lwesifundo esichazayo olwakhelwe phezulu kocwaningo lokuklama oluphatelene nesimo. Kuye kwakhethwa abantu abangamashumi amabili nesishiyagalombili (28) kodwa babe ngamashumi amabili nesikhombisa (27) kuphela abaye babamba iqhaza. Abantu ababambe iqhaza behlise obekuhloswe ngalabothishanhloko abahlanu (5) bezikole zamabanga aphezulu abasafufuza, othishanhloko abahlanu (5) asebekhona kulo mkhakha emabangeni aphezulu, amaphini kathishanhloko yesikole amane (4), othisha abasezingeni lokuphatha ngokwesikhathi asebe sisebenzile abaqokwe ezikolweni zamabanga aphezulu abayishumi (10) abakhethwe ezikolweni zamabanga aphezulu kuyisifunda sakwaZaka. Abahloli bezikole abathathu ababuya kuyisifunda somnyango wezemfundo kuso isifunda sakwaZaka nabo babamba iqhaza. Abantu ababambe iqhaza basampulwe ngenhloso ethile lapho kusetshenziswa indlela ephezulu yokuhluka kwesampuli ukuze kuphendulwe ngokuhluka ngokwezigaba zabo zemfundo. Izinhlolekhono ezihleliwe zomuntu ngamunye ziye zasetshenziswa ukuqoqa ulwazi kothishanhloko bezikole bamabanga aphezulu abasafufuza, othishanhloko asebekhona kulo mkhakha emabangeni aphezulu kanye nabahloli bezikole kwase kuthi izinhlolekhono zamaqembu zasetshenziselwa ukuqoqa ulwazi kumaphini onhloko bezikole nakothisha abasezingeni lokuphatha ngokwesikhathi asebe sisebenzile abaqokwe ezikolweni zamabanga aphezulu. Kuye kwabuyekezwa imibhalo yamaphepha efanele efana namasekhula amemezela izikhala zomsebenzi, iKhomishani Yomsebenzi Womphakathi yokuqeqeshwa nenqubomgomo yokuthuthukiswa kanye nenqubomgomo yamasekhula asuka kuNgqongqoshe

weMfundo yamabanga Aphansi nawaPhezulu. Kuye kwatholakala ukuthi kunesidingo sezinhlelo zokuthuthukisa ukuphatha ezizohlomisa othishanhloko abasandukunyuselwa kulezi zikhundla ngamakhono afanele ezobuchwepheshe anamandla azobasiza ukuba babengabaholi abaqotho ezikolweni. Isifundo siye sathola ukuthi othishanhloko bezikole bamabanga aphezulu abasafufuza badinga ulwazi namakhono ngokuphathwa kwezimali, ubuholi obuqotho bokufundisa, ukuphathwa kwamabhuku jikelele, Ulwazi Lwezobuchwepheshe Kwezokuxhumana (ICT), okuphathelene nengqubomgomo, ukuphathwa kwabantu, ubudlelwano nomphakathi, kanye nokuphathwa kwemibhalo nempahla.

SETSOPOLWA

Peakanyo ya thuto go la Zimbabwe e itemogetše dimpshafatšo tša thuto le diphetogo tša theknolotši tše di fapanego go tloga nakong ya seripagare sa mafelelo sa ngwagakgolo wa bo20. Diphetogo tše di hlotše koketšo ye kgolo ya ditshwanelo le boikarabelo tšeo dihlogo tša dikolo di letelwago go di phethagatša dikolong. Ka ntle ga diphetogo tše, go bile le lenaneo la tlhahlo leo le feleletšego leo le diretšwego go beakanyetša dihlogo tša dikolo tše mpsha tše di sa tšogo godišwa go tlo lebana le modiro wo o tšhošago wa boetapele bja dikolo ka Zimbabwe. Thutelo e nyaka go hlahloba dikgopolo tša batho bao ba nago le dikgahlego malebana le mananeo a tlhabollo ya bolaodi (diMDP) a dihlogo tša dikolo tša sekontari tše di thomago (diBSSH). Thutelo e latetše mokgwatebelelo wa ditlhalošo wa nyakišišo ye e dirilwego ka ga tiragalo wo o theilwego go tlhako ya nyakišišo ka go utolla mokgwa wa bophelo bja setšhaba se itšeng. Palomoka ya batšekarolo ba 28 e kgethilwe pele go thutelo eupša ba 27 ba tšere karolo. Batšekarolo e be e le diBSSH tše tlhano, dihlogo tša dikolo tša sekontari tše tlhano tše di lego modirong, bathušahlogo ba bane le barutišibagolo ba 10 bao ba tšerwego dikolong tša sekontari tše di kgethilwego seleteng sa Zaka. Bahlahlobi ba dikolo ba bararo go tšwa ofising ya selete ya thuto ka seleteng sa Zaka le bona ba tšere karolo. Batšekarolo ba kgethilwe ka maikemišetšo bjalo ka disampolo ka go diriša mokgwatebelelo wa maksimamo wa go tšea disampolo ka go fapana go hlaloša lebaka la diphapang ka go magoro a bona a diprofešene. Ditherišano tša motho a nnoši tša dipotšišo tše di sa latelego lenaneo leo le itšeng di dirišitšwe go kgoboketša datha go tšwa go diBSSH, dihlogo tša dikolo tša sekontari tše di lego mošomong le bahlahlobi ba dikolo, mola ditherišano tša dihlopha tše di nepišitšwego di dirišitšwe go kgoboketša datha ye e hweditšwego go batlatšadihlogo le barutišibagolo. Tekolo ya methopo ya maleba ya kanegelo ya ditiragalo go swana le mangwalophatlalatšwa, molaotshepetšo wa tlhahlo le tlhabollo wa Khomišene ya Mešomo ya Mmušo (CSC) le mangwalophatlalatšwa a melaotshepetšo go tšwa go Kgoro ya tona ya Thuto ya Praemari le Sekontari (MoPSE) le yona e phathagaditšwe. Dikhwetšo di šupile gore go bile le tlhokego ya lenaneo la tlhabollo ya bolaodi leo le tlo fago dihlogo tše mpsha tše di sa tšwago go godišwa mabokgoni le botsebi tša sethekniki tša maleba tše di tlo ba kgontšhago go phethagatša boetapele

bjo bo kwagalago bja dikolong. Thutelo e utollotše gore diBSSH di be di nyaka tsebo le mabokgoni tšeo di nyakegago go bolaodi bja matšeleng, boetapele go tša dithuto,

KEY WORDS

Management development programmes; beginning secondary school heads; training needs; responsibilities of school heads; challenges of new school heads; induction training; management training; management development process

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ABBREVIATIONS

ACE: SML	Advanced Certificate in Education: School Management and Leadership
B.Ed.	Bachelor of Education
BSP	Better Schools Programme
BSSHs	Beginning Secondary School Heads
CoP	Community of Practice
CDE	Centre for Distance Education
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
CSC	Civil Service Commission
CIET	Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DSI	District Schools Inspector
EFA	Education For All
EMSSA	Educational Management sub-Saharan Africa
HEADLAMP	Head teacher Leadership and Management Programme
HIP	Headship Induction Programme
HOD	Head of Department
IEM	Institute of Educational Management
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
LEA	Local Education Authority
KEMACA	Kenya Educational Management Capacity Assessment
KEMI	Kenya Education Management Institute
KESI	Kenya Education Staff Institute
LPC	Leadership Practice Community
MDP	Management Development Programme
MoPSE :	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
NASH	National Association of Secondary School Heads
NCSL	National College for School Leadership
NCTL	National College for Teaching and Leadership

NGO	Non-government Organisations
NLE	National Leaders of Education
NPQH	National Professional Qualification for Headship
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PGDE	Post Graduate Diploma in Education
PMDP	Principals Management Development Programme
PTUZ	Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe
SAMDI	South African Management Development Institute
SDC	School Development Committee
TD	Training and Development
TNA	Training Needs Assessment
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Education Fund
ZIMTA	Zimbabwe Teachers' Association
ZOU	Zimbabwe Open University
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
ZSDA/C	Zimbabwe Schools Development Association of Committees

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to examine the perceptions of stakeholders within the field of education regarding the professional development of beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs) as a way of initiating them into their new leadership roles. This chapter provides a background and context to the study. It outlines the rationale of the study and defines the research problem and the purpose of the study. The chapter also highlights the research design and methods that will be used in the study.

Some research evidence supports the view that effective school leadership is a key factor in the achievement of successful schools and successful students (Pont, Nusche & Moorman 2008:18; Bush 2009:375; Ashu 2014:1). The role of school heads in providing sound leadership to schools is an area that has received global recognition among political leaders and education policy makers. There is also heightened awareness that schools contribute significantly to the promotion of issues on the national agenda like economic development and the training of a human resources base for the nation (Bush 2007:391; Chiome 2011: 445) and that school heads are central to the achievement of these tasks.

The advent of globalisation has also brought about new challenges and opportunities in the management of education worldwide that compel school heads to attain certain technical competences that would enable them to cope with these new challenges and to pursue the opportunities. In addition, a wide range of education reforms introduced in schools, chief among which was the devolution of school management from a centralised system to a decentralised system that was site based, have also thrust new responsibilities upon school heads (Caldwell 2008:235; Bush 2009:376; Pont et al 2008:18). The rationale for these changes in the management of schools was anchored in the thinking that schools were likely to be administered more effectively from within the

institution rather than from a distance. These changes imply that there is now an increasingly growing list of responsibilities placed upon the school head. The complex challenges that school heads encounter in the process of executing their leadership responsibilities have compelled education policy makers in the western world to put more focus on the need to provide professional development programmes for school heads. Bush (2009:377) states that education authorities have a moral obligation to train school leaders and equip them with the requisite skills and knowledge that enable them to be effective in their new roles. Despite the introduction of leadership development programmes in the western world, there is still very little formal training for school heads in Africa (Ashu 2014:4; Bush 2008:27).

In Zimbabwe, as in many countries, the role of the school head has evolved significantly to include increased responsibilities. Internal vacancy announcement notices that are generated by the Civil Service Commission (CSC) inviting interested candidates to apply for posts of school heads in schools under the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) spell out the duties and responsibilities that are expected of school heads (Vacancy Announcement Notice – Internal Minute No. 32 of 2014:2). An analysis of the job description of school heads as outlined in this document clearly shows that the role of the school head has expanded significantly to encompass an array of knowledge and skills that were not part of the curriculum of initial teacher training, such as budgeting, resource management, planning, recruitment and selection of staff, performance management, staff development, project management, instructional leadership and policy implementation. In studies carried out on the role of principals in the United States of America, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr and Cohen (2007:2) also noted that school leaders are responsible for:

... playing a daunting array of roles, ranging from educational visionaries and change agents to instructional leaders, curriculum and assessment experts, budget analysts, facility managers, special program administrators, and community builders.

In addition, schools have had to deal with various stakeholders from the public and private sectors as well as non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (Volunteer Services Overseas 2006:6; Naicker 2011:431). Schools have also experienced an increase in parental involvement in school governance following the promulgation of Statutory Instruments (SI) number 87 of 1992 and number 379 of 1998, Education Regulations. These regulations set up the introduction of school development committees and associations that provided oversight of schools' governance. This development made school heads even more accountable to communities.

The array of skills required of school heads has provided the framework of performance expectations against which their competencies have been measured. Given the complexity of the role of the school head, as evidenced by the demanding range of skills needed to perform the tasks mentioned above, it can be argued that the post of headship comprises specialist tasks that are difficult to execute without specific preparation (Bush 2009:376). Many heads lack the necessary technical skills to provide sound leadership and are often overwhelmed by the task of headship (Bush & Oduro 2006: 359). A Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO 2006: 6) study also established that head teachers tend to be promoted from classroom teaching into management positions with little organised training. Locally, the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) (CIET1999:465) also found that leaders of schools could not stand up to the challenges of their roles in financial administration, instructional leadership, student discipline and human resource management. The Commission recommended that the MoPSE should invest more resources in leadership training to enable school heads to tackle their leadership roles effectively. This points to the fact that school heads require specific training in order for them to perform their leadership functions well.

Cases of professional lapse and ineptitude among school heads have been reported and these bear testimony to the fact that school heads assume the post of responsibility without adequate preparation (Arikuweyo 2009:77). *The Chronicle* of 10 February 2000 reported a case in which the then Secretary of Education raised concern about flawed accounting systems in schools to the extent that a certain school could not account for

\$20 000. The Secretary, in his address to auditors, attributed this to a lack of training in management skills. In addition, the *The Financial Gazette* of 24 May 2012 also reported irregularities in the administration of funds in most Zimbabwean schools and that four heads in Gutu district had been charged with fraud. However, in the same article, the Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ) and the Zimbabwe Teachers' Association (ZIMTA) argued in defence of school heads by stating that such cases were acts of omission rather than commission because heads lacked the requisite financial management skills. The unions blamed government for the problem as it was failing to organise induction courses that would equip school heads with the requisite technical skills. It is quite apparent therefore, on the basis of these examples, that many newly promoted secondary school heads have had to face the dilemma of holding the position of leader without being adequately prepared for the daunting tasks of leadership. This is corroborated by Eacott and Asuga (2014:920) who state that in Africa there is no requirement for school heads to receive formal training. Rather, heads are simply promoted on the basis of their outstanding performance as teachers. This scenario therefore presents a strong case for a leadership development programme for beginning school heads in order to adequately prepare them for their new roles.

The major challenge of the MoPSE has largely bordered on the lack of a coherent leadership development policy for beginning school heads to the extent that they are simply expected to govern schools without adequate preparation. The situation regarding the lack of specific preparation for newly promoted incumbents into their new roles is also true of the secondary school sector in Zimbabwe. This study therefore seeks to investigate the sentiments of stakeholders regarding an envisaged training programme that can be introduced to familiarise newly promoted school heads with their leadership roles.

The current situation in the MoPSE is such that novice secondary school heads are simply thrust into their new roles and left to grapple on the basis of trial and error. This leads to the question: What kind of interventions can be made available to BSSHs to prepare them for their new leadership roles? The focus of this research study shall therefore be to

examine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding an envisaged management development programme (MDP) that can be introduced to initiate BSSHs into their new roles during the probationary period of the first two years after appointment.

1.2 RATIONALE

The bulk of literature that has been reviewed illuminates the critical importance of providing specific training to school heads in order to prepare them effectively for the complex challenges of leadership (Bouchamma, Basque & Marcotte 2014:580; Parshiadis & Brauckmann 2009:121). Policymakers also acknowledge that the professional development of school heads can improve their capacity in terms of leadership skills, knowledge and expertise and ultimately contribute to improved school outcomes (Ashu 2014:1; Bush, Kiggungu & Moorosi 2011:32). In Zimbabwe, however, there is a dearth of literature on the professional development of beginning school heads. Literature that has been reviewed by the researcher on professional development regarding school management in Zimbabwe relates to an administrative manual for primary school heads by Chiwore (1995) and also a thesis by Moyo (2002) that dealt with school management training for practising school heads in Zimbabwe. This implies that few research material has focused on capacity building programmes for novice school heads, hence this study will therefore prove to be invaluable in providing insights towards training programmes for BSSHs in Zimbabwe.

Literature on MDPs that has been reviewed suggests that training programmes have generally been designed and imposed upon school heads without considering their perceptions regarding their real training needs. An understanding of the training needs of organisations and individuals is critical as it informs the design and structure of an MDP (Armstrong 2012:290). These glaring gaps existing in literature and the limited research in this area in Zimbabwe have motivated this researcher to focus on the management development of BSSHs in this study. The researcher anticipates that this study will enable an in-depth investigation into the problem of MDP for BSSHs and contribute significantly to the existing body of knowledge on the subject. It will also benefit the education system

as it has the potential to stimulate debate among education practitioners, administrators and policy makers about the need for a training programme for novice secondary school heads. Recommendations made by the CIET (CIET 1999:465) vouching for the introduction of training programmes for school heads have also spurred the researcher to interrogate the subject under study. From this perspective, the importance of providing professional training for school heads is therefore quite evident.

The researcher's personal experience spanning over two decades in the teaching profession as a secondary school teacher, college lecturer in Further Education and Training and Professional Studies, respectively, and as an Assistant Registrar in the Faculty of Education at Great Zimbabwe University has provided insight into the challenges that BSSHs face. This experience has also invoked an interest and desire within the researcher to contribute to the field of educational management by unravelling the training needs of newly promoted secondary school heads.

1.3 BACKGROUND

An understanding of the leadership crisis in Zimbabwean schools can best be gained within the context of the history of the education system in Zimbabwe dating back to the colonial era. The colonial education system was characterised by separate development that was based on race (Gatawa 2003:13). The responsibility for African education mainly lay with the Christian missionaries while the colonial government focused on white education. The purpose of African education was intended to create a semi-literate workforce for the colonial economy (CIET 1999:2). The training of teachers, let alone school heads, to staff the African schools was therefore not a priority for the colonial regime. Chiome (2011:447) makes reference to the findings of the CIET which stated that although the reports of the 1962 Southern Rhodesia Education Commission and the 1974 Committee of Enquiry into African Primary Education (1974) recommended the training of school heads, these recommendations were never implemented because the matter was not a policy priority. Had these recommendations been implemented, this could have

ushered in a new era of training of school heads. However, as it seems, the training of school heads has not been formally implemented as a government initiative to date.

Upon the attainment of independence in 1980, the education system in Zimbabwe experienced rapid expansion in line with the majority government's pursuit of the principle of Education for All (EFA). According to the Education Secretary Report cited in CIET (1999:9), the number of secondary schools rose from 177 in 1980 to 1502 in 1987. Despite these developments, policy makers continued to downplay the importance of training school heads within the new political order, yet the proliferation of secondary schools resulted in the recruitment of inexperienced teachers to positions of headship. Asuga and Eacott (2012:134) assert that the appointment of school heads to positions of leadership without adequately preparing them for the new role has devastating effects on the management of schools. This highlights the importance of professional development programmes in preparing newly promoted school heads to take on leadership roles.

From a policy front, the MoPSE has always acknowledged the need to provide training to BSSHs, but over the years the Government has failed to render budgetary support to fund a structured MDP. Rather, it has largely depended on non-governmental organisations such as the United Nations Children's Education Fund (UNICEF) (Mandebvu & Chitekuteku 2000:1) and the Commonwealth Secretariat which coordinated the Better Schools Programme (BSP) (Commonwealth Secretariat 2000:1) using the 'workshop' model of professional development. However, it turns out that the workshops were mainly meant for practising school heads rather than beginning ones and worse still, the workshops targeted primary school heads to the detriment of secondary school heads. Bush and Oduro (2006:364) have criticised the capacity of workshops to address the training needs of school heads and effectively encapsulate the required skills given their short duration. Bush et al (2011:33) corroborate this view by stating that the content of workshops tends to be generally prescriptive with little consideration given to the real context within which the participants practise school leadership. Ibrahim (2011:292) contends that workshops prepared in the setting of the western world are hardly transferrable to the African setting because of cultural and contextual differences. Eacott

and Asuga (2014:920) also argue that a major defect of donor sponsored workshops is that they seek to espouse western values without due consideration of the relevance of these values within the African context. This presents a strong case for a homegrown MDP programme for newly promoted secondary school heads.

Workshop programmes have significantly receded due to a lack of funding emanating from donor fatigue that was triggered by the political crisis that engulfed Zimbabwe in the first decade of the new millennium. There were efforts by the Government of Zimbabwe to launch the Bachelor of Education (Educational Administration and Policy Planning Studies) degree programme in partnership with the Centre for Distance Education (Moyo 2002:2). This programme was a school leadership preparation programme targeted at practising school heads whose thrust was mainly centred on theory without contextualised school and community case studies in the programme modules. The failure of the programme to integrate theory with practice was its major undoing as research has shown that graduates of degree awarding courses often face the challenge of transferring their theoretical knowledge into the real school situation (Darling–Hammond et al 2007:5).

In Zimbabwe, like in other countries in Africa, individuals who are appointed to the positions of headship are appointed from the ranks of senior teachers with little or no preparation for the complex tasks of school management (Arikuweyo 2009:77; Bush & Oduro 2006:262; Volunteer Services Overseas 2006:5). Wamba (2015:120) and Sang (2010:1) concur that the only requirement for promotion to the position of school head is a good teaching record, a teaching qualification and a first degree. Bush et al (2011:31), however, state that excellence in teaching does not guarantee that individuals have the knowledge and skills to run schools effectively. This is because headship requires a completely different set of skills from those attained at teacher training. More so, undergraduate degree qualifications for teachers are normally in a pedagogical area of specialisation with very little coverage of education management content. The CIET report (1999:463) concluded that the management of a school demands skill competencies that are totally different from those required in teaching. This implies that

the promotion policy currently in practice is warped as it does not harmonise the issue of promotion with the performance of school management tasks by the school heads so promoted. It is quite apparent that there is a need to develop interventions that would prepare BSSHs for the complex tasks of headship (Bush & Oduro 2006:259). Bush and Jackson (2002:424) elaborate on the essence of leadership development programmes by stating that:

... in dealing with a wide range of issues and managing relationships with many different groups within and outside the school, principals need to be able to call on a subsequent reservoir of expertise and experience, to identify solutions to what are often complex problems.

This implies that there is a strong need to introduce a training programme for beginning school heads lest schools may continue to be run by inexperienced leaders, a situation which constraints the efficient management of schools. The impression that one gets is that once an individual is appointed to the post of school head, the incumbent often passes through the probationary period of two years despite a poor record of performance for as long as they do not commit an act of misconduct.

It is within this context that this research study seeks to investigate the perceptions of stakeholders in the field of education regarding the components of a training programme for BSSHs during the formative years of their career in school leadership. Stakeholders that will constitute the target group of this study include practising school heads, deputy heads, school inspectors and senior teachers. An enquiry into the needs, challenges and the types of skills that BSSHs require will inform the typology of content for an MDP that could effectively enhance their leadership capacity.

1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Imenda (2014:189) defines a theoretical framework as a theory that provides a guideline to a researcher in their quest to find explanations for a certain phenomenon. A theoretical framework provides the structure of the study. It also guides the researcher in the

formulation of the research problem, the research design and the methodology. Besides, the theoretical framework helps to explain phenomena and related concepts that define social reality (Silverman 2007: 98). In this study, the theoretical framework will lead the researcher in identifying the appropriate body of literature that will help to unravel the research problem and to identify the literature gaps in management development for BSSHs. The theoretical parameters that will guide this research study will be based on the Peter Principle (Peter & Hull 1969:8) and the constructivist theory of learning, particularly Jean Lave's situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger 1991:63) and Levi Vygotsky's theory of social development. (Feldman 2009:420; Armstrong 2012:280).

1.4.1 The Peter Principle

The Peter Principle states that in an organisation, an individual is promoted to a leadership position on the basis of previous performance (Peter & Hull 1969:8; Lazear 2004:141). There is no guarantee, however, that the incumbent will perform to expectation in the new role since the new post requires new competences. The risk is that an employee is promoted from a level of competence to a level of incompetence. Incompetent performance at the new level may stem from the fact that the required skills are different from those of the previous level. According to the Peter Principle, it can therefore be said that leadership is viewed as a second career, which demands a completely different set of skills in order for the incumbent to achieve a desirable level of performance. In this study, the theory is situated within the context that school heads are promoted on the basis of their outstanding achievement as teachers yet previous performance in teaching does not guarantee success in the new leadership role. The Peter Principle, in this instance, accounts for the gap between the promotion of individuals to positions of headship and the performance of the newly promoted secondary school heads. This study seeks to interrogate how leadership development approaches can initiate newly promoted secondary school heads into the new career of leadership.

1.4.2 The constructivist theory of learning

The constructivist theory of learning posits that human beings construct knowledge as they interact with the environment (Eloff & Ebersohn 2004:24). The constructivist paradigm argues that learning occurs in a social and cultural context in which learners acquire knowledge through collaboration and active participation. Learners are responsible for their own learning as they derive meaning from experiences. The instructor simply plays the role of a facilitator by creating the appropriate environment for learning as well as providing support to the learner. This study will focus on the socio-cultural view of learning as propounded by Jean Lave and Levi Vygotsky.

According to Lave and Wenger (1991:54), the situated learning theory states that learning occurs naturally within a given context and culture. The theory's major tenet is the notion of legitimate peripheral participation in which learners gain new knowledge through active social interaction and collaboration within a community of practice. In this case, learners commence the learning process as novices but are able to move gradually from the periphery to the centre where they can gain expertise in a particular field through the support of more experienced peers.

The social development theory, which was proposed by Levi Vygotsky, is another theory of learning that subscribes to the socio-cultural view of learning (Rogers & Horrocks 2010:115). Although this theory was developed to explain learning in children, its application has gained wide acclaim in the field of training management. According to this theory, learning is a social process in which learners acquire knowledge through interaction and socialisation with their peers (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:73). Of particular interest to this theory is the notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) which separates the level of tasks learners can perform on their own from the level of tasks learners can perform with assistance from more experienced peers. Learning therefore occurs through a process of scaffolding in which the more experienced peers provide support to the novices so that the latter are able to acquire new knowledge and skills. The social learning theory has significant implications for the design and provision of training

for school heads (Jwan & Ong'ondo 2011:402). The notion of experiential learning is therefore a cornerstone of the theory as learners generate new knowledge within a community of practice based on their interaction with their experiences and ideas. Experiential learning focuses more on the use of experience to ensure the integration of theory and practice as well as the personal development of learners through a process of self-reflection and self-awareness. In terms of this study, the social learning theory provides grounding to the existing literature views regarding the selection of training approaches that are used in MDPs for BSSHs. Armstrong (2012:280) asserts that the practice of learning and development should be based on an understanding of learning theory and the process involved in learning and development.

The constructivist theory of learning is relevantly placed to mitigate the potential problem associated with the Peter Principle. As stated earlier, the Peter Principle highlights the risk of newly promoted incumbents performing incompetently in their new positions if no training is provided to prepare them for the demands of their new leadership role. In this regard, the constructivist theory of learning is quite relevant as it provides a framework for the identification of an appropriate learning environment and instructional methodologies that enable the effective preparation of newly promoted school heads. The two frameworks are therefore interlinked because the constructivist theory of learning views social interaction as a major determinant of learning thereby prescribing the kind of experiential learning strategies that can be used to transfer knowledge and skills to novice school heads in order to deal with the problem of underperformance as stated by the Peter Principle.

1.5 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Rudestan and Newton (1992 in Lesham and Trafford 2007: 96) define a conceptual framework as a set of ideas and principles that are used to outline the structure and direction of a research study. A conceptual framework is comprised of variables that are interrelated and which need to be interrogated in order to establish the meaning of the phenomenon under study. In this study, the conceptual framework will provide a

schematic map that will give direction to the entire study. This implies that the framework will situate the study within the existing literature and the methodology that will be used to explain the research problem.

Research is replete with evidence of a connection between quality leadership and successful schools (Bush 2008:1; Bush et al 2011:31). Education policy makers recognise that schools require effective leaders. Leithwood, Day, Sammonds, Harris and Hopkins (2006:5) assert the following: “There is not a single documented case of a school turning around its pupil achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership.”

On the basis of the above, it can be stated that effective leadership contributes towards school success and education authorities tend to appreciate the importance of introducing leadership preparation programmes that nurture the appropriate leadership skills and behaviours of school heads. Forde (2011:356) highlights the importance of providing MDPs to school leaders by stating that headship is a specialist profession that requires specific training in order for incumbents to be able to cope with its demands. Leadership development is therefore a critical intervention for the professional socialisation of newly promoted school heads. An understanding and exposition of the concepts of leadership and management will form an essential part of the conceptual framework of the study in their relation to a third important concept, namely an MDP.

As has been stated before, school heads start their careers as teachers and their progression to the post of headship calls for a different set of competencies. From a moral standpoint, education authorities are obliged to provide specific training to newly promoted school heads in order to equip them with the skills that are necessary for school leadership (Bush 2008:30). The concept of professional socialisation of BSSHs interlinks with the theoretical perspective of the Peter Principle, which identifies a gap between promotion to the post of headship and the performance expected of school heads. It is this deficiency that an MDP seeks to address.

According to Forde (2011:356), there are various leadership development approaches that can be undertaken at several stages of the continuum of leadership practice.

Regarding the preparation of school heads, the experiential-based approach is the most appropriate approach that will enable participants to learn the necessary skills on the basis of experience and development support from other experienced peers. In terms of content, the principles of leadership and management (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:5; Robbins & Coulter 2009:45), need to be buttressed with a major focus on practice to form the bedrock of a leadership development programme. Leithwood, Reid, Pedwell and Connor (2011:349) also state that learners should significantly participate in the identification of training needs as well as the design of an MDP. This view is also supported by Hussain and Zamair (2011:25) who argue that training need assessment surveys are critical in determining a management development curriculum. This implies that the perceptions of stakeholders identified in this study will inform the content of an MDP for BSSHs.

A review of MDPs currently in practice in countries such as South Africa (Naicker 2011:431; Bush et al 2011:31); Kenya (Sang 2010:1; Ibrahim 2011:292; Jwan & Ong'ondo 2011:404) and England (Earley 2013:163; Bush & Jackson 2002:422) is also critical as it provides insight into the content of MDPs. The review of the literature will be done against the backdrop of the purpose of the research study and the research questions in order to form a theoretical and conceptual framework on the basis of which a foundation for the empirical research can be provided. A model of an MDP for BSSHs will finally be proposed as part of the research findings.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The professional development of school leaders has become a critical component of the national agenda in countries across the world (Wallace 2007:2). There is an increased awareness of the critical role played by the school head towards the realisation of successful outcomes in schools (Alkarni 2014:56; Bouchamma 2012:2; Bush 2007:391; Mathibe 2007:523). In Zimbabwe, school heads are promoted from the ranks of senior teachers. Given the complexity of the role of the school head, competence as a classroom practitioner is not sufficient to guarantee optimum performance (Bush 2008:30). The

position of headship requires a set of skills that are different from those acquired in teacher training to the extent that the effective preparation of newly promoted school heads is necessary to ensure successful school outcomes. Countries in the developed world have institutions and programmes that are intended for the preparation and development of school heads (Ibrahim 2011:291), hence it is also a moral obligation for countries in Africa, Zimbabwe included, to provide training interventions that can initiate beginning school leaders into their new roles. The question that can be asked therefore relates to what stakeholders perceive to be the components of a structured MDP to equip BSSHs with the relevant skills to become effective leaders.

1.6.1 Research questions

The problem being investigated in this study can be summed up in the form of the following research question:

What are the perceptions of stakeholders regarding components of an MDP that could effectively prepare BSSHs for their new roles during the first two years after appointment?

Emanating from the research question are the following sub-questions:

- How can management and leadership in schools be conceptualized? (Chapter 2)
- How can the management development of BSSHs be conceptualized? (Chapter 3)
- How do stakeholders perceive the need for an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe? (Chapter 5)
- What are the components of an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe? (Chapter 6)

1.7 AIM OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study is to examine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the components of a management development programme that could effectively prepare BSSHs for their new roles during the first two years after initial appointment.

Emanating from the main research aim are the following objectives:

- To provide a conceptual framework of management and leadership in schools (Chapter 2).
- To provide an insight into the concept of management development of BSSHs (Chapter 3).
- To examine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the need for an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe (Chapter 5).
- To propose components of an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe (Chapter 6).

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

1.8.1 Research design

As indicated in section 1.6.1, the problem under investigation in this study deals with the perceptions of stakeholders regarding MDPs for BSSHs. Empirical research was extensively undertaken to gather data that would help to provide answers to the problem under study. The process of research started with a review of the relevant literature about the professional development of school heads in chapters 2 and 3. The review of literature was conducted for a number of reasons. Firstly, the literature survey sought to situate the study within the broader context of the body of knowledge of the theory and practice of school leadership development. Secondly, the review of literature also helped in setting the direction for the formulation of the theoretical framework for the study. Thirdly, the literature review set out the groundwork for the collection, analysis and presentation of empirical data that would help the researcher to gain an understanding of the views and

experiences of participants regarding the professional development of novice secondary school heads.

Creswell (2013:5) defines a research design as the research blueprint that outlines the entire research process from the formulation of the research problem to the collection, analysis and interpretation of data. This definition implies that the research design acts as the base and logical structure of the research inquiry, which helps the researcher to gather empirical evidence that is needed to answer the research question under study. The phenomenological research design used in this study is based on the idea that human experience is central to an in-depth understanding of social phenomena. In this regard, the phenomenological view of social reality contends that a clear understanding of a phenomenon can only be achieved by examining the views and lived experiences of participants within a given social setting.

Creswell (2013:18) states that certain factors influence the choice of the research design. Factors such as the nature of the research problem, the purpose of the research and the philosophical assumptions that researchers bring to the research study have been cited as having an influence on the manner in which the research problem is formulated and how evidence is gathered to unravel the phenomenon under study. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:3), the three main philosophical assumptions that underpin the researcher's beliefs are ontology (the nature of reality), epistemology (the nature and forms of knowledge) and methodology (research process). These philosophical assumptions shall be discussed in greater detail in chapter 4.

The philosophical assumptions influence the researcher's beliefs regarding the research paradigm that could be used for a particular research study. This study was guided by the interpretivist paradigm. According to Cohen et al (2011:115), the interpretivist paradigm is premised on the idea that the perspectives and experiences of people can be understood better if they are investigated from within the contexts in which they occur. This implies that meaning can be denoted from the behaviours, attitudes, perceptions and lived experiences of participants within their own social setting. This matter is further

discussed in section 4.3.1. The ensuing section focuses on the research approach and the research strategy that was used in this study.

1.8.2 Research approach

This study used the qualitative research approach.

This approach was deemed to be the most appropriate approach for this study because it enabled the researcher to explore, in an in-depth manner, the behaviour, attitudes and perceptions of people within the context of their natural settings. Besides, the qualitative approach allowed the researcher to be directly 'immersed' in the social setting being investigated. This enabled the researcher to understand subjects' views from within (Thomas 2009:173). It was quite apparent that a clear understanding of the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the professional development of BSSHs could only be achieved by examining the experiences and attitudes of the participants within the social context in which they occurred. It is for this reason that the qualitative research approach was found to be most suitable for this particular study. Qualitative research is associated with the inductive approach to research, which contends that researchers study social situations, make sense of the participants' perceptions and experiences in order to generate new hypothesis regarding the topic under study (Babbie, Mouton, Voster & Prozesky 2015:270). This matter is further discussed in section 4.3.2.

1.8.3 Research strategy

The case study was used as a strategy to explore and analyse the perceptions of selected participants (school heads, deputy heads, senior teachers and school inspectors) in order to gain a better understanding of their perceptions regarding an envisaged MDP for BSSHs.

Creswell (2013:97) defines a case study as a strategy of inquiry that investigates a specific phenomenon within its real-life context. One major feature of case study research

is that it allows for the identification of a small group that is studied as a specific illustration of the problem under study (Yin 2011:17; Gray 2009:247). This implies that case studies are bounded in terms of time and place, which allows the researcher to undertake a comprehensive study of the phenomenon within a limited geographical area for the purpose of generalising empirical findings to a broader context. As shall be outlined in greater detail in section 4.3.3, the specific case study research design used in this study was the embedded single case design. This design was selected to cater for the different sub-categories of participants (school inspectors, school heads, deputy heads and senior teachers) who would provide evidence during the study (Cohen et al 2011:289).

The case study was quite appropriate for this study as it allowed the researcher to conduct research despite the constraints of time and adequate resources. In addition, the use of the case study as a research strategy also allowed for the use of multiple data collection instruments such as interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. Cohen et al (2011:223) attest that the use of multiple sources of data helps in the verification of data through the process of triangulation.

1.8.4 Research methods

The methods of research that were employed in this study were associated with qualitative research. Although the matter is dealt with in greater detail in chapter 4, this section briefly discusses issues of population and sampling, data collection and data analysis.

1.8.4.1 Population and sampling

The study was undertaken in the district of Zaka which is located in Masvingo Province to the South East of Zimbabwe (see figure 1). The district has 42 secondary schools. Although the secondary schools belong to different responsible authorities ranging from central government, Christian missions and the local district authority, the promotion and

appointment of heads in these schools is largely the prerogative of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE).

The sample for this study comprises participants that were drawn from a total of ten secondary schools and the district education office (see table 4.1). The secondary schools were selected through a process of purposive sampling. Cohen et al (2011: 157) identify purposive sampling as a form of qualitative research sampling that allows the researcher to select the subjects to be included in the research.

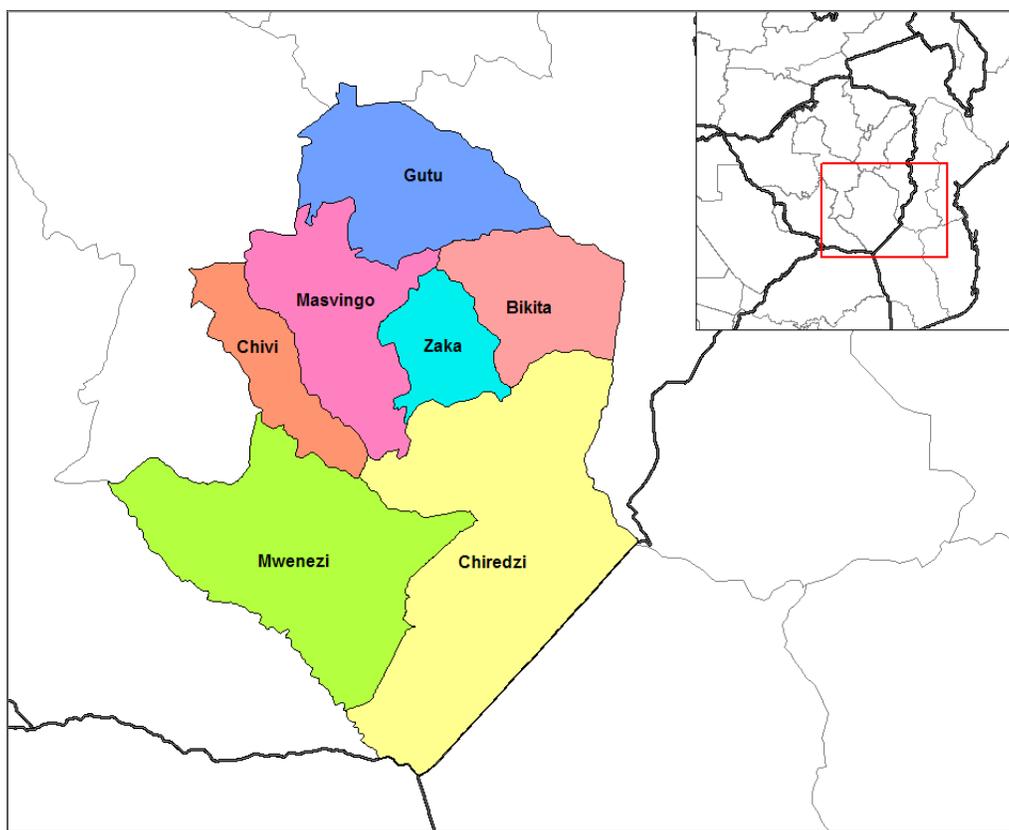


Figure 1.1: Map showing the location of Zaka District in Masvingo, Zimbabwe

Source: Department of Geography: Great Zimbabwe University, 2010.

The purposive sampling of participants was meant to ensure that the researcher used his own determination to denote those subjects with the relevant characteristics and the

knowledge being sought. Kombo and Tromp (2009:83) assert that the capacity of the researcher to target data rich subjects allows for an in-depth study of the issue being investigated.

A total of 28 participants were initially selected to participate in the study, but only 27 took part. Participants in the sample included five BSSHs, five practising secondary school heads, four deputy heads and 10 senior teachers. In addition, three school inspectors from the district education office were also selected through purposive sampling and coopted into the sample. The district of Zaka, like other districts, has a functioning district education office that is staffed by school inspectors who are responsible for the supervision of education in schools. Deputy heads and senior teachers participating in the study were drawn from the five selected secondary schools that are headed by practising school heads. This was done in order to ensure that beginning school heads would not feel inhibited by the participation of other members from their schools. In order to overcome this potential problem, more interviewees were drawn from those schools where school heads were already established.

The sample was typically heterogeneous as it drew participants from different categories of people with diverse educational backgrounds and professional experiences regarding the topic under study. The maximum variation sampling approach was therefore used to select participants with an interest in headship across the professional continuum that ranges from senior teachers (aspiring to be school heads), deputy school heads, BSSHs (the newly appointed incumbents with fewer than two years headship experience), practising school heads (incumbents with more than two years headship experience) and school inspectors (who previously served as school heads before being promoted to their current posts). Research questions were specifically targeted to elicit the participants' views on the subject of the components of an MDP for BSSHs.

The sample size was deliberately made small because the participants in the case study basically belonged to the same profession and therefore depicted common traits that are characteristic of the larger population under study (Cohen et al 2011:148). The small size of the sample also enabled the researcher to undertake an in-depth inquiry of the case

study within the constraints of the available time and resources. Since the sample population was generally homogeneous in terms of their professional background, it was anticipated that the small sample size would enable the researcher to collect data to saturation point. Creswell (2014:189) refers to the saturation point as that state when the continued collection of information does not provide new meaningful insights. A large sample size, in this instance, would only result in the repetition of data that would be collected. The matter is discussed further in section 4.4.1.

1.8.4.2 Data collection

The research study used various data collection methods, which included individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. The use of several data collection instruments was part of the researcher's multi-method approach to collect data from the different categories of participants in this study. The use of several methods enabled the researcher to collect rich data as the methods can complement each other (Guest, Namey, Taylor, Eley & McKenna 2017:693). Cohen et al (2011:223) identify the above-mentioned methods as major instruments that are used in qualitative research.

1.8.4.2a Individual interviews

Creswell (2014:190) and Cohen et al (2011:409) state that interviews involve verbal interaction between two or more people on a subject of interest with the purpose of exchanging ideas. Individual interviews were used to examine the individual experiences, perceptions and feelings of school heads on the sensitive issues regarding the challenges they face in the early years of school leadership. The one-on-one interviews were used to collect data from the five beginning school heads, five practising school heads and the three school inspectors on what they perceived to be training needs. The interview approach was most preferred for this category of participants because the researcher anticipated that school heads and school inspectors might be more comfortable providing information in their individual capacities rather than in focus group interviews where they

would likely be required to participate alongside their subordinates and colleagues respectively.

1.8.4.2b Focus group interviews

Focus group interviews were used to examine the shared perceptions and beliefs that are generated by the relatively homogeneous groups of deputy heads and senior teachers. In this regard, three focus group interviews, one for the five deputy heads and two for the 10 senior teachers drawn from the five selected schools headed by practising school heads were held. The ten senior teachers were divided into two groups. Each of the two senior teachers drawn from the five selected schools was deployed to a separate focus group in order to enhance confidentiality and the security of participants' information. The conduct of focus group interviews in this study was quite ideal for a variety of reasons. Firstly, the group interviews helped to set the stage for social interaction in a manner that is reflective of the way individuals form opinions in the real world through interacting and conversing (Dilshad & Latif 2013:192; Boateng 2012:54). In addition, the focus group interviews sought to elicit a solid understanding of the challenges affecting BSSHs and therefore help the researcher to gain insight into the topic of research from the perspective of deputy heads and senior teachers (as individuals aspiring to be school heads).

A major strength of the interviews is that they enabled the researcher to directly participate on the same platform with interviewees and discern their perceptions regarding a particular situation. Individual interviews were also conducted with participants of focus group interviews, where necessary, to follow up on matters emanating from the focus group interviews that warranted further investigation in order to get clarity on certain pertinent issues.

1.8.4.3 Document analysis

Document analysis (See section 4.4.2.3) was also used to review sources of information that might inform the researcher about the needs of BSSHs. The researcher used primary

documents in the form of vacancy announcement circulars (See Appendix U), the CSC training and development policy, relevant statutory instruments (SI) and policy circulars from the MoPSE. Cohen et al (2011:249) define a primary document as a direct record of an event or a process by an individual who was involved in it. Data collected from the documents cited above were used to gain insight into the responsibilities of the school head and to provide information about the inventory of standard technical skills and competences required for the post of secondary school head.

The use of the several methods was meant to enable one data collection method to complement the other. It also enabled the researcher to take advantage of the opportunity presented by multiple methods of collecting data to enhance the corroboration of data and verify the accuracy. Cohen et al (2011:22) state that the utility of plural approaches reduces the risk of bias as well as polarisation and affinity to a single research approach. Multiple methods can also be relied upon to measure the credibility of collected data through a process of triangulation as indicated in section 4.4.5.

1.8.4.4 Data analysis

Data analysis refers to the process of arranging and interpreting data according to defined patterns, themes and categories (Cohen et al 2011:537). Data from interviews were transcribed and interpretations made about it. Data collected using the various data collection tools were organised into categories. The data were then coded on the basis of the emerging themes that could help to explain the phenomena under investigation (Cohen et al 2011:537). Information collected from interviews and documentary sources was triangulated to ascertain the accuracy and consistency of the data from the different sources and methods. The corroboration of data also helped to ensure consistency and validity of research findings.

The theoretical and conceptual frameworks were used to guide the process of data analysis. This implies that theory plays a key role in situating the research within the context of methodology used to collect, interpret and analyse data. Imenda (2014:188)

argues that theory acts as a measure to determine the extent to which research findings match the framework.

Matters relating to research design and methodology are discussed in depth in chapter 4.

1.9 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

In this research study, the following concepts have a particular contextual meaning as defined below:

- **Stakeholders**

The term refers to a person or group of persons who have a direct interest or concern in an organisation. In this study, stakeholders are education practitioners and include education officers, school heads, deputy heads and senior teachers in a secondary school setting.

- **School head**

The school head is the person who is entrusted with providing leadership to the school and providing the link between the school, the community, the MoPSE and other stakeholders such as NGOs. According to the Vacancy Announcement Notice – Internal Circular Minute No. 32 of 2014, the school head is expected to perform an array of responsibilities that entail planning, organising, leading and controlling school activities.

- **Beginning secondary school heads**

In this study, the concept refers to newly appointed secondary school heads in the first two years of headship. According to Bush (2009:376) school heads assume leadership posts without any formal training. The view is also supported by Atieno and Simatwa (2012:389) who state that newly promoted school heads face several challenges as they are appointed on the basis of a good teaching record rather than their leadership potential.

This implies that they are appointed into the positions of headship without adequate preparation.

- **Secondary school**

This refers to an institution that offers secondary education. Hussain and Zamair (2011:24) identify secondary education as that period of education between elementary education and higher education. It prepares students, by way of streamlining them, for entry into higher education, vocational training and employment.

- **Management**

Robbins and Coulter (2009:36) define management as a process of coordinating the activities of others in order to achieve the set goals of an organisation. The major pillars of management are planning, organising, leading and controlling. The term 'management' is often used interchangeably with the concept of 'leadership'. According to Pont et al (2008:23) leadership refers to the process of directing and influencing subordinates to work towards the accomplishment of organisational goals. Bush (2007:395) corroborates the view that leadership is mainly concerned with the art of influence leading to the achievement of desired goals. Chikoko, Naicker and Mthiyane (2015:454) as well as Bush (2007:396) contend that there is no clear dichotomy between the two terms as they are rather complementary to each other. While management focuses on technical maintenance functions, leadership focuses on influencing followers. The interface between these two terms has spurred scholars like Bush (2007:391) to coin the term 'managerial leadership' which is an amalgam of critical leadership and management functions that school heads require in order to be effective in the execution of their roles.

- **Management development programme**

The term 'management development programme' is used interchangeably with the term 'leadership development programme' to refer to a process by which newly promoted school heads learn skills that are relevant to their new roles in order for them to enhance their capabilities and be able to execute their managerial functions effectively. The rationale for MDPs emanates from the realisation that effective school leadership

contributes significantly to successful school outcomes (Bush & Middlewood 2013:13). The expanded role of the school head coupled with the complex challenges that characterise the post of headship make a strong case for the training of beginning school heads.

1.10 CHAPTER DIVISION

Chapter 1 introduces the research topic and provides a background to the research problem. It also outlines the research problem, aims of the study, the significance of the study and matters related to research design and methodology.

Chapter 2 presents a review of existing literature on the topic of school leadership and specifically MDPs for beginning school heads, using the theoretical framework as the guideline. The development of theory underlying the concepts of management and leadership is also being discussed while a review of the learning theory and how it relates to MDPs will be undertaken.

Chapter 3 presents a review of the literature regarding the components of MDPs for BSSHs. It also examines available literature on the framework for an MDP. Models of training programmes in other countries will be reviewed in order to inform the typology and content of a training programme for newly promoted secondary school heads in Zimbabwe. An attempt will also be made to review literature in a manner that will provide answers to research questions and the purpose of the study.

Chapter 4 provides the research methodology ranging from the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection methods, trustworthiness and reliability issues, and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 focuses on data presentation, interpretation and analysis in line with data analysis procedures that are employed in qualitative research. The data gathered are

interpreted according to themes and categories that resonate with the research study and the purpose of the study.

Chapter 6 provides an overview of the entire study. It is a deliberation of the conclusions emanating from the research findings and also makes the necessary recommendations and suggestions.

1.11 SUMMARY

This chapter sought to introduce readers to the research problem under investigation. The chapter also presented the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the research questions and the purpose of the study. Other sections that have been dealt with in this chapter include the research methodology and design and the delimitation of the study. Key concepts have also been defined. The next two chapters will focus on the review of the literature that is relevant to the study.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXTUALISING BEGINNING SCHOOL HEADSHIP WITHIN RELEVANT MANAGEMENT THEORY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter seeks to review some existing management and leadership literature, thereby conceptually and theoretically contextualising management development programmes (MDPs) for beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs) in Zimbabwe within the body of knowledge on school management. The review of scholarly work related to the specific area of study will help the researcher to situate the research within the context of the general body of knowledge of school management and leadership development (Babbie, Mouton, Voster & Prozesky 2015:565). The chapter also provides an outline of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks underlying this study. The theoretical framework for this study is based on the Peter Principle and this will be discussed below. Imenda (2014:189) states that a theoretical framework provides an explanation for the nature and form of phenomena in the real world. A survey of related literature will therefore be done in order to analyse and evaluate information that focuses on the philosophical assumptions of the Peter Principle as it relates to a MDP for BSSHs. Thereby the theoretical framework is broadened and linked to the conceptual framework.

A literature review is also being undertaken to provide a conceptual framework for this study. Jabareen (2009:51) defines a conceptual framework as a collection of ideas and principles that explain the pattern of relationships within a field of study. Developing a conceptual framework will enable the researcher to seek for a deeper understanding of the key concepts that undergird the notion of an MDP for BSSHs. In this instance, key concepts related to the area of school management, such as management, leadership and leadership development are examined.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The framework for this research centres on the Peter Principle already explained in chapter 1, but elaborated on in this chapter to better contextualise MDPs for BSSHs. According to the Peter Principle (Peter & Hull 1969:8), employees in an organisation start at the lower levels of the bureaucratic ladder but are promoted to a higher managerial rank when they prove to be competent in the tasks to which they are assigned. The promotion may persist until such time when the employee reaches a position that requires skills that he/she does not possess, thereby rendering the employee incompetent. Since the new post would be different and require a separate set of skills, previous performance cannot be relied upon to predict future performance. The incumbents may not be able to perform to expectations if no appropriate interventions are taken to initiate them into their new role.

For the purpose of this study, the Peter Principle gives the assumption that a good teaching record does not guarantee sound and competent management upon promotion. The theory clearly shows a yawning gap within the Zimbabwean education system in which individuals are promoted to the position of head and yet no training is provided to prepare them for their new roles. Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2013:354) argue that the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) in Zimbabwe tends to assume that competent classroom practitioners make good leaders when in fact they lack an array of the necessary skills ranging from “technical, conceptual, human and diagnostic skills”. This implies that headship is a second profession that requires a completely different set of managerial and leadership skills. The theory underscores the need to review current promotion and probationary practices in education by making it a requirement for beginning school heads to undergo leadership and management training during the first two years upon promotion. Training the new incumbent on the job would help to avert the danger of promoting an employee from “a position of competence to a position of incompetence” (Arikuweyo 2009:78).

2.3 THE CONCEPTUALISATION OF MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION

The concepts of management and leadership have attracted increasing interest in the last half of the 20th century. This upsurge of interest has largely stemmed from a realisation in several educational systems that the quality of leadership in schools contributes significantly to the attainment of successful school outcomes (Bush 2009:375). Research has identified school leadership as a critical factor in improving schools and student achievement (Huber 2004:669; Shava 2015:26). Leithwood, Day, Sammonds, Harris and Hopkins (2006:4) also corroborated the same view by asserting that school leadership comes second only to classroom teaching as an influence to classroom learning. It can therefore be accepted that sound and competent leadership is a critical ingredient for school success.

School leaders, particularly school heads, play a critical role in setting direction, creating and enabling a culture of teaching and learning and fostering collaborative relationships among members of staff and the community for the purpose of achieving set goals (Day & Sammonds 2014:9). The role description of the post of school head has broadened significantly over the years. Changes in the role of a school head were precipitated by major reforms that affected education systems in most countries. Bush (2008:26) avers that the role of the school head evolved from that of *primus inter pares* (first teacher among equals) to that of a manager who was entrusted with a multiplicity of responsibilities such as budgeting, instructional supervision, personnel management, policy implementation and community relations. A United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Interagency group report on Secondary Education (2009:26) attests to this development by contending that the roles of school heads evolved as a result of the various reforms that affected education in the latter part of the 20th century. In order to fully understand the expanded role of the school head, it is important to examine the developments that took place within the field of education. An understanding of the numerous reforms that had the effect of reshaping the

responsibilities of school heads is of critical importance as it provides insight into the type of leadership qualities that can be required to match their new roles.

2.4 CHANGES THAT LED TO THE EVOLVED ROLE OF THE SCHOOL HEAD

Education systems, the world over, have experienced profound changes that have culminated in reshaping management and leadership practices in education. One major development that influenced the role of schools heads in society was the industrial period in the 19th century (Pont, Nusche & Moorman 2008:22). During this period, schools were expected to play a leading role in the development of human capital that was needed to meet the labour requirements of the industry. Besides, there emerged a compelling need for education systems to implement new management approaches in schools that would adequately prepare societies for the needs of industry and administer the proper curriculum that resonated with the expectations of industry. In fact, education moved up the national agenda of most countries as governments began to realise that schools were catalysts for political, social and economic transformation within societies. School heads became responsible for ensuring that schools offered the appropriate curriculum that would develop the right pool of skills for industry.

The dawn of globalisation and the rapid growth of science and information technology in the second half of the 20th century were also another developments that impacted upon the way schools were to be run (Okoli 2012:657). The UNESCO Interagency group report on Secondary Education (2009:16) has also documented cases of profound changes in education ranging from the democratisation of education, globalisation and technological advancement to shifts in societal expectations regarding education. These changes have significantly changed the breadth and scope of school leadership to the extent that education systems have been compelled to consider grooming school leaders in line with the new demands of the profession. With globalisation in mind, governments realised that in order for countries to be economically competitive on the world stage, there was a need for schools to be managed appropriately so that they effectively prepared citizens for participation in international commerce. Schools began to be viewed as the key to help

solve society's economic and social challenges. In addition, globalisation also ushered in a new area of standardisation in which schools were supposed to be run on the basis of internationally acceptable benchmarks that governed practices and processes in education (Okoli 2012:657). This development meant that education systems had a moral obligation to provide training to school heads so that they would cope with the complexities associated with their role (Bush 2008:29).

In Zimbabwe, the upsurge in demand for education as a result of the adoption of the Education For All (EFA) policies (UNESCO World Education Forum Report 2000:26) has also added to the complexities that have affected the way schools should be run. The majority government in Zimbabwe, in 1980, made a historic commitment towards the provision of EFA which was in line with the declarations of the international community towards the right to education for all citizens that were made at Jomtien, Thailand in 1990, and at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000. While the policy was a laudable development that significantly shaped the education agenda in the post-colonial state of Zimbabwe, it however put a strain on leadership capacity in schools. Education authorities had to grapple with the dilemma of a shortage of competent school heads to superintend the number of secondary schools that were being established to cope with the rising demand for secondary education. The expansion of secondary education also posed a serious challenge of quality and standards as the government was no longer able to provide adequate funding for education. In Zimbabwe, disadvantaged schools remain a common feature due to the dire socio-economic and political challenges that the country has been facing since independence in 1980 (Zikhali & Perumal 2016:2). There is a serious lack of classrooms, sporting facilities and teaching and learning material like textbooks and teaching aids. Under these circumstances, it is critical to effectively train school heads so that they can contribute significantly towards the improvement of these schools. School heads ought to be competent to provide leadership in the mobilisation and management of resources so that schools are able to provide the basic conditions that are required by learners for optimum learning. In addition, school heads also require the necessary competences to generate sound project proposals that appeal to donor agencies for funding critical school projects. The role of schools in communities has also

evolved over time and consequently influenced the role of school heads within the context of school-community relations. According to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) manual on child-friendly schools the functions of schools have been redefined as they have assumed the role of community service centres with the responsibility for providing amenities and recreational services to the communities (UNICEF 2009:21). Schools are also partnering with families in the socialisation of children within society. This implies that the responsibility of developing social capital, and most importantly a morally upright and appropriately cultured citizen now belongs to schools and the achievement of this is dependent on effective leadership in schools (Saldana 2013:228). It therefore implies that newly promoted school heads require training in child rights and community relations, among other skills.

The decentralisation of the management of schools from a centralised system of administering schools to a decentralised system of site-based management (Caldwell 2008:235; Bush 2009:376; Pont et al 2008:18) was also a major milestone that influenced school reforms. The rationale for the devolution of management to school level was anchored in the thinking that the schools were likely to be administered more effectively from within rather than at a distance from the institution. Ingvarson, Anderson, Gronn and Jackson (2006:3) posit that the introduction of school-based management has redefined the role the school head in relation to the management of the school environment, cultural patterns, organisational structures, policies, procedures and technologies. This implies that the role of school heads has broadened as a result of site-based management.

Changes in school governance have also led to the increased involvement of parents and communities in the affairs of the school to the extent that school heads had to be accountable and perform to the expectations of their communities. In Zimbabwe, the government ceded the right to fund schools to communities in 1989 after the promulgation of Statutory Instrument (SI) number 89 of 1989 (Boonstoppel & Chikohomero 2011:7). This implied that school heads were compelled to run schools cost effectively as business entities in order for communities to realise money's worth in the way schools were administered.

These changes and developments enumerated in the preceding discussion highlight the extent to which the role of the school head as well as the practices and processes in schools have changed. It is quite apparent from the foregoing that school leaders require certain management and leadership skills that enhance their competence to provide sound leadership in schools. An understanding of the management and leadership competencies expected of school heads can best be gained once an overview of concepts of management and leadership is undertaken.

2.5 MANAGEMENT

Koontz and Weihrich (1990 in Olum 2004:2) aver that management is a systematic process of constructing and maintaining an environment in which individuals work together as a group to accomplish set organisational aims. Robbins and Coulter (2009:36) have their own view of management. They define management as a process of coordinating the activities of others in order to fulfil the various tasks of the organisation in an efficient manner. Based on these definitions, it can be stated that management is a function that seeks to achieve set objectives through the use and control of resources, structures and systems in organisations. It is quite apparent that the practice of management, within the context of school governance, is about the execution of authority as it relates to planning, decision making, problem solving, organising and controlling as well as resource allocation (Alabi & Okemakinde 2010:316; Bush 2007:395; Lunenburg & Irby 2013:4). The execution of these key areas requires managerial competence on the part of the school head if the school must realise a substantial measure of effectiveness.

The development of thinking in management can be traced back to the late 19th century (Sridhar 2016:2). During this period, there was an eruption of scientific management ideas in direct response to the organisational challenges that were being experienced during the industrial revolution. The entire management movement of the period sought to investigate how best organisations could enhance efficiency and increase productivity. These efforts culminated in the development of management theory which provided an

impetus for the introduction of systematic management practices within organisations (Ehiobuche & Tu 2012:310).

The historical development of management was characterised by various management dimensions that can be classified as follows: the scientific management theory, the administrative management school of thought, the human relations perspective and the behavioural science paradigm (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:4). Contemporary theories, such as the systems theory and the situational theory have also emerged.

2.5.1 The scientific management theory

The first theory of management was the scientific management theory by Frederick Taylor (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:5, Mahmood, Basharat & Bashir 2012:514). Taylor is largely credited with starting the era of modern management. He systematically studied work in industries as he sought to establish how best organisations could enhance efficiency while reducing the cost of production. Taylor prescribed that there was only 'one best way' of performing each job. In his view, managers were supposed to begin by making a thorough job analysis through the observation of a specific task, gathering data and determining how best the task could be performed. Once the job was analysed, the best candidate befitting the job would be selected. Taylor's approach also emphasized the need for cooperation between management and employees. Managers were supposed to plan, facilitate and set standards for work while workers were left to concentrate on performing their jobs. In addition, the principles of specialisation and functional supervision were major highlights of Taylor's work. He averred that managers derived authority from their expertise and in order for managers to supervise their subordinates efficiently, they were supposed to be specialists in the work they should supervise. This implies that supervisors should have the necessary knowledge and skills required to provide direction within an organisation.

Taylor's contributions to management theory have had a profound influence on management practice. The theory set out guidelines regarding job analysis, division of

labour, setting work place standards and functional supervision (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:5, Sridhar 2016:4). While the theory has been credited for contributing immensely towards the evolution of management thought, it has, however, been criticised for failing to consider the psycho-social factors that affect employees at the work place.

2.5.2 The administrative management school of thought

The administrative management school of thought was mainly the work of Henri Fayol, Luther Gullick and Max Weber (Olum 2004:15). Henry Fayol was particularly concerned with finding ways to improve production from an organisational perspective. He believed that management played an essential role in enhancing the efficiency of an organisation. In this regard, Fayol proposed five basic functions that all managers were expected to perform. These functions were planning, organising, commanding, coordinating and controlling. Further to the five basic functions, Fayol also identified 14 principles of management that provided a guiding framework to the management of organisations. Prominent among these principles were division of work, authority, discipline, chain of command, unity of direction, order and centralisation among others. Luther Gullick expanded on Fayol's five basic functions and generated the seven functions of management that included planning, organising, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting as the major functions of management (Robbins & Coulter 2009:37).

An examination of modern management practice in schools clearly shows that the basic functions propagated by Henri Fayol and Luther Gullick actually constitute the key result areas of school heads. It is therefore important for beginning school heads to acquire the skills related to the performance of these tasks if they are to be competent in the provision of school leadership.

Another theorist who made significant contributions to the administrative management movement was Max Weber. Weber introduced the bureaucratic theory that provided a set of rational guidelines that characterised the ideal structure of an effective organisation.

According to the bureaucratic theory, the major characteristic of an organisation was the existence of a hierarchical structure based on centralisation of authority and a chain of command. In addition, division of labour and functional speciality were also critical principles of the theory of bureaucracy. The existence of a system of rules was also important in establishing order within the organisation. The maintenance of impersonal relations and the recruitment of staff on the basis of technical competence are also some of the principles that added to the Weberian principles of bureaucracy (Kimani 2011: 6; Lunenburg & Irby 2013:4).

2.5.3 The human relations paradigm

The other management paradigm that contributed to management thought was the human relations school of thought. This emerged as a reaction to the classical management approach that was highly criticised for being too technical in its view of productivity without considering the welfare of employees within an organisation. Prominent figures in the human relations movement were Elton Mayo, Mary Parker-Follet and Kurt Lewin. The theorists brought a new dimension to the practice of administration that emphasized the importance of social, psychological and human factors within the organisation (Lunenburg & Irby 2013:5; Mahmood et al 2012:516). The new thinking was based on the assumption that an increase in productivity was a direct result of employee morale and collaboration. Hence, it was critically important for managers to gain an understanding of the dynamics underlying employee behaviour as well as other human social factors that affect employee wellness within the workplace.

Another major achievement of the human relations movement was the introduction of participatory decision-making approaches within organisations. There was a realisation that employees within a democratic organisation in which they actively participated tended to be more productive than in organisations that were more authoritarian (Bhat & Kumar 2013:30; Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:8).

The behavioural science movement also brought a new dimension that influenced management thinking. This school of thought postulated that managers were supposed to gain an understanding of human behaviour and determine how best a state of conciliation could be achieved between the organisation and its employees. Proponents of the behavioural science movement, namely Abraham Maslow (need hierarchy theory) and Fredrick Herzberg (two factor theory) emphasized the need for the motivation of employees (Robbins & Coulter 2009:459; Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert 2009: 478). An analysis of these behavioural theories shows that school heads have an obligation to attend to employees' needs and also to provide support for their professional development. According to the behavioural perspective, the achievement of school goals largely depends on the capacity of the school leader to motivate teachers, improve their working conditions and integrate them into the decision-making process of the school. Day and Sammonds (2014:18) attaches a lot of importance to the role that school heads play in motivating, inspiring and providing support to teachers as a way of enhancing their commitment to duty. Beginning school heads require initiation on human skills in order to create a collaborative work culture within the school.

2.5.4 The systems theory

Contemporary management thinking also led to the emergence of new management theories like the systems theory. The discourse on systems thinking indicates that it is a relatively new perspective that provides an understanding of the structure of organisations. The systems theory is based on the idea that an organisation is a system. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008:26) a system is a 'set of interrelated elements that function as a unit for a specific purpose'. The elements that constitute a system are the inputs, transformation process, outputs, feedback and the environment. Inputs are the resources that are fed into the organisation as a way of providing energy for it to function efficiently and these are often in the form of human, financial, technological and material resources (Bolanle 2013:27). In schools, the responsibility of proper planning and selecting the appropriate resources required to achieve effective teaching and learning lies squarely with the school head. The selection of inputs has a bearing on the activities

that take place during the transformation process within the school. The transformation process is the stage in which inputs are acted upon and coordinated in order to achieve set goals. Within the school, it takes technical competence of the school head to plan, organise and control the transformation process diligently in order to realise acceptable outputs. The ability of a leader to make effective communication channels, to motivate subordinates and to set the right culture for effective learner achievement is critical in determining the desired outputs. Olum (2004:17) identifies outputs as the results emanating from the activities within the system. The results are not only a measure of the extent to which the goals of the organisation have been accomplished but also serve to inform whether an organisation is operating to the satisfaction of the community it serves. Outputs include such elements as pass rates, dropout rates, school-community relations, changes in student behaviour and staff turnover. Information derived from outputs provides feedback regarding whether the goals set initially were achieved. It also influences the kind of activities, decisions and inputs that would be undertaken in the next cycle. In terms of the systems view, it is also important for school managers to be able to interpret the relationship between the school and its environment and to take appropriate action to continuously modify the organisation in keeping with changes in the environment (Mele, Pels & Polese 2010:130). The political, economic, social and technological contexts in which schools operate are characterised by pressures from authorities and stakeholders. It is therefore necessary for school heads to possess the competence to undertake an environmental analysis and adapt the organisation to the demands of the environment through a process of organisational learning (Robbins & Coulter 2009:320). From an administrative perspective, heads of schools have very little that they can do about the external environment other than to monitor it and adapt to the demands for change. This implies that school heads require certain skills that will enable them to make sense of the environment and redirect their institutions towards change.

2.6 FUNCTIONS OF MANAGEMENT

Management is basically a function that seeks to achieve set objectives through the efficient use of resources. According to Bush (2007:391) the aims of education are often

derived from the ideologies of governments that are expressed through legislation or formal policy statements. At the school level, the extent to which school heads are able to interpret such government policy and implement it successfully is largely dependent on their level of craft competence. This implies that the proficient execution of activities within the school is conditional upon the capacity of the school head to employ the basic management functions of planning, organising, leading, and controlling.

Scholars are in agreement about the critical importance that management theory plays in providing managers of schools with the necessary tools for running schools (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:5; Kimani 2011:22). Contemporary studies have also confirmed the significant contribution that management thought has made to the formulation of administrative patterns and standards that guide decision making in organisations (Bush 2007:394). In this regard, it has become fundamentally necessary for a manager to gain knowledge of basic management principles because such principles help to equip managers with the appropriate management techniques to administer organisations on a daily basis.

The process of management consists of four basic functions that will be discussed here, namely planning, organising, leading and controlling (Olum 2004:15; Lunenburg 2010a:2).

2.6.1 Planning

The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) (2010:9) defines planning as

“the intellectual anticipation of possible future situations, the selection of desirable situations to be achieved (objectives) and the determination of relevant actions that need to be taken in order to reach those objectives at a reasonable cost”.

Alabi and Okemakinde (2010:317) aver that planning involves:

“... identifying objectives and available resources, examining the implications of alternative courses of action and choosing wisely among them, deciding on specific targets to be met within specific time limits, and finally developing the best means of systematically implementing the choice made”.

These definitions imply that planning is a rational and systematic process that entails setting the direction towards which activities within an organisation are driven. Planning approaches have evolved from the traditional planning approach, which was mainly administered from central government without consideration of the real contextual needs of individual schools. Little regard was given to the changing circumstances within the environment, hence planning was rather rigid. Best practices in educational planning have turned to strategic planning as the optimum management tool that can be used to craft a blueprint that enable schools to develop road maps for improvement (IIEP 2010:12). The dynamic changes currently engulfing the education sector as a result of environmental pressures impacting upon the schools, such as globalisation and technological advancement, compel school heads to plan for reforms in order to keep schools relevant to the needs of the communities they serve (Alabi & Okemakinde 2010:317). Schools often experience changes in structure, curriculum, teaching methods and educational technologies in their quest for improvement and the major challenge that school heads face is how to keep pace with these reforms.

Planning is done at several levels within the organisation. Stoner et al (2009:291) identify two forms of plans that are widely used by organisations. These are strategic plans and operational plans. Strategic plans are long-term plans that are conceived by senior management within the organisation. They derive from the mission statement, define the broad goals of the organisation and state how these goals will be achieved over time. Operational plans provide details of how elements of the strategic plan can be implemented on a daily basis within organisations' units. The success of planning at school level is dependent on the capacity of the school head to develop a school master plan that resonates with the institution's mission statement and which the other units are capable of implementing.

2.6.2 Organising

Organising involves the orderly deployment of the physical, human and financial resources in order to achieve the organisation's goals (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:5; Surya 2011:6). It also entails setting up the structure of the organisation and identifying activities that should be carried out within the organisation (Lunenburg & Irby 2013:4). The structural framework of an organisation is often depicted in the form of an organisational chart that specifies the chain of command and the roles within the institution. A well-organised structure of the school is of critical importance to its overall function as it helps to define the patterns of authority and communication channels that are necessary for the coordination of efforts and decision making (UNESCO 2005:25).

Once the structure has been designed and the tasks identified, the process of staffing is undertaken. It entails the recruitment of competent personnel and appropriately deploying them to work in various positions within the school. According to Surya (2011:7), school heads have a responsibility to allocate tasks to members of staff and to coordinate the efforts of individual members towards realising the school's mission. It can also be stated that school heads are equally responsible for looking after the needs of staff and ensuring that their knowledge and skills are continuously upgraded so that their instructional capacity is enhanced (Elmore 2000:31). It should, however, be noted that the responsibility of managing human resources within the school requires school heads to have a clear understanding of the labour policies and the statutory instruments that regulate issues of employee conduct, staff development and welfare (Chemutai 2015:76).

Departmentalisation is also another key element of the process of organising in which similar activities are grouped together for purposes of specialisation, division of labour and role clarity. In Zimbabwe, like in other countries, departmentalisation is a major characteristic of the structure of secondary schools (Bendikson, Robinson & Hattie 2012:3). Secondary schools have departments in which subjects that belong to a certain discipline are clustered and headed by a Head of Department (HOD). The existence of HODs within the bureaucratic structure of the secondary school has major implications

for the type of leadership approaches that school heads should employ within the school. The major implication is that secondary school heads are expected to play an oversight role over HODs while they concentrate on facilitating and enforcing the policies, time schedules and routines that regulate school activities and ultimately ensure quality teaching and learning. It is therefore of the essence that BSSHs are equipped with the appropriate skills that enable them to delegate responsibilities to middle management while they concentrate on the overall supervision to ensure the expeditious accomplishment of tasks. School heads must also have the proficiency to organise school systems in such a way that tasks and goals are accomplished efficiently, but at minimum cost.

2.6.3 Leading

Leading is a critical function in the management process. According to Bush (2007:392) there exists a strong relationship between 'leading' and 'managing' to the extent that the two concepts can be said to be inextricably interwoven. The two concepts are therefore equally important to the school head. The challenges facing schools as a result of incessant education reforms require a school manager who is not only technically competent to interpret and implement education policies but who is able to craft a vision for the school and motivate the actions of fellow subordinates to work towards school goals. Abbass (2012:114) affirms that leaders are expected to possess a hybrid of management and leadership skills that enable them to coordinate strategies and manage the performance of the organisation in a way that realises efficiency and effectiveness. This implies that ideally, a school head must of necessity be an amalgam of management and leadership skills if they are to effectively run the day-to-day activities of the school. However, although the two concepts are related, they are distinct. Ali (2013:39) makes a striking distinction between the two concepts when he states that managers derive their authority to direct subordinates from their position of power while leaders use the power of influence and motivation to appeal to their followers to work towards the goals of the organisation.

Lunenburg (2010a:4) states that leading entails guiding and influencing followers to work towards the success of the organisation. Day and Sammonds (2014:7) aptly sum up the leading role of school heads by stating that school heads are responsible for performing an array of functions. These include defining the vision, values and direction of the school; setting the right conditions for teaching and learning; reshaping the curriculum; supporting the needs of staff and motivating them to remain committed to school goals; redesigning the organisation in keeping with current trends as well as aligning roles and responsibilities and building strong relationships with students, staff and the school community.

The features of school leadership cited above clearly show that vision is a central element of the leading function. According to Hallinger (2003:336) school leaders must be able to clearly define the goals of the school and communicate them to the followers. Ndiga, Mumukha, Fedha, Ngugi & Mwalwa (2014:802) and Balyer (2012:582) aver that leaders must be change oriented. In order to effectively contribute towards change, school leaders must be able to inspire members to work collaboratively towards the goals of the organisation. In addition, leaders must also take a personal interest in the individual needs of subordinates and provide support towards their professional growth so that they are kept intrinsically motivated (Rutherford 2006:69; Lunenburg 2010b:1). School leaders must act as role models by upholding high moral standards that followers can emulate (Van Eeden, Cilliers & Van Deventer 2008:255). Lastly, school leaders must ensure that members of staff participate in decision making and that they are allowed to exercise their innovativeness and creativity. From a system perspective, school leaders must play a proactive role in the development of a school plan as well as the selection, mobilisation and deployment of resources so that the resources are directed towards the achievement of the set goals (Bastedo 2004:1). It is also important for the school head to closely monitor the activities within the school to ensure that implementation is in line with the targets set. The capacity of the school head to provide effective leadership is dependent upon their competence. Bolanle (2013:27) affirms that school heads need certain requisite skills to perform their duties with a substantial degree of competence. This fact points to the need for a training programme for newly promoted secondary school heads.

2.6.4 Controlling

Surya (2011:8) defines controlling as a management function that entails monitoring an organisation's activities to determine whether the activities are being implemented according to set plans. Controlling is a systematic approach that comprises four steps as adapted from Surya (2011:8) below:

1. Establish standards
2. Measure performance
3. Compare actual performance against set standards
4. Take corrective action

This systematic approach implies that controlling involves a process of gauging performance against set benchmarks in order to determine the remedial action that need to be taken. In addition, controlling is done to ensure that deviations from original plans are minimized and stated objectives are achieved effectively and efficiently within the set time limits. A school budget is a typical example of a form of financial control that is used to regulate expenditure in line with set plans (Olum 2004:5). The control of a school's financial resources is vital to ensure that pilferage is curtailed and that resources are directed towards financing those activities that are core to the process of teaching and learning. School heads face enormous pressure from education authorities and parents who expect them to account for expenditure of schools (Bush 2009:376), yet despite the critical importance of budgeting, newly promoted school heads are not provided with the necessary training to enable them to manage their institutions' finances.

Controlling is also used to ensure that individual and group interests are not in conflict with the goals of the organisation (Msila 2012a:26). To this end, school heads are often expected to enforce policies that regulate staff discipline and ensure commitment to duty. School heads also play a critical role in controlling staff and student behaviour and ensuring that their conduct are in keeping with the values and ethos of the school (Van Wyk & Pesler 2014:834; Samkange 2013:638). The provision of training in the relevant

statutory instruments and policies that regulate the conduct of staff and students is therefore important if school heads are to make informed disciplinary decisions that do not attract lawsuits for the school.

The school head, as an instructional leader, also plays an important role in controlling the activities of the school to ensure that they conform to the standards set by the education authorities. According to Rubin and Kazanjian (2011:94) standardisation is an approach that seeks to control educational quality by setting pre-determined policies, procedures and regulations that act as benchmarks for purposes of uniformity in all schools. The provision of education has remained under the central control of governments that determine how education should be administered (Bush 2007:391). In terms of the curriculum and the examination system, school heads have the responsibility to implement policy directives regarding the curriculum, teacher-learner ratio and testing of learners and so forth, so that the instructional processes align with set standards. Although Rubin and Kazanjian (2011:94) argue that standardisation stifles the creativity and autonomy of schools, it can be said that school heads have no option than to put in place control measures that enable their schools to operate in line with the set benchmarks. This implies that newly promoted school heads really need orientation in the matters cited above so that they will be in a position to enhance their control function as school managers.

2.7 THE NEXUS BETWEEN MANAGEMENT AND SKILLS

As has been highlighted earlier, the day-to-day responsibilities of school heads revolve around the basic management functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling. The foregoing discussion makes it apparently clear that school heads require certain skills that are critical for effective management if they are to provide sound direction to schools. Dimmock and Goh (2011:223) confirm the need for an MDP to transfer the knowledge, skills and values that are required for school heads to execute their management roles effectively. This implies that there is a nexus between the practice of management and expertise. Swanson and Holton (2001, in Germain 2012:32) define expertise as the sum

total of experience and knowledge. In terms of this definition, it can be stated that in order for school managers to execute their tasks effectively, they ought to be proficient in an array of skills that enable them to function effectively in problem solving and decision making. The inextricable connection between management practice and the skills required has led scholars and education policy makers to contend that the professional development of school heads is critically important for the achievement of quality in schools (Bush 2008:25; Ibrahim 2011:291). Given the fact that the roles of school heads have become too technical and highly complex to perform without adequate preparation, the need to prepare newly promoted school heads effectively has become an issue of top priority (Wallace 2007:5).

Bolanle (2013:27) refers to skills as the expertise that is developed within an individual as a result of training and experience. Skills are an important ingredient of effective management as the manager is expected to match the demands of tasks within the organisation. Algahtani (2014: 73) opines that an effective manager is expected to have three sets of special skills, namely technical, human and conceptual skills. Although it can be said that leaders need all the three skills, some scholars argue that conceptual skills are mainly needed by top level managers in the education system while school heads require technical and human skills (Lussier & Achua 2013:11; Olum 2004:9; Bolanle 2013:28). Lunenburg (2010:7), however, counters this assertion by arguing that the era of school-based management compels school heads to be equipped with the three sets of skills. The need for school heads to employ all the three skills at school level is even more pertinent because of the increase in accountability within schools. The dynamic changes taking place within the education sector in Zimbabwe, at a time when schools are facing reduced funding from the central fiscus, require school heads to be creative in resource mobilisation in order for schools to keep abreast with the incessant reforms.

According to Lussier and Achua (2013:10), technical skills relate to the capacity of an individual to competently exhibit knowledge of the “methods, processes, procedures and techniques” that are used to perform a task. The United States Army Leadership Guide (1983, in Sharma & Jain, 2013) emphasises the importance of the technical competence

of a leader in its list of principles of leadership. It states that there are certain things that a leader “must be, know and do” and that these things are acquired through training. The first two principles assert that leaders must seek self-improvement and aspire to be technically proficient in order for them to be able to supervise their subordinates properly. Examples of technical skills that are required by newly promoted secondary school heads include the skills to budget, write project proposals, establish community relations, do instructional supervision and interpret policy and legal documents. School heads are mandated to have a clear technical grasp of all the tasks within the school system.

Human skills refer to the interpersonal skills that enable the manager to work with others (Guerrero & Rowe 2012:82). Bolanle (2013: 27) postulates that human skills are critically important as they enable the leader to establish positive relationships that build confidence, motivation and trust among subordinates. Effective human skills make a significant contribution to optimum performance, minimum conflict and enhanced goal attainment within the school. In this regard, a leader must have an understanding of how people behave in terms of their needs and attitudes. In addition, it is also the responsibility of the leader to ensure that effective communication channels are established within the school and with other stakeholders, like the community and other technical experts that constantly interact with the school from within the Ministry of Education, or from outside the school context.

Lunenburg (2010:6) refers to conceptual skills as those skills that are based on the ability of the school leader to generate ideas and integrate them into reality. Conceptual skills also entail the ability to make sound decisions that are based on reason. According to Lussier and Achua (2013:11), conceptual skills require critical thinking and the ability to diagnose situations, analyse cases and solve problems that threaten to derail set plans within the school. School heads are expected to be creative and think strategically within the context of their schools’ environments, resources and policies. An analysis of the environment enables the school head to make informed decisions about how to provide direction, how to effectively control resources, structures and systems and how to establish standards within the organisation in a manner that enhances efficiency.

This implies that effective school heads need to be endowed with the relevant knowledge and skills to manage schools effectively. The concept of management provides sufficient conceptual grounding upon which the curriculum for a training programme for BSHs can be developed. The conceptualisation of leadership will be taken further in the next section, thereby taking the conceptualisation provided for this important management function in section 2.3.3.4 somewhat further.

2.8 LEADERSHIP

According to Pont et al (2008:23), leadership entails the process of directing and influencing subordinates to work towards the accomplishment of organisational goals. Algahtani (2014: 75) also refers to leadership as a complex and multi-functional phenomenon that can be described as:

... a behaviour, a style, a skill, a process, a responsibility, an experience, a function of management, a position of authority, an influencing relationship, a characteristic and an ability.

Bush and Glover (2003, in Bush and Glover 2014:554) also present a definition of leadership that portrays multiple dimensions of the concept:

Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision.

Based on the definitions cited above, it can be noted that leadership is mainly concerned with the aspect of influence and that it is strongly related to the concept of management. Studies have also shown that the concept of leadership is closely related to that of management (Briggs, Coleman & Morrison 2012:3). Bush (2007:392) attests that the two concepts tend to overlap with each other to the extent that they are inextricably intertwined. It can thus be said that leadership and management complement each other

as they provide a unique set of functions that are critical to the achievement of educational goals. However, despite similarities between the two terms, some scholars have also identified distinctions between them. According to Bush (2007:391), management is mainly a technical maintenance function that focuses on the day-to-day operation of the organisation while leadership is primarily concerned with how to motivate others to work. Current thinking about the perspectives of leadership states that the effectiveness of a leader is dependent upon the leader's capacity to articulate the vision of the institution and to inspire subordinates to work towards achieving set goals within the context of the dynamic changes affecting the school system.

The concept of leadership has been subjected to numerous studies since the beginning of the 20th century (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:114). A major question that has often been the focus of leadership research has been whether leaders are born (nature) or made (nurture). The nature – nurture dichotomy of leadership has been at the centre of scholarly disputation as evidenced by the development of leadership theory during the last century (Yamarino 2013:151; Bush 2008:30). Discourse on leadership theory has pointed to the evolution of leadership thinking from the traditional perception that leaders are born with inherent traits of leadership to the contemporary view that leadership is an art that can be learnt and developed through training (Amanchukwu, Stanely & Ololube 2015:9). The traditional belief that there were certain individuals that were naturally destined by birth to become leaders was perpetrated by the Great Man theory and the Trait theory (Amanchukwu et al 2015:8; Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:118). The Great Man theory sought to portray leadership as a trait that was mythic and divinely ordained while the trait theory was based on the assumption that leaders were born with certain intrinsic traits that separated them from the average person. Studies have shown that leaders possess common personality traits, such as intelligence, self-confidence, aggressiveness, innovativeness and persistence (Germaine 2012: 33). There is, however, another body of knowledge that emerged and established that the combination of personality traits that were perceived to be exclusively common among leaders were also inherent among non-leaders. This discovery exposed a major shortfall of the trait approach. This drove scholars to conclude that the relationship between leadership traits

and successful leadership was not based on standard traits that characterised leaders. In fact, this realisation brought a new dimension to the entire conceptualisation of leadership as it was now ascertained that every individual had the potential to become a leader. This compelled scholars to shift from the trait-based perception of leadership to a new view that sought to explain leadership on the basis of what leaders do. The behavioural theory of leadership, as it came to be known, was guided by research findings that were derived from two important studies – the Ohio Studies and the Michigan Studies of the 1940s and the 1950s respectively (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:129; Robbins & Coulter 2009:61). The two studies concluded that there were certain specific behaviours that characterised the way leaders responded to situations within organisations. According to these studies, leadership behaviour manifested itself in the form of two sets of behaviours that underlined the disposition of leaders. It was concluded that leaders were either task oriented or people oriented. Task oriented leaders had an affinity for organisational control and tended to concentrate on the maintenance of organisational structure and operations although they also had a substantial regard for subordinates. Leaders who were people oriented tended to be more focused on motivating employees and maintaining good relations with them than focusing on organisational tasks.

The Michigan Studies are also significant in that they ushered in a new dimension to the concept of leadership, namely that of participative leadership (Mullins 2010:380; Smit, Cronje, Brevis & Vrba 2011:36). The studies averred that effective leadership was dependent on the capacity of the leader to allow for the democratic participation of employees in the identification of goals, the development of strategies and the overall decision-making process within the organisation. Participative leadership entails that the leader acknowledges the professional competences of the employees and that they provide room for creativity and professional growth. This implies that school leaders need to have insight into the notion of distributive leadership approaches as they foster a collaborative work culture and team work within the school (Harris 2004:12).

The behaviour focused approach to leadership represents a departure from the traditional view that leaders are born to the contemporary perception that leaders can be made by

training them to obtain certain skills that would enable them to behave appropriately within the organisations they lead. This view supports the nurture perspective of leadership that argues that every individual has the potential to develop leadership skills (Sharma & Jain 2013: 310). It also supports the underlying premise of this study that new school heads need to be appropriately trained for their new posts.

The skills theory can also be relied upon to explain the close connection between leadership and expertise. Amanchukwu et al (2015:10) assert that learned knowledge and acquired skills are significant factors in the practice of effective leadership. There is empirical evidence to show that effective leadership is dependent upon the capacity of the individual leader to use qualities of managerial competence, knowledge of the job, skills and proficiency in decision making and problem solving in the execution of their leadership functions (Bolanle 2013:27). From a skills perspective, it is quite apparent that the nexus between leadership and skills is indispensable as successful leaders require an array of technical, interpersonal and conceptual skills (Lussier & Achua 2013:11). This presents a strong case for education systems to direct resources towards the leadership training and development of BSSHs.

According to Smith and Bell (2011:58) an ideal leader should be one who is capable of using different leadership styles as and when they are appropriate to match the varied contingent situations within the school. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008:136) and Bello (2015:185) no one leadership style is generic for all situations. This is because the school is a complex and dynamic organisation comprising a coalition of different interest groups and individuals who are in competition and in cooperation with each other as they pursue to reach a variety of ends (Flessa 2009:332). It therefore takes a good leader to be able to influence and harness the efforts of subordinates with divergent interests to work towards the realisation of common goals. Leadership should therefore be viewed as a dynamic process in which a leader seeks the collaboration and commitment of all group members towards achieving group goals within an organisation. Without the use of proper leadership approaches, effective and efficient management cannot be realised in schools. School leaders are therefore supposed to be well

acquainted with the appropriate traits that enable them to provide visionary, instructional and transformational leadership to the school.

Discourse on leadership has pointed to the existence of several typologies of leadership that are critical for the execution of daily functions within the school. Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbach (1999 in Bush 2007:394) identified six leadership models which included components of instructional, transformational, transactional, and contingency leadership.

2.8.1 Instructional leadership

Numerous studies that have been undertaken on school leadership have asserted that the practice of school leadership manifests itself, in large measure, in the form of instructional leadership (Lunenburg 2010b:1; Shava 2015:26). This implies that the role of the school head is mainly instruction oriented as the former are mainly pre-occupied with the task of overseeing the process of teaching and learning within the school. The predominance of the instructional function in the overall scope of school leadership is clearly stipulated by Hallinger's (2003:332) three dimensional model (Ayiro 2014:28). According to the model, instructional leadership entails defining the school mission and communicating the school goals to all stakeholders. In addition, the instructional leader is expected to effectively plan, coordinate and evaluate the implementation of the curriculum as well as monitor student progress in order to attain desirable learner outcomes. Thirdly, an effective instructional leader should play a leading role in setting a positive teaching and learning environment and in the process, "protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers and providing incentives for learning" (Ayiro 2014:28).

There has been debate regarding what constitutes instructional leadership. The traditional view of instructional leadership was mainly concerned with the direct involvement of the school head in the day-to-day classroom activities. Focus was particularly concentrated on classroom observations and the provision of guidance to teaching staff on matters of instruction. This approach to instructional leadership was overly principal centred and it

portrayed the school head as a heroic figure who was an all-round instructional expert while heads of department and teachers were perceived as largely dependent on the former for instructional guidance (Lashway 2002:3). An examination of the traditional approach to instructional leadership clearly shows that its major weakness was that it only focused on a single element of the broader spectrum of roles that school heads are expected to play as instructional leaders. The traditional approach tended to view the role of the instructional leader within the context of the classroom, yet research has shown that the role of the school extends beyond classroom observations. The study by Bendikson et al (2012:4) of the instructional leadership of secondary school heads avers that instructional leadership can be both direct and indirect, which implies that the instructional leadership functions of the school head can be exerted beyond the classroom. Direct instructional leadership entails that the school head is mainly focused on presiding over the quality of teaching and learning whereas indirect instructional leadership focuses more on the need to create optimum conditions that culminate in instructional improvement and overall learner achievement (Lunenburg 2010b:1). An overview of these two forms of instructional leadership clearly shows that indirect instructional leadership is to a larger extent practically applicable to secondary schools. This is largely because secondary schools are departmentalised and the organisational structure is such that teachers are directly supervised by HODs. While this arrangement does not effectively recuse the school head from the responsibility of supervising classroom instruction, it implies that the greater part of the school head's time is spent setting the norms, routines and other activities necessary for learner achievement like timetabling, staffing, resource allocation and providing professional development opportunities for staff. The distribution of instructional responsibilities across the school system is a major hallmark that helps to foster a culture of collaboration that leads to improved instruction (Lunenburg 2010b:2).

Lashway (2002:2) and Lunenburg (2010:1) argue that school leaders are under increasing accountability pressure to provide tangible evidence of learner achievement. This pressure has intensified because the quality of instructional leaders is now being measured on the basis of set assessment standards. It can therefore be said that the

school head has a wider instructional role to play in ensuring learner achievement. According to Bendikson et al (2012:5), the contemporary view of instructional leadership focuses on the school head's capacity to create a culture of teaching and learning and being able to organise structures within the school that support effective learning. Huber (2004:27) accentuates this view by stating that the quality of instruction depends on the capacity of school heads to provide guidance to teaching staff on issues of instruction. Besides, the school head must have concern over, and provide motivation and opportunities for teachers.

From a systems theory perspective, an effective instructional leader must be proficient in the selection of appropriate inputs that are required within the school as well as being able to set the optimum conditions within the school for effective learning to take place. Bastedo (2004:1) states that an understanding of the environment in which a school operates is very crucial in determining inputs such as the curriculum and resources needed in the instructional process. The quality of teaching is affected by the way the school head recruits high quality, competent teachers, deploys them within the school and positively motivates them to improve on the quality of instruction. In addition, the school head must possess the skills and attributes that enable them to be directly involved in the procurement of instructional material and educational technology. They must also be able to adjust the curriculum in keeping with the prevailing environment and to align the process of instruction with the set assessment standards. It is also important that school heads must have the competence to collect data from multiple sources such as central government, the community, school records and other significant stakeholders. They should also be able to analyse such data for purposes of decision making and performance monitoring. Data about school outputs, for example pass rates, rate of expenditure, drop-out rate, teacher turnover and community relations can be very useful in monitoring overall school success and where possible, such data can be relied upon to make adjustments across the school system. The other competences that are pertinent to an instructional leader include being able to develop and implement a budgetary plan and also to ensure that the distribution of resources within the school is done in a manner that helps to improve the quality of instruction. This view is corroborated by Shava

(2015:27) who avers that the core purpose of the school head is to provide leadership in a manner that creates an enabling environment within which effective teaching and learning can take place.

An analysis of the expectations of effective instructional leadership clearly shows that the practice of instructional leadership requires complex skills. Education policy makers share general consensus that instructional leadership is a critical skill for school heads, yet most heads lack sufficient training in this important aspect. This underscores the need for preparation programmes that can help school leaders “to develop a vision, develop a comprehensive professional growth plan, provide effective instructional programmes and apply best practices to student learning” (Lashway 2002:2). The need for training of school heads on instructional leadership is even more critical in the Zimbabwean education system if Mapolisa and Tshabalala’s (2013:354) research findings are anything to go by. They argue that school heads lack the necessary skills to provide instructional leadership to the extent that they require training in order for them to improve on their competences. Nyagura and Reece (1989 in Muranda, Tshabalala & Gazimbe (2015:2) also contend that secondary school heads encounter a number of challenges in executing their roles as instructional leaders. The major explanation given for the high level of instructional incompetence was that the secondary school curriculum was multi-disciplinary and diverse to the extent that school heads who specialised in a non-technical subject experienced difficulties providing instructional leadership in technical subjects. In this regard, it can be said that the problem could be more pronounced among BSSHs who lack the requisite instructional supervisory experience that is required to improve teaching and learning. This provides a strong case for the provision of training on complex instructional issues for beginning school heads as a way of ensuring overall instructional improvement.

2.8.2 Transformational leadership

Several studies have interrogated the value of transformational leadership to the field of education (Hallinger 2003:329; Pokharel 2014:62). Empirical evidence attests to the

existence of a link between effective school leadership and school success. The correlation between the two has had a significant impact on education policy makers' perceptions regarding the view that leadership skills can be taught in MDPs that are specially designed for newly promoted school heads (Pokharel 2014:62). The following question has, however, been asked: What are the kinds of leadership abilities that school heads require to provide sound leadership to schools? In an attempt to answer this question, it can be said that the increasingly complex and dynamic changes that have affected the school system have exacerbated the demand for a more appropriate leadership model that can stand up to the challenges posed by educational reforms in schools (Balyer 2012:581). This has led to calls for a shift from traditional leadership approaches to sophisticated leadership models that enable school heads to deal proficiently with the rigours associated with their job. Education policy makers increasingly accept that transformational leadership is one such leadership model that can be taught to beginning school heads in order to influence improved performance in schools (Pokharel 2014:63).

Transformational leadership can be defined as a process in which leaders influence followers to participate collaboratively towards the realisation of the goals of the organisation (Pokharel 2014: 62). This view is also corroborated by Hallinger (2003:338) who states that transformational leadership is a form of shared leadership in which leaders employ the key elements of influence, inspiration and motivation to harness the efforts of followers towards the common goal.

The model of transformational leadership is based on four components: individualised consideration, idealised influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:151 Pokharel 2014: 62; Van Eeden et al 2008:255). Individualised consideration entails that the leader understands the individual needs of the members of staff and provides support to deal with such needs. The transformational leader also creates good relationships within the school community in order to promote sound communication and the sharing of ideas among members. Idealised influence refers to the leadership attribute when the leader exerts influence upon the subordinates

through leading by example. Research has shown that leaders who are capable of commanding the trust and respect of their followers are those who are morally upright and who can present themselves as good role models (Ndiga et al 2014: 802). In terms of intellectual stimulation, the transformational leader challenges subordinates to generate innovative ideas that seek to solve problems bedeviling the school. Followers are also empowered to participate in the decision-making process, which supports the establishment of multiple sources of leadership within the school (Hallinger 2003:338). The recognition of individual leadership abilities among members of staff conforms to the concept of departmentalisation that characterises the structure of secondary schools, which requires a team approach to leadership. In addition, there is also a need for a leader to recognise the principle of specialisation by acknowledging that teachers who are trained in an area of specialisation deserve to be recognised as leaders in their own right. The last attribute of transformational leadership is inspirational motivation. This entails the capacity of the leader to envision the future of the organisation and being able to influence followers to set aside their individual expectations and work towards the realisation of the organisation's goals.

Leithwood and Jantzi (2005 in Ayiro 2014:29) aptly presented a model that provides a summary of the major attributes of a transformational leader within a school. According to the model, the transformational leader is supposed to: *set direction* by developing a school vision, set goals and communicate them clearly to followers; *develop people/followers'* capacities by attending to their needs and providing support for professional growth; *re-design* the organisation through the establishment of a collaborative work culture in which all members participate in the process of decision making and contribute towards goal achievement; *manage the instructional programme* of the school through the establishment of activities, systems and procedures that foster change.

Based on the above, it is quite apparent that leadership is an important factor that determines school success. In this regard, leaders of education systems accept that there

is a need to provide training and support to beginning school heads on transformational leadership.

2.8.3 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is a form of leadership that has been regarded as a model that has a strong resemblance with management (Bush 2007:395; Amanchukwu et al 2015:8). This is because, like management, transactional leadership focuses on the supervision and control of the daily functions, tasks and behaviours of subordinates. Hallinger (2003:338) states that transactional leadership focuses on maintaining the status quo and achieving compliance with set policies and performance benchmarks. This implies that compliance is a major feature of transactional leadership if the role of school head is to be viewed within the context of national standards, accountability pressures and the hierarchy of authority characterising the education system (Smith & Bell 2011:61).

Avci (2015:2760) postulates that transactional leadership is based on the conceptualisation of formal authority within the organisational hierarchy. It also entails that leaders maintain an exchange relationship with subordinates that is based on rewards and punishment. In terms of rewards, the transactional leader clearly outlines the expectations of the organisation and the set targets that subordinates are supposed to achieve in exchange for rewards or punishment. Transactional leadership also works on the basis of the principle of management-by-exception. This is a process in which the transactional leader monitors the activities within the organisation to ensure that there is no deviation from standard practice.

An analysis of the transactional model of leadership clearly shows that it is highly mechanistic and relies heavily on existing policies, procedures and standards governing the practice of education. Smith and Bell (2011:61) contend that the conservative nature of the transactional model renders it less reliable as an approach to achieve change. Some scholars, however, argue that transactional leadership is important in that it enables the establishment of formal authority and the enforcement of compliance within

schools. Compliance is critically essential in an education setting where homogeneity and standardisation are expected from one school to the other.

In this regard, it is crucially important for BSSHs to attain the necessary skills that enable them to undertake certain roles, such as goal setting, performance-based management, the interpretation of policies and procedures.

2.9 LEADERSHIP AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS

There exist varied positions among researchers regarding the definition of school effectiveness. Saleem, Naseem, Ibrahim, Hussain and Azeem (2012:242) opine that school effectiveness refers to those conditions that enhance the capacity of the school to achieve its set goals and objectives. Pretorius (2014:51) attests that the most widely acceptable definition of school effectiveness points to a school "in which students' progress further than might be expected". Botha (2010:607) brings a new dimension to the definition of school effectiveness by postulating that it is measured on the basis of the ratio of outputs to inputs and processes. This implies that school effectiveness can be understood from the perspective of the systems theory in which the level of output is determined on the basis of inputs and process factors within the context of the environment. It should also be noted that the definition is based on the education production function in which the product is measured on the basis of rate of return or value for money (Botha 2010:607). Despite the variations in these definitions, they, however, find commonality in that school effectiveness deals with issues of goal realisation, value addition and learner attainment.

Earlier studies within the school effectiveness movement, particularly the Coleman Report of the 1960s, had erroneously concluded that the student's socio-economic status and family background had a bearing on the level of achievement (Pretorius 2014:53; Scheerens 2004:1). Further studies have, however, established that, to the contrary, certain school factors contribute towards learner achievement and school effectiveness in general. This implies that there are certain correlates of school effectiveness that can

influence equal opportunities for student learning regardless of differences in socio-economic background. Pretorius (2014:53) makes reference to the five-factor model that provides a list of the major correlates of effective schools. According to the model, the main determinants of school effectiveness are: strong administrative leadership; basic skill acquisition; high expectations for student achievement; a safe and orderly atmosphere conducive for learning; and frequent monitoring of student progress.

The correlates outlined in the five-factor model clearly echo the long held view among researchers that there is a relationship between strong leadership and school effectiveness (Shava 2015:27; Saunders & Stockton 2005:6). Bush (2008:6) also corroborates this view by positing that:

... outstanding leadership has invariably emerged as a key characteristic of outstanding schools. There can no longer be doubt that those seeking quality in education must ensure its presence and that the development of potential leaders must be given high priority.

The United Kingdom's National College for School Leadership (NCSL) (2001:5 in Bush 2008:7) also states that:

The evidence on school effectiveness and improvement during the last 15 years has consistently shown the pivotal role of effective leadership in securing high quality provision and high standards ... effective leadership are a key to both continuous improvement and major system transformation.

Findings of studies that were carried out in several countries have also proved that successful schools were linked with competent and sound leadership while failure in schools often correlated with inadequate leadership (Huber 2004:1). According to Leithwood et al (2006:4) leadership is ranked second only to classroom teaching in terms of its influence on learner learning, as stated before, and that it accounts for a significant difference in levels of learner achievement across schools.

Research that has been undertaken to establish the causes of school failure has cited “lack of vision, dysfunctional staff relationships and ineffective classroom practices as the factors that contribute to the deterioration of school effectiveness” (Saleem et al 2012:243). Cases of dysfunctional schools have also been recorded in studies that were carried out in South Africa (Pretorius 2014:55) and it was established that the problems affecting these schools were attributable to inappropriate monitoring, lack of instructional leadership and an unhealthy school climate. Such schools were largely characterised by low morale, absenteeism, poor discipline and a lack of high expectation of learner achievement.

In Zimbabwe, the worst cases of underperforming schools have been cited in the provinces of Matabeleland South and Matabeleland North. According to the *Sunday News* of 17 August, 2014, secondary schools in the two provinces had over the past years been recording poor Ordinary Level results. A total of 20 secondary schools in Matabeleland South and 15 in Matabeleland North had recorded a zero per cent pass rate. The Zimbabwe Schools Development Association of Committees (ZSDA/C) called for underperforming school heads to be fired because they were failing to adapt to the demands of the new education dispensation. This implies that in their perception effective school leadership has a significant influence on the success of the school and learner achievement.

In view of the fact that school leadership plays a pivotal role in enhancing school effectiveness and that the school head is the driving force behind the school improvement process, it has become imperative that they are provided with the appropriate knowledge and skills to effectively prepare them for the demanding tasks of headship.

Evidence, such as the above, provides testimony that there is a growing realisation that school heads should not only be competent, but that they should be able to cope with the ever-changing demands and complexities of the world.

School effectiveness is also linked to the notion of school improvement. Saunders and Stockton (2005:8) refer to school improvement as an approach that focuses on achieving better learning results and strengthening the school's ability to adapt to change. School improvement is a key driver of school effectiveness. It entails a process of introducing reforms within the school that contribute to the realisation of improved learner outcomes. In fact, school improvement involves the implementation of changes in the structure, design and organisation of the school in order to align it to its future goals. Saunders and Stockton (2005:8) aptly note that the change processes related to school improvement are school led rather than prescribed by education authorities. In this regard, the school head therefore plays a crucial role in providing astute leadership required to drive the school improvement agenda. In order for schools to improve, school heads must be endowed with certain knowledge and skills that would enable them to push the school improvement agenda proficiently. Lussier and Achua (2013:11) state that leaders require a set of skills ranging from diagnostic, technical and conceptual skills that would enable them to perform their functions properly.

2.10 PROMOTION OF SCHOOL HEADS

School heads in Zimbabwe are promoted from the ranks of senior teachers (Mapolisa & Tshabalala 2013:353; Shava 2015:33). Research has shown that the way school heads are promoted in Zimbabwe generally resembles practices elsewhere in other African education systems (Bush & Oduro 2006:262; Wamba 2015:120) in which the promotion criteria is based on a good teaching record, a teaching qualification and a relevant first degree. This implies that no formal training is provided to newly promoted secondary school heads to effectively initiate the newly promoted school heads into their new roles (Ashu 2014:4; Bush 2008:27).

Eligible candidates for the post of headship enter into the post of headship at the lowest entry level of deputy head. The incumbents are then expected to rise through the ranks, over time, until they reach the highest grade level of School Head. At face value, the impression that one gets is that the promotion system allows for an apprenticeship

approach in which newly promoted incumbents, at the level of deputy head, are placed and nurtured under the tutelage of experienced school heads within the schools to which they are deployed. In practical terms, this is not the case. In fact, there are very few individuals that are promoted to the post of deputy head and get posted to schools with substantive school heads who are technically competent to provide mentorship to them. Rather, the majority of these incumbents are promoted and deployed to superintend over fully fledged schools, especially in the rural areas. This situation is a culmination of the acute shortage of school heads owing to the proliferation of schools in the post-independent expansion of education and the land reform programme that ensued. Despite the fact that these incumbents are novices, they are expected to execute the same management and leadership roles as their experienced counterparts (Muranda et al 2015:2). This creates a serious management challenge as the newly promoted deputy heads tend to be overwhelmed by the complex leadership tasks that they are expected to perform without prior training (Kariuki, Majau, Mungiria & Nkonge 2012:46).

In cases where newly promoted incumbents (at the level of deputy head) are deployed to schools with experienced school heads, one would expect that they are nurtured by their experienced superiors. Rather, the micro-politics at play within the schools do not often provide an enabling environment for collaboration between school head and the deputy head (Flessa 2009:340). Power relations within the school are often of a mutually suspicious and antagonistic nature to the extent that it could be difficult for the newly promoted incumbent to be initiated by the incumbent's superior. Salahuddin (2012:51) argues that the traditional hierarchy of leadership in schools entails that power is centred within the school head. In this regard, school heads often pursue a heroic form of leadership that compels them to want to work alone. Resultantly, the involvement of deputy heads in decision making, let alone in the overall management of the school, is very limited to the extent that they learn very little during their formative tour of duty. The professional socialisation of newly promoted school deputy heads can therefore not be the responsibility of the experienced school heads within the schools without a formal training programme.

2.11 ROLE OF SCHOOL HEADS

The role of school heads is well documented. Empirical evidence attests to the fact that the role of the school head has significantly expanded during the latter half of the 20th century (Hallinger & Huber 2012:2; Bush 2008). The devolution of the management of schools to the school level contributed to the increase in the responsibilities of school heads. The expansion of roles was also exacerbated by the dynamic education reforms that completely redefined the practices and processes in schools. Bush (2008:28) states that the expanded role of school heads has resulted in them assuming an array of new responsibilities such as financial management and staffing.

Caldwell (1992, in Bush 2008:12) cites the critical functions associated with school heads in the context of school-based management. The functions are cited as goal setting, needs identification, priority setting, planning, budgeting, implementing and evaluating.

It is quite apparent that these functions are mainly managerial in outlook. There is no doubt that newly promoted school heads require sufficient training in order for them to execute these functions competently. Day and Sammonds (2014:12) have, however, argued that the inventory of functions cited above largely focuses on maintenance activities that seek to sustain the status quo while implementing directives from central government. Rather, the element of vision which is critically important for providing schools with a road map into the future, should also be part of the functions of school heads.

The Vacancy Announcement Number 32 of 2014 cites an array of duties and responsibilities that a secondary school head is expected to perform in Zimbabwe. The duties and responsibilities are listed as follows:

1. Assume ultimate responsibility for the overall management and operation of the school in accordance with law, administrative code and school policies and regulations.

2. Ensure the correct interpretation and implementation of curriculum and syllabuses.
3. Develop, refine and propagate the vision, mission and goals of the school.
4. Determine standards and take appropriate steps to measure and maintain reasonable performance and professional growth of subordinates
5. Maintain personal contact with all school staff members, fostering good public relations, promoting high morale, and identifying personnel problems as early as possible.
6. Develop and implement procedures for tracking student progress and intervening early when concerns are identified.
7. Conduct frequent classroom observations to analyse instruction and supervise staff to ensure continuous improvement in teaching and learning.
8. Prepare annual budget proposal for submission to the SDA with the assistance of the SDA Treasurer.
9. Align the use of time, people, money, and materials to the school's instructional priorities.
10. Encourage meaningful alumni, parent and past parent participation in events that aid and support the goals of the school.
11. Manage fundraising efforts by articulating the goals for which funds are being raised.
12. Monitor cultural trends in the school – correcting negating trends and inspiring positive cultural growth.
13. Maintain accurate personnel records by overseeing procedures and practices resulting in consistent and meaningful records being kept.
14. Serve as an ex-officio member of the SDA.
15. Exercise authority over the behaviour and conduct of pupils, professional and non-professional employees, visitors and any other persons using the school.
16. Prepare or supervise the creation of reports, records and other paperwork as required by stakeholders.
17. Develop the school calendar in partnership with stakeholders.

18. Discuss the child's individual development and progress and assist parents in developing observational skills and solicit parent observations.
19. Meet with education specialists to discuss special needs of children.
20. Maintain excellent relationships with parents, teachers, support staff, students, SDA and District offices.
21. Keep authorities fully informed of critical needs as they affect educational operations.
22. Establish a collegial environment that honours and encourages students and staff's continuous learning.

An analysis of the duties and responsibilities of the school head clearly shows that these include inter alia budgeting, instructional leadership, discipline, reporting, community relations, asset management, procurement and performance management. The execution of these responsibilities requires a high level of technical competence (Lussier & Achua 2013:10), which newly promoted school heads can only achieve through training during the first two years after appointment. A study of the challenges faced by BSSHs points to the problem that newly promoted incumbents are simply thrown into their positions without adequate preparation.

2.12 CHALLENGES FACED BY BEGINNING SCHOOL HEADS

Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997 in Bush & Oduro 2006:360) postulate that the challenges school heads in western countries have to face are totally different from the problems that school heads experience in Africa. Although divergences exist between challenges of school heads in the two regions, research has, however, also shown that many problems facing school heads are largely of a common nature in different countries (Sulemain 2015:91; Hobson, Brown, Ashby, Keys, Sharp & Benefield 2003:2; Mapolisa, Ncube, Tshabalala & Khosa 2014:1; Asuga, Eacott & Scevak 2014:356).

Beginning school heads face daunting challenges largely because the environment in which they are expected to function is characterised by a lot of dynamism and

complexities. Education systems often experience incessant reforms that are driven by the politics of the day and changes in the socio-cultural set-up (Cheung & Walker, 2006:391). Daresh and Male (2000:91) state that the introduction of reforms in the education sector has significantly affected the role of the school head as well as the practices and processes in schools. Crow (2006:313) asserts that the advent of globalisation and technological advancement has placed more demands on the repertoire of skills expected of school heads. The new technological dispensation requires school heads not only to be innovative but to be able to adjust the instructional processes to ensure that relevant curricula are taught in schools. In addition, societies have developed high expectations about the performance of the school head across the spectrum of tasks that exist within the school. Consequently, this has increased the levels of accountability among school heads to communities, a thing which has added to the complexity of the job.

In view of the ever-changing and increasing responsibilities thrust upon school heads and the complexities associated with the environment in which they function, there is a compelling case for education authorities to effectively prepare school heads for these tasks (Shava 2015:32). School heads play a pivotal role in enhancing school effectiveness and learner achievement and as such, they are expected to have the knowledge and expertise to execute their roles proficiently.

In Africa, very little formal training is provided to prepare individuals for the post of leadership (Bush & Oduro 2006:362). Studies carried out by Asuga et al (2014:356) in Kenya confirm this view by stating that school heads are traditionally appointed from the ranks of senior teachers without any specific leadership preparation and development. This view is also supported by Bush and Oduro (2006:360) who indicate that there is no induction and support for novice school heads. This implies that individuals appointed to the post of school head depend on their own conception of roles of headship emanating from the leadership experiences that they gained as teachers (Crow 2006:317). Teachers gain this experience by observing the incumbent head at work and by performing certain administrative tasks as and when they are delegated to them. Such experience, however,

is not sufficient to provide beginning school heads with the necessary skills to perform their duties effectively. Unless novice school heads are effectively prepared, their prospects of becoming successful in the formative stages of their headship are low as they are left to either 'swim' or 'sink' on their own (Mukhtarova 2013:82). Daresh and Playko (1994 in Walker & Qian 2006:301) have recorded cases of school heads who have complained of being abandoned immediately after being appointed and that education authorities hardly take an interest in them until there are problems in their schools. Under these circumstances, it is quite apparent that beginning school heads are bound to encounter serious challenges.

In order to fully establish the challenges facing beginning school heads, it is important to first gain an understanding of the context within which they work. Maringe and Moletsane (2015:357) argue that the major challenge facing most school heads is that they operate in schools affected by multiple deprivation. This dire situation typifies most secondary schools in Zimbabwe as they are located in rural areas that are characterised by severe poverty, inadequate resources, political violence and high community interference in the affairs of the school (Zikhali & Perumal 2016:2).

The rigours associated with the post of headship are mainly pronounced in the first few years of the position (Walker & Qian 2006:298; Weindling & Dimmock 2006:326). The first year of headship is one of the most challenging periods in the school head's career. During this period, the school head experiences transitional shock (Walker & Qian 2006:301) and is gripped with fear, anxiety, anticipation and excitement emanating from the uncertainties associated with the new post. Saunders and Stockton (2005: 9) state that newly promoted school heads face a problem of socialisation as they encounter difficulties in adapting to the culture of the particular school. This view is also supported by Bush, Kiggundu and Moorosi (2011:32) who aver that school heads often experience a culture shock during the transition from being a teacher to being a school head. This implies that beginning school heads require some form of initiation regarding the knowledge, values and behaviours required to perform their roles effectively.

A study carried out by Hobson et al (2003:2) for the National College of School Leadership (NCSL) cited numerous challenges newly promoted school heads had to face. The novice heads encountered such challenges as feelings of professional isolation, failure to rise to the level of competence of their predecessors and an inability to manage time and deal with multiple tasks. The study also concluded that in the beginning school heads had problems with managing the school budget, supervising staff, implementing government policies and maintaining school infrastructure.

Walker and Qian (2006:301) also point to several problems that school heads encounter. One of the major problems that have been cited has been that of role clarification. This implies that novice heads fail to make sense of their new roles and how to execute their authority. In addition, they also lack the technical expertise to undertake their leadership roles effectively. Lastly, beginning school heads face difficulties emanating from a lack of socialisation into the profession. As a result of this, they were thrust into the position of leadership without the necessary guidance, a thing that would compel them to execute their tasks on a trial and error basis.

Studies carried out by Beycioglu and Wildy (2015:2) in Turkey indicate that novice school heads encountered challenges such as:

leading and managing staff, professional knowledge, use of resources, self-efficacy, school community relations, issues related to the system they are in (and) leading learning processes in schools.

Other challenges affecting beginning school heads that have been documented include lack of technical expertise in staffing, resource mobilisation, learner and staff discipline, infrastructure management, team work, budgeting and management of finances; poor staff morale, isolation and difficulties with adjusting into the new school community (Sulemain 2015:92; Ng 2015:368).

Although the difficulties encountered by beginning school heads in other countries are well documented, there is limited literature about the same on Zimbabwe. Cases of

incompetence in financial and human resources management have been reported among school heads in Zimbabwe (Mapolisa, Ncube, Tshabalala & Khosa 2014:1; Tshabalala et al 2014:3). In addition, beginning school heads have raised complaints regarding increased workloads as they have often been unable to balance administrative work with their instructional leadership roles. Cases of poor relations with communities and uncooperative parents have also been cited as sources of difficulty for beginning school heads (Hobson et al 2003:83).

The insights above provide a pattern depicting the common challenges that beginning school heads face. It is quite evident that in the absence of the effective preparation of beginning school heads, the difficulties they encounter have a detrimental effect on their efficient performance as school leaders. These problems should be of concern to education policy makers since they affect the realisation of education goals in schools. School leaders should be effectively prepared for the post of headship so that they acquire the necessary knowledge and skills that are required to deal with these challenges.

2.13 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on the conceptualisation of the concepts of management and leadership in education. Attention was given to the interrogation of management and leadership theory with a view to determining the major management and leadership functions that are critical for the provision of effective school leadership. The chapter also sought to unravel the correlation between sound leadership and school effectiveness. It emerged from the literature study that effective leadership is a critical ingredient of successful schools.

The chapter presented an outline of the roles of school heads as viewed against the background of the challenges that BSSHs encounter during the early years of headship. In view of the complex challenges of globalisation, incessant education reforms and the broadened array of responsibilities of school heads as outlined in the Vacancy Announcement Number 32 of 2014, the literature study has shown that school heads

require certain skills that are critical for the effective management of schools. It is quite apparent, from the study, that there is a connection between sound leadership and the preparation of school heads. In the absence of the adequate preparation of BSSHs, they struggle to cope with the complex tasks associated with their profession during the first two years after appointment.

The next chapter reviews literature on the preparation of newly promoted school heads. It also examines models of leadership development for school heads that have been implemented in other countries.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL CONTEXTUALISATION OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a review of the theoretical and conceptual framework underlying the notion of school management and leadership development was undertaken in order to situate the research within the context of the body of knowledge on school management. This chapter focuses on the rationale for the professional development of newly promoted secondary school heads and discusses the theoretical framework that informs the design, content and process of management development programmes (MDP) for beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs). Such a discussion is appropriate as it may provide a deeper understanding of the key concepts and principles that relate to the development of a curriculum for newly promoted secondary school heads.

3.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR BSSH

The theoretical framework that informs the MDP for BSSHs will be based on the social constructivist theory of learning, particularly Etienne Wenger's social learning theory and Levi Vygotsky's social development theory. These two theories have been considered to be appropriate for this study because they provide the researcher with a conceptual understanding of the psychology of learning that helps to explain the approaches that could be used to impart the knowledge, experiences and skills required for newly promoted secondary school heads. In addition, the two theories will also be relied upon to provide insight into the modalities that deal with the design, selection of content and implementation of an MDP for BSSHs.

The social constructivist theory of learning posits that human beings construct knowledge as they interact with the environment (Eloff & Ebersohn 2004:24). The major view

espoused by this paradigm is that learning occurs in a social and cultural context in which participants acquire knowledge through collaboration and active participation. This means that learners are therefore responsible for their own learning as they derive meaning from experiences that they acquire within a social setting. The instructor simply plays the role of a facilitator by creating the appropriate environment for learning as well as providing support to the learner. As stated previously, attention will be given to the socio-cultural view of learning as propounded by Etienne Wenger (Wenger 2000:226) and Levi Vygotsky (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:73).

3.2.1 The social learning theory

The social learning theory is the brainchild of Etienne Wenger. According to this theory learning is a social process in which knowledge, skills and attitudes are acquired through interaction within a social learning system (Wenger 2000:226). The theory also asserts that the construction of knowledge occurs naturally within a given context and culture. The major tenet of the social learning theory is the notion of the community of practice (CoP). According to Wenger (2000:229) and Tight (2000:117) CoPs are age-old phenomena in which people involved in a common craft or practice interact within their communities to share knowledge and expertise. Members within a specific community define the knowledge that is specific to their community and develop concepts, models and language that are peculiar to that trade and which are then shared among members. Participation in the community helps members not only to share ideas and experiences but to define the real competences that characterise a particular profession.

Wenger (2000:227) avers that a CoP is primarily focused on learning through a process of engagement. There are four elements that define the process of learning within a CoP and these are **community**, **identity**, **meaning** and **practice** as shown in figure 3.1.

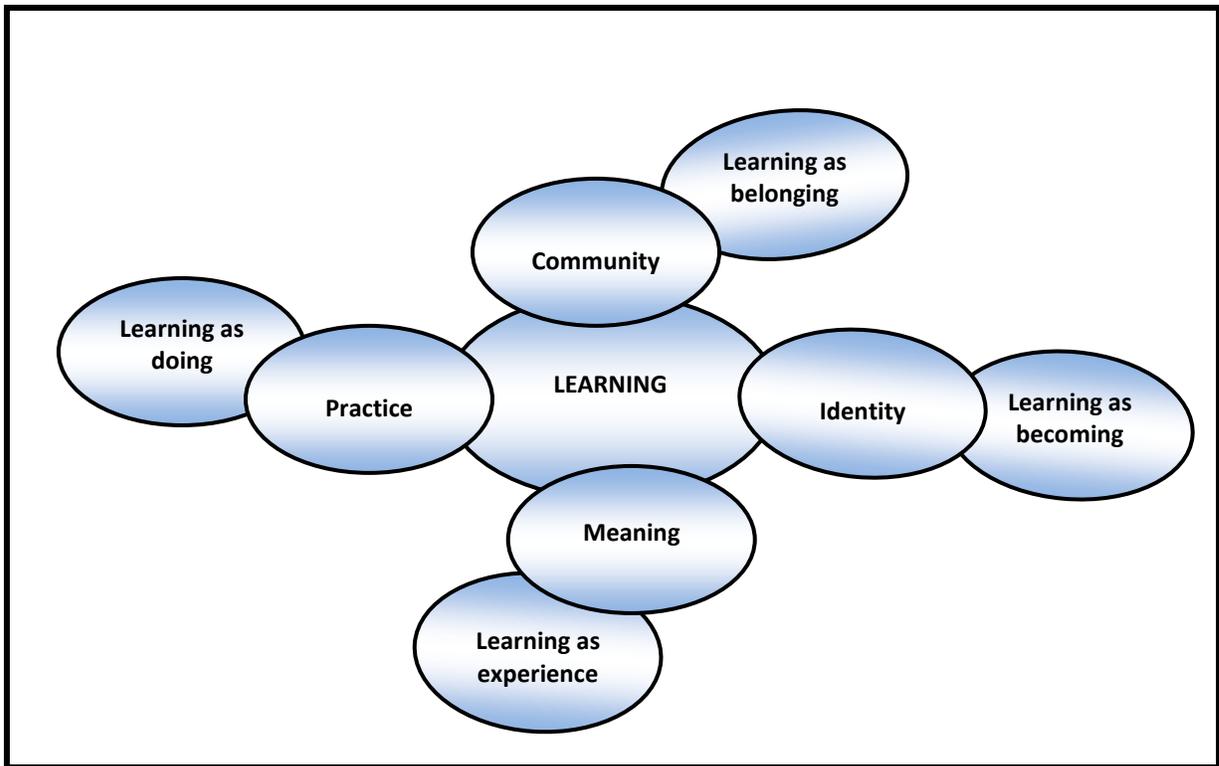


Figure 3.1: The four elements of Wenger’s concept of CoP

Adapted from Wenger (1998:5)

3.2.1.1 Community

The term ‘community’ refers to a group of people who subscribe to a common craft or practice and who are bound by a sense of belonging and shared purpose (Cox 2005:535; Kimble & Hildreth 2005:103). In terms of the definition cited above, the term ‘community’ is used to denote the relationships that emerge around a practice. Members within a CoP engage in joint activities and share information and experiences, particular to their trade, among themselves. According to Wenger and Snyder (2000: 141), a central feature of the CoP is its capacity to transmit professional skills and best practices among members. This implies that a CoP is characterised by the existence of norms, standards and a competence framework that regulate a particular practice within a given community. The existence of norms that provide commonality within a community implies that a CoP is characteristically marked by a boundary that delineates members of the same profession

from non-members. The boundary of a CoP is, however, fluid to the extent that new members can be allowed access into the community. According to Wenger (1998:73), three dimensions help to maintain a state of cohesion among members within a CoP. The three dimensions are mutual engagement, joint enterprise and a shared repertoire. Mutual engagement, for one, entails the active participation of members as they seek to share knowledge and endeavour to improve their practice. Interaction is an essential vehicle for the transfer of knowledge from the experienced peers within the community to the less experienced. The prevalence of trust and good relationships among members help to foster a culture of collaboration that sets the enabling context for the exchange of knowledge to take place (Evetts 2014:30). Joint enterprise is the other dimension of a CoP that points to the existence of shared goals among members. Lastly, a CoP's third dimension has to do with a shared repertoire. This refers to the traditions, routines, language, tools, concepts and symbols that a particular community has developed in the course of its history. The repertoire helps to define a practice and provides meaning and interpretation to the activities that characterise a particular profession.

3.2.1.2 Identity

Identity is a central element of the concept of CoP. It is central to the idea of an individual becoming a member of a community. Wenger (1998:5) asserts that the process of learning within a CoP shapes individuals' history and experiences to the extent that they would belong to a particular community. An individual participates within a CoP in order to acquire skills and become an expert in line with the set standards and competences of the profession. According to Wenger (2000:228), learning leads to a process of realignment in which participants use their own experience to improve competence. This process ultimately leads to identification in which the individual seeks to become part of a community and subscribes to its norms. In order for learning to facilitate the identification of members, it must be structured in such a way that it espouses the range of competences and standards that define a particular profession.

3.2.1.3 Meaning

The concept of meaning relates to the way individuals participate in their community and obtain experiences that help them to gain a deeper understanding of their real practice (Wenger 1998:53). The implicit conceptualisation emanating from the description above is that meaning is achieved through a process of negotiation within the CoP. The negotiation of meaning is based on two elements: reification and participation. Reification refers to the artefacts, documents, processes and symbols that define a particular practice. Participation entails the active involvement of members of a community in the process of interpreting artefacts and symbols in order to achieve meaning.

3.2.1.4 Practice

The element of practice denotes that members within a CoP are practitioners who not only belong to the same profession but who also share experience, tools and knowledge (Wenger & Trayner 2015:13). In order for proper learning to take place, there is a need to construct a knowledge base of the skills and competences that define a particular trade. The term 'practice' can be used to either refer to the profession of members of a CoP or to imply the concept of learning by doing. In terms of its later sense, it can be stated that knowledge sharing is a central feature of a CoP (Klein 2008:43). This implies that CoPs play a critical role in generating and distributing knowledge among members of a given community. On the basis of the above, it must be noted that for any meaningful learning to occur, it must take place within a social context in which the experienced members inculcate the appropriate technical skills and knowledge associated with the practice to the novices and less experienced.

The social learning theory is strongly related to Jean Lave's situated learning theory (Lave & Wenger 1991:63). Like the social learning theory, the situated learning theory avers that learning is situated within a context. According to Browns, Collins and Duguid (1989 in Caffarella and Merriam 2000:59), situated learning is a function of 'the activity, context and the culture in which it is developed and used'. This suggests that interaction is a

central feature of the process of learning within a CoP as it enables learners to acquire knowledge from their experienced peers. The novices initially join a community and participate in learning from the fringes in a process called legitimate peripheral participation (Wenger & Snyder 2000:140; Hoardley 2012:288). As the learners steadily develop new knowledge, they become more active and begin to move gradually from the periphery to the centre where they can gain expertise in a particular field through the support of more experienced peers. This implies that learning within a CoP takes place when learners have access to experts who can transmit knowledge to the former.

Professional development programmes for school leaders provide a clear example of learning within a social context in which knowledge is shared through a process of interaction. It is quite clear that the social learning theory must be relied upon to inform the construction of skills development programmes for BSSHs.

3.2.2 The social development theory

The social development theory, proposed by Levi Vygotsky, is another constructivist theory of learning that subscribes to the socio-cultural view of learning. Although this theory was developed to explain learning in children, its application has gained widespread acclaim in the field of leadership development. According to this theory, learning is a social process in which learners acquire knowledge through interaction and socialisation with their peers (Tuckman & Monetti 2011:73). Vygotsky also upholds this view by stating that learning is situated within the learner's cultural context and that a learner's experiences contribute significantly to the development of cognition (Vygotsky 1978:86). The same view is corroborated by Needham (2011:201) who conceives learning to be a function of the transaction between the learner and the social environment. Based on the above, learning must be understood as a process of socialisation in which the social environment plays the central role of providing the appropriate context for knowledge construction and the development of learners under the guided participation of experienced peers.

Vygotsky’s social development theory is anchored in two concepts: the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and scaffolding (Vygotsky 1978:86). The ZPD is a concept that is used to explain the relationship between cognitive development and learning. The concept holds that there are two levels of development, the actual and the potential level of development (Jwan & Ong’ondo 2011:402) as illustrated in figure 3.2.

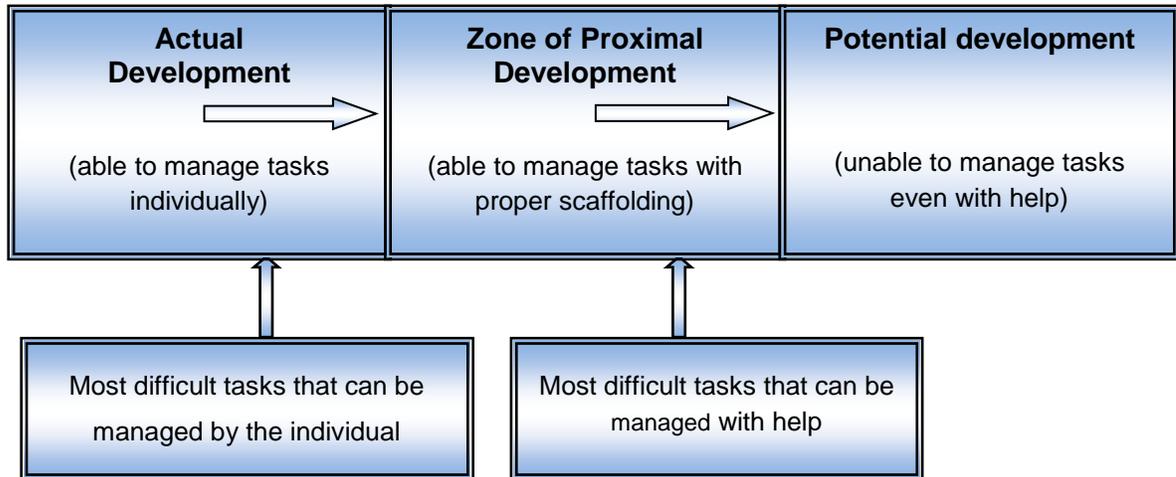


Figure 3.2: Zone of Proximal

Adapted from Long, Wood, Littleton, Passenger & Sheehy (2011:39)

The actual level of development refers to those tasks that a learner can accomplish independently while the potential level of development refers to those tasks that learners are capable of performing with support from more experienced peers (Shabani, Khatib & Ebadi 2010:238). The ZPD therefore bridges the distance between the actual level of development and the potential level of development. Scaffolding entails the provision of support to a learner by a more experienced tutor who plays a handholding role to ensure that the former uses their existing skills to develop new knowledge. McKenzie (1999 in Turuk 2008:251) identifies scaffolding as an instructional strategy in which the instructor provides support to the learner and gradually reduces the level of support as the learner shows signs of improved problem-solving capability regarding the previously scaffolded task. In this way, learners are able to develop their level of cognitive development and ultimately improve their capacity to solve complex tasks that they would not have done on their own. The theory of social development is quite relevant to the focus of this study.

It is quite apparent from the discussion above that the professional development of BSSHs into competent school leaders is not possible without the support of experienced peers within their community of practice.

The social learning theory has significant implications for the design and provision of training for school heads (Jwan & Ong'ondo 2011:402). The notion of experiential learning is therefore a cornerstone of the theory as learners generate new knowledge within a community of practice on the basis of interaction with their experienced peers. Experiential learning focuses more on the use of experience to ensure the integration of theory and practice as well as the personal development of learners through a process of self-reflection and self-awareness. In terms of this study, the social learning theory provides the researcher with insight into the kind of training approaches that could be used in an MDP for BSSHs. Armstrong (2012:280) assert that, "the practice of learning and development should be based on an understanding of learning theory and the process involved in learning and development". Besides, the learning theory interlinks with the Peter Principle as it explains how the acquisition of new knowledge and skills might mitigate the problem of underperformance by newly promoted secondary school heads. According to the social development theory, it is quite apparent that learning is viewed as a process of socialisation that enables individuals to network and share knowledge about a certain practice. Learning also facilitates the transmission of the knowledge and skills that are critical for the development of a learner from a state of novice to that of an expert. This is achieved through the work of mentors and coaches who play a critical role in the development of the requisite skills among the learners.

3.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF BSSH

Several arguments have been put forward in previous chapters to justify the case for the provision of MDPs for school heads. This paragraph consolidates these fragments and other justifications into a consolidated rationale for the provision of an MDP for BSSHs. Studies on school effectiveness (Schreenes 2004:1; Botha 2010:607; Pretorius 2014:53) have established the relationship between sound leadership and effective schools.

Leithwood, Day, Sammonds, Harris and Hopkins (2006, in Bush 2008:25) not only assert that successful school outcomes and learner achievement are dependent on talented leadership, but that leadership is also a crucial ingredient in learner achievement as it comes second only to classroom teaching. In the light of this, education policy makers agree that schools need to be staffed by highly competent school heads if they are expected to drive the national agenda effectively. This provides a compelling case for the professional development of school heads. Leadership preparation is being viewed as a panacea to the quest for effective leadership and the improvement of standards in schools. The introduction of leadership preparation programmes that nurture the appropriate leadership skills and behaviours for school heads has therefore become a necessity.

The case for the professional development of school heads has also been bolstered by the view that headship is a specialist occupation that requires specific preparation (Bush 2008, in Forde 2011:356). In this regard, a structured MDP could enable participants to transfer their skills and knowledge into applied practice within the school situation (Dempster, Lovett & Fluckiger 2011:20; Wallace 2007: 5). The emphasis on practice stems from the realisation that the gap between the “current demands” of school leadership “and the skills that teachers get at the time of initial training” requires regular upgrading and renewal if school heads are expected to be effective in the execution of their roles (Bush, Kiggundu & Moorosi 2011:32; CIET 1999:464).

Proponents of the need for the leadership development programmes argue that leadership preparation is a critical intervention for the professional socialisation of newly promoted school heads into their new roles and that it provides a pathway into the leadership career (Bouchamma, Basque & Marcotte 2014:581; Bush 2009:375; Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr & Cohen, 2007:2; Dempster et al 2011:8). Research on leadership in other sectors such as the field of business has also established that there are similarities between the challenges facing leaders in business and in education (Pont, Nusche & Moorman 2008:110). This fact points to the need for the professional development of school leaders. The need for the professional development of school

leaders is even more compelling given the fact that headship is a "specialist occupation that requires specialist preparation" (Bush 2008:26). This implies that headship is almost a second career that is different from the teaching profession and it is on this basis that it has become necessary to provide training to school heads.

As stated in the previous chapters, school heads commence their careers as teachers and their progression to the post of headship calls for a different set of competencies. Research has also revealed certain complexities associated with headship as well as an increasingly expanding array of responsibilities which school heads may find difficult to overcome if no adequate preparation is provided (Bush 2008:11). Bush, Briggs and Middlewood (2006:189) have also pointed to the transition shock that newly promoted school heads experience during the early days of headship. In the absence of appropriate training, school heads may fail to cope with the daunting tasks associated with their new roles. The existence of a gap between the skills that heads attain at the time of teacher training and the current demands of school leadership provides credence to the call for a special programme to be designed to cater for the training needs of those who are promoted to lead schools (CIET 1999:465). On the basis of this, education authorities have a moral obligation to provide specific training to newly promoted school heads in order to equip them with the skills that are necessary for school leadership.

The impetus for nurturing the capacity of school leaders stems from a widespread concern among leaders of education systems regarding cases of rampant incompetence on the part of school leaders. The absence of a structured leadership preparation programme for school heads implies that incumbents are simply thrown into their positions and left to either sink or swim on their own. Governments have often felt the consequences of professional ineptitude emanating from lack of leadership training for school heads as it has become apparent that the aims of education have not been achieved due to gross incompetence (Arikuweyo 2009:77). In view of the recent research findings that have posited that leadership development makes a difference to the effectiveness of schools by inculcating the appropriate knowledge, skills and behaviours within school leaders (Ashu 2014:11; Dempster et al 2011:8), this places a greater

demand on education authorities to consider the provision of structured learning programmes for beginning school heads.

Several developments that have taken place within the education sector have thus provided a compelling case for the administration of leadership preparation programmes for school heads in Africa and the world at large. Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (2004 in Bush et al 2011:32) argue that the significant changes that have affected the education system in the second half of the 20th century point towards the need to prepare beginning school heads for the challenging roles in school leadership. The decentralisation of power in the education system to school level has also culminated in school heads assuming additional responsibilities of decision making, planning, budgeting, organising and managing resources (Hussain & Zamair 2011: 25; Jwan & Ong'ondo 2011:409). Furthermore, changes brought by the advent of globalisation and advances in information technology have strengthened the case for preparing school heads appropriately so that they are able to deal with the challenges facing schools in the 21st century (Parshiadis & Brauckmann 2009:121). There is also recognition that school heads make a significant contribution towards the development of a competitive human resources base for the nation and hence require the requisite training for them to perform these tasks efficiently. Dempster et al (2011:8) state that school heads can turn out to be effective leaders following specific training and can contribute meaningfully towards the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning in schools. The situation in Zimbabwe also beckons for the introduction of preparation programmes for school heads (CIET 1999:465).

In the light of the complexities associated with school headship and the incessant education reforms that have resulted in additional responsibilities for school heads, it has become necessary for education authorities to provide leadership development training to newly appointed school heads in Zimbabwe.

3.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE DESIGN OF A MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR SCHOOL HEADS

Several factors are considered when formulating a framework for an MDP for BSSHs. The following discussion focuses on these.

3.4.1 Ideological perceptions of the state

The design of an MDP is largely influenced by the ideological perceptions of the state. In a centralised education system, the purpose of education is strongly influenced by the government (Bush 2007:392). Bell and Stevenson (2006:8) echo the same view by stating that in most countries, the state has a key role in the provision and regulation of education because it views the school as a special vehicle for the promotion of national values, economic development and social cohesion. The state's policy interests regarding what must be taught in schools and how schools should operate are often expressed through policy promulgations and statutory instruments. An example that can be given relates to the implementation of the new school curriculum that was introduced in Zimbabwe from 2016 as part of the country's education reform process following the recommendations of the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) (CIET 1999:460; Georgescu, Mavhunga, Murimba & Stabback 2016:2; Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education website, www.mopse.gov.zw/index.php/about-ministry/). According to a report in the *Sunday Mail* of 29 January 2017, the curriculum review would enter its final phase in 2017. The major question that remains is whether school leaders have been provided with the necessary training to equip them with the requisite competence to implement such new policies in accordance with the expectations of the state. It has therefore become a political imperative for governments to provide professional development support to newly promoted school heads to enable them to provide sound leadership to schools in line with the national agenda. The state, therefore, plays a prominent role in the formulation of a management development curriculum for school heads because its content must reflect the national goals that must be achieved within the schools.

3.4.2 National competence frameworks and standards

National competence frameworks and standards can be used to determine the selection of objectives and content for an MDP for BSSHs. A competence framework is an inventory of the behavioural and technical competences that define the type of behaviour and the skills that employees have to be able to perform in order to carry out their roles effectively (Armstrong 2012:90). Pont et al (2008:117) state that some educational systems have developed school leadership frameworks that provide insight into the responsibilities of school heads. Competence frameworks prescribe the minimum performance standards that are expected of school heads. They also stipulate the domains of competences that school leaders must attain in order for them to meet the leadership expectations set by the national education system.

The use of standards in the formulation of an MDP is being globally accepted (Bush 2008:110). Standards are a set of benchmarks that outline the leadership expectations against which performance can be measured. In addition, standards also work as benchmarks of the technical skills and competences that school heads must acquire. The standardisation of competence frameworks implies that school leaders ought to be provided with some basic training so that they improve their competences to match the level of skill expected of their leadership positions. The content for an MDP for school heads is developed on the basis of information provided by the competence frameworks that reflect national needs as perceived by the education policy makers. The over reliance of education authorities on standards to determine what should be taught to school leaders has, however, been subject to criticism. Pont et al (2008:117) argue that standards tend to give prominence to globally accepted bodies of knowledge and values without giving due consideration to the needs and contextual realities of individual schools. In order to overcome this challenge, the curriculum of an MDP must be constructed in a manner that seeks to address performance standards expected of school heads as well as their identified training needs.

3.4.3 Training needs assessment

Training needs assessment (TNA) is a critical factor that influences the design and formulation of an MDP for school heads. Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008:504) define a training need as the discrepancy between employees' actual performance and their expected or desired performance. The South African Management Development Institute (SAMDI) further defines a training need assessment as a process of determining the discrepancy between the expected competences and the current performance displayed by the targeted individuals (SAMDI 2007: 9). This definition clearly shows that the identification of performance deficiencies is a necessary precursor to the formulation of training activities.

Several scholars (Parshardis & Brauckmann 2009:121; Hussain & Zamair 2011:25) have highlighted the importance of a TNA as a precursor to the planning and construction of any MDP. These scholars point to the importance of training needs assessment in a variety of ways. Firstly, TNA provides data about the training and skills development requirements of employees. Secondly, it helps to identify performance discrepancies between what employees are currently able to do and what they ought to be able to do. These performance gaps then become the bases upon which training is implemented. In addition, TNA also provides critical information that gives direction to the formulation of the training objectives and the development of the training plan. Another important element of TNA is that it indicates the nature and form of content of training as well as the modes of instructional delivery. Lastly, TNA can also be used as an evaluation tool to measure the extent of success of a training programme.

The discussion above clearly shows that the process of TNA is inseparable from the broader training function as it is part of the training cycle (Armstrong 2012:299; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright 2015:292). This implies that a training programme must be preceded by a needs assessment survey, which informs the formulation of training objectives and the selection of appropriate training methods.

TNA can be done at several levels. According to the SAMDI (2007:20), needs assessment can be done at the task and individual levels (micro-level), the organisational level (meso-level) and the sectoral level (macro-level). This view resonates with that of Bush (2008:33) who avers that training should be related to “the needs of individuals, to those of the school or to the needs of the national system”. TNAs that are carried out at a national level are meant to identify the profession-wide performance discrepancies that inhibit school leaders from successfully implementing the aims of education (Bush 2007:391). Education authorities realise that if school heads have to lead schools effectively and help to drive the national agenda, then some training must be administered in order to provide them with a set of skills that constitute the threshold of competences required to provide such leadership. TNA also seeks to identify the professional development needs of school heads that, if met, will align their performance with the national standards and expectations of state authorities.

In respect of the professional development of school leaders, training needs can be identified on the basis of a broad-based outline of the standard skills and competences that are expected of school leaders within the profession (Armstrong 2012:210). These competence frameworks as well as the role profiles can be used as the benchmarks to gauge employee performance against set expectations, thereby determining the employees’ training needs. Surveys and performance reviews can also be used to provide vital data on the technical skills and behavioural competences required to perform the set tasks effectively. Hussain and Zamair (2011:25) postulate that training need assessment surveys are critical when determining a management development curriculum.

At the meso-level, a training needs assessment mainly focuses on the organisational needs in relation to the management development of school heads. This implies that the professional development of school heads should focus on improving leadership in order to enhance learner success and to achieve set school outcomes (Forde 2011:364). However, it should be noted that while school needs are viewed from an organisational perspective (meso-level), determining standards that regulate school activities is done at the national level. This implies that school needs must necessarily dovetail into national

needs in order to ensure the prevalence of homogeneity in standards across the entire education sector.

Training needs assessment at the micro-level mainly focuses on the assessment of task needs and individual assessment needs (SAMDI 2007:22). A task needs assessment examines the knowledge, skills and behaviours that are needed to perform the array of tasks that constitute the job description of an employee. Individual needs assessment seeks to identify the performance weaknesses associated with individual employees that must be remedied by training. Individual training needs are what employees naturally perceive to be the performance challenges. The individual training needs are also an expression of the kind of training individual employees may feel they require. The participation of employees in identifying their needs enhances professional reflection and helps individuals to identify their skills level and the type of training that they receive. This view is supported by Leithwood, Reid, Pedwell and Connor (2011:349) who also state that learners should participate significantly in identifying training needs as well as the design of an MDP. In this study, the perceptions of stakeholders regarding their training needs will mainly inform the nature and form of an MDP for BSSHs although national and organisational need considerations will also be looked into.

The idea of relying on a needs analysis to determine what should be taught in an MDP has, however, been the subject of criticism. The needs analysis approach is premised on the deficient model of learning which views learners as unknowledgeable (Cross 2009:13), yet adult learners bring into the learning situation a lot of experience. The acknowledgement of learners' existing knowledge is very important as it enhances their participation and potential for self-direction. This implies that the needs analysis approach should be blended with other positive approaches in order to come up with the right content of an MDP.

In order to further contextualise MDPs from the learner's perspective, the principles of adult learning need to be taken into account.

3.4.4 Principles of adult learning

Learning can be defined as the process of acquiring the knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable learners to experience permanent change in behaviour (Knowles, Holton & Swanson 2005:10; Feldman 2010:150; Armstrong 2012:664). Principles of learning have a significant bearing on the design and implementation of an MDP for school heads. The term 'andragogy' has been used to refer to adult learning. Andragogy differs significantly from pedagogy (child learning) because the assumptions regarding the characteristics of adult learners are different from those of child learners (Knowles et al 2005:63). In this study, the target population for an MDP for BSSHs are adults, hence it is worthwhile to consider the basic andragogic principles that guide the learning of adults when designing an MDP for school leaders.

Several assumptions are made about the characteristics of adult learners. Knowles et al (2005:63) highlight six of the assumptions. The first assumption is that adults need to be aware of the reasons why they ought to learn something before they involve themselves in learning. Once adult learners become aware that learning will improve their performance, they become committed and motivated to learn. This implies that those entrusted with designing MDPs for BSSHs must make learners aware of the potential benefits that they stand to gain from the programme. It is also important that school heads are involved in the identification of their performance shortfalls through performance assessments so that they become aware of the need to learn.

A second assumption that has been made about adult learners is that they are self-directed (Bergh & Theron 2009:81; Caffarella & Merriam 2000:57). Adult learners determine their own learning and they are mainly interested in participatory approaches to learning that largely tap into their experiences so that they are able to reflect and develop a deep sense of awareness (Rogers & Horrocks 2010:81; Tight 2000:109). The needs and interests of learners are also critical factors to consider as they inform the instructor about the form and structure that learning should take. Adult learners also

expect the instructor to play the role of facilitator who actively involves them in the learning activities (Knowles et al 2005:153).

Thirdly, research has shown that adult learners bring much of their personal and performance experience, knowledge and perceptions into the learning process (Cross 2009:136). These individual experiences can provide essential information to the instructor that may guide him or her when identifying and selecting content as well as the methods of instruction in MDPs. The individual differences in terms of individual needs and experiences among learners have serious consequences for the learning process (Rogers & Horrocks 2010:146). Such divergences imply that facilitators must develop instructional approaches that cater for the backgrounds, needs and interests of individual learners. Mentoring and coaching are some of the techniques that place greater importance on individualized learning (Msila 2012b: 48; Agarwal 2014:94).

While experience is a vital source of learning for adults, in other instances it may lead to rigidity among learners. Experience may cause certain biases among learners that might prevent them from appreciating and embracing new approaches within the profession (Knowles et al 2005:64). It is therefore important for facilitators to understand the background of learners and develop ways of overcoming this problem.

The fourth assumption regarding adult learners is that they become ready to learn when they realise that what they will learn will enable them to cope effectively with real-life situations (Tight 2000:104). Learning that seeks to prepare learners to move from one developmental stage to the other in line with their new roles is quite welcome to learners. The timing, in terms of the provision of such training is therefore critical if, in the case of this study, BSSHs are to be effectively prepared for their new roles. The provision of training for BSSHs in the first two years after appointment could be timely as this would facilitate a developmental transition from a classroom practitioner to a school manager.

The fifth assumption relates to the fact that adult learners are task centred as they perceive that learning will help them to perform tasks within their life situations better. In

this regard, adult learners become intrinsically motivated to learn once they realise that such learning will lead to meaningful results in future. Lastly, adults are both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated to learn (Rogers & Horrocks 1010:110). The quest for promotion, better jobs, self-esteem and job satisfaction are some of the motivators that inspire adult learners to want to learn.

The characteristics cited above have a significant bearing on the design and process of MDPs for school heads. Reece and Walker (2004:110) argue that the characteristics of the learners, the context in which training takes place as well as the desired learning outcomes have to be considered when selecting training strategies.

3.5 THE CONTENT OF A MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR BSSHs

As has already been indicated earlier in this discussion, there has been an upsurge of interest, among education policy makers, regarding the need for the effective preparation of school leaders (Dempster et al 2011:8; Bush 2009:377). The groundswell of interest for the professional training of school leaders stems from the realisation that effective leadership contributes significantly to school success and learner achievement. In view of the consensus among policy makers regarding the importance of an MDP, the major question that can be asked is: What are the main components of an MDP for BSSHs?

There is a deficiency of literature on MDPs for newly promoted secondary school heads in Zimbabwe. In an attempt to answer the overarching question regarding the content of an MDP, this researcher will therefore undertake a desktop review of MDPs in practice in other countries.

Research has shown that the content of an MDP is generally similar across programmes in several countries. Bush and Jackson (2002:420) aptly assert that:

The content of educational leadership programmes has considerable similarities in several countries, leading to a hypothesis that there is an international curriculum for school leadership.

The above assertion implies that the design of training programmes is premised on internationally acceptable professional standards that stipulate the technical and behavioural competences expected of school heads. A study that was carried out in several European countries confirmed that MDPs generally consisted of certain topics that were generic while there were other topics that were specific to individual countries (Bush 2008:39). Topics that were found to be common across programmes in most countries included instructional leadership, law, finance, managing people and administration.

Leithwood et al (2006:6) have identified a set of leadership practices that constitute the content of an MDP. The array of leadership practices that, in Leithwood et al's view, are critical elements of a management development curriculum include the following: building vision and setting directions; understanding and developing people; redesigning the organisation; and managing the teaching and learning programme. A closer look at these practices clearly shows that skills that enhance a school leader's capacity to plan for the future, to restructure the school, to provide instructional leadership and to relate well with employees are the most crucial skills.

A training and support programme for School Heads in Africa (Commonwealth Secretariat 2000:1) that was spearheaded by the Commonwealth Secretariat also focused on the following areas: school mission, values and objectives; time management; functions of school management; public relations; communication; management of change; supervision and discipline; keeping records; establishing the curriculum; school budgeting; and school governance.

Chiwore (1995:2) developed a manual for school heads in Zimbabwe and posited that the most critical skills that school heads needed to acquire were instructional leadership; financial management; strategic management; student discipline and time management.

An examination of the several components of MDPs presented above clearly shows that such elements as vision, budgeting, instructional leadership and managing people are common across these programmes. There are, however, divergences among the programmes as certain components that feature in some programmes do not appear in others. These divergences are possible because the content of an MDP may vary from one country to the other because of differences in priority, culture, traditions, national needs and contexts (Pont et al 2008:132). This view purports that certain national imperatives emanate from the state's ideological thinking, which influence the content of what should be taught to school leaders. Mulford (2003:39) postulates that the content of a school leader development programme depends on how the role of the school head is viewed. Pont et al (2008:132) are also in support of this view when they suggest that while MDPs may reflect a generic flair regarding their outline, there is a great need for them to conform to specific national agendas as well as to the needs, contexts, backgrounds and settings that are peculiar to individual countries. This implies that the perceptions of individual governments have a strong bearing on the content of their MDPs.

A new dimension of thinking has also emerged in which there is a realisation that MDPs that are designed on the basis of a European ideology of leadership cannot be adopted into the African setting because of diverse political, social, cultural and professional contexts (Ibrahim 2011:292). The South African Department of Education report (2008:54) also notes that while African school management practices are constructed on the basis of international trends, there is a need to realign the training programmes so that they embrace African leadership styles, norms and values. The above viewpoints imply that the content of an MDP should reflect a body of knowledge whose leadership constructs are a blend of international wide standards and school contexts. Such an amalgam of content in an MDP that mixes culture and specific school issues resonates with Crow's assertion that the socialisation of newly promoted school heads must comprise a combination of aspects of professional and organisational socialisation (Crow 2006:311). Professional socialisation focuses on the development of knowledge and skills that are related to the role of school heads while organisational socialisation is meant to initiate beginning school heads into their new school contexts.

Lead-link, a network of organisations that developed training courses on educational leadership and development in sub-Saharan Africa undertook a review of literature and identified seven characteristics of content in development programmes for school heads (EMSSA 2009:1). The major common feature of these development programmes was that the content was mainly focused on addressing the problems that trainees were experiencing in the conduct of their work and how these could be solved. Another common feature of the development programmes was that the content made reference to case examples of the various changes that affect the field of education. The third common characteristic of these programmes was that the content emphasized the importance of networking and collaboration among school heads in the process of knowledge sharing and problem solving. Fourthly, the content also made reference to the complex realities of the conditions within which school heads operate in light of the problem of under-resourced schools. The fifth characteristic that was common in these programmes was that the content focused on addressing the emotional challenges that school heads encountered in the transition from their previous responsibilities to their new leadership roles. Furthermore, the concept of schooling was a major point of focus in these programmes and for purposes of content delivery, various instructional approaches were also used. Lastly, the content had a common feature in that they incorporated African leadership practices within the context of the concept of *hunhu/ubuntu*.

The commonality of features of professional development programmes suggests that the design of school leadership curricula is based on internationally accepted standards. Earley (2013:141) states that international evidence proves that there are common factors associated with effective leadership development despite the contextual and cultural diversities in countries. This view is corroborated by Bush and Jackson (2002 in Bush 2008:33) who point to similarities in the content of management programmes in several countries, something that points to the existence of an international curriculum.

3.6 TYPOLOGIES OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT APPROACHES

The professional development of school heads can follow several pathways. According to Pont et al (2008:108) management development approaches can be divided into three broad types, namely pre-service training for teachers aspiring to be school heads; induction training for those who have recently been promoted to the post of headship; and in-service training for practising school heads. Despite these various approaches, it should be noted that learning is generally a function of interaction and practice as explained by the concept of experiential learning (Mullins 2010:182; Armstrong 2012:281).

3.6.1 Experiential learning

Experiential learning is an approach to learning that underlies MDP training (Mullins 2010:1820). This approach is rooted in Kolb's experiential learning theory (Kolb 1984:20). The theory states that learning occurs in the form of a cycle that consists of four stages as shown in figure 3.3

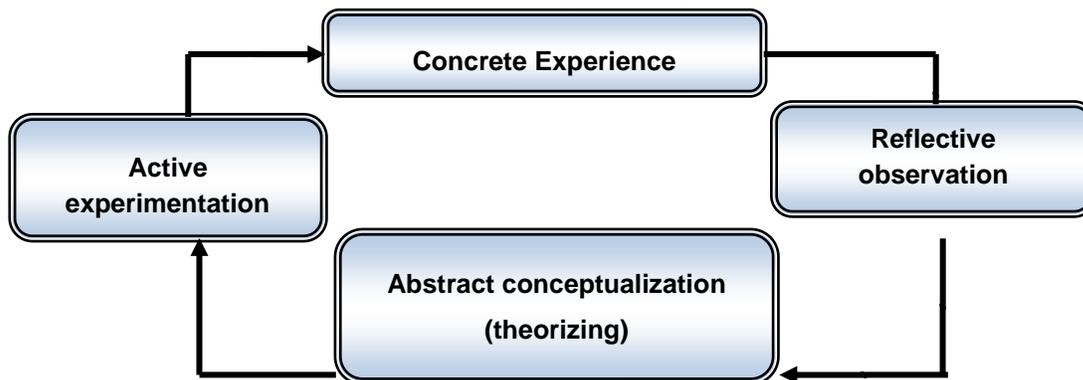


Figure 3.3: Kolb's learning cycle

Adapted from Armstrong (2012:281)

According to this theory, learning involves the assimilation of an experience which is then reflected upon in order to determine its significance to new situations. Deductions are then made from the experiences and new ideas are conceptualized. These ideas are then

internalised to solve similar situations in future. The ideas are then practically tested to solve problems in new situations (Kolb 1984:21; Sharlanova 2004:37).

The experiential learning model clearly shows that experience provides the necessary grounding for learning as learners are able to shape their current experiences on the basis of previous experiences in order to learn effectively (Rogers & Horrocks 2010:104). In addition, experiential learning involves the use of experiences in order to interpret new meaning. This enables the learner to actively participate in learning and be able to solve problems on the basis of reflection and experience. The learner also becomes self-motivated to tackle even more complex challenges that are above their current level of development.

A major tenet of experiential learning is the principle of “learning by doing” in which there is interaction between ideas and action in the process of learning (Robbins & Coulter 2009:44). The model encourages the integration of theory with practice in instructional delivery in order to enhance action learning. This implies that instructional approaches in MDPs must be able to blend theory with practice based on activities such as case studies and simulations as a way of entrenching learner experiences (Lunenburg & Ornstein 2008:5).

According to Forde (2011:356), the experiential learning approach is the most appropriate approach to enable participants to learn the necessary skills on the basis of experience and development support from other experienced peers. This approach is quite ideal for the construction of an MDP for beginning school heads.

3.6.2 Induction

Induction is the main approach used in several countries to develop newly appointed school heads (Wendling 2004:3; Bush & Oduro 2006: 190). The duration of an induction programme has been noted to vary from one day short courses to two year programmes.

In developing countries, there is limited literature on the induction of school heads because no formal programmes are being implemented (Bush 2008:100). But because school heads in Africa are appointed without adequate preparation, the need for a well-structured induction programme has become an imperative. Research is replete with evidence pointing to the multiplicity of challenges that school heads encounter during the first two years of practice (Hobson, Brown, Ashby, Keys, Sharp & Benefield 2003:2; Walker & Qian 2006:301; Mapolisa, Ncube, Tshabalala & Khosa 2014:1; Tshabalala, Muranda, Gazimbe & Khosa 2014:5). This provides a compelling case for the need for the effective preparation of school leaders.

The absence of an induction programme to prepare school heads for the complex roles may have disastrous consequences for the quality of education in schools. There is a real need for education systems to develop induction programmes that equip school heads with the foundation skills upon which they can develop into proficient managers. Bush and Oduro (2006:190) state that the purpose of an induction programme is two-fold. Firstly, it seeks to introduce incumbents into their new school environs and secondly, it serves to develop the professional skills of beginning school heads so that they can improve their leadership competencies in their new roles. The purpose of induction therefore resonates with Crow's (2006:311) view that the preparation of beginning school heads must comprise strategies that seek to provide both professional and organisational socialisation. Antonacopoulou and Guttel (2010:23) also support the same view by contending that induction programmes enable new employees to adjust within their new work settings and prepare them to tackle the complexities that they are likely to encounter.

The Headship Induction Programme (HIP) that is run by the NCSL in England is a typical example of a comprehensive induction programme for newly appointed school heads (Bush & Oduro 2006:189).

Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997 in Bush 2008:100) have identified eight basic steps that are essential for an induction programme to be effective. The steps are as follows:

1. Assign a veteran school head to the novice school head
2. Provide manuals for new school heads
3. Ensure a smooth transition by involving the outgoing school head
4. Orient the new school head to the school and its community
5. Encourage networking with other school heads
6. Encourage school heads to allow their deputies to 'shadow' them to gain experience
7. Visit other schools
8. Provide courses in educational management

An examination of these approaches clearly shows that an effective induction programme must be a blend of several instructional strategies ranging from mentoring, coaching, networking and contact sessions. The instructional methods that are used to train newly promoted school heads must seek to address the training needs that would have been identified. These training needs inform the formulation of training objectives, the selection of content, the training methodology and ultimately the induction curriculum in its entirety.

3.6.3 In-service training

In-service training refers to the array of professional development activities that are offered to practising school heads. Training programmes that constitute in-service professional development vary from short courses, workshops, seminars to certificate, diploma and degree programmes that are offered by universities (Forde 2011:361; Ibrahim 2011:292). Like their practising counterparts already in service, newly appointed school heads also benefit immensely from in-service training.

The in-service mode of training is premised on the concept of lifelong learning which subscribes to the idea that education must be distributed throughout an individual's professional career and life span (Tight 2000:37). In professional circles, lifelong learning is also referred to as continuous professional development (CPD). Mullins (2010:791) contends that management development is vital for the provision of opportunities for CPD

and to prepare learners for the responsibilities of a new career. Pont et al (2008:12) also aver that education authorities have a moral obligation to provide CPD so that practising school heads are able to continuously upgrade their skills in line with the changes occurring in the field of education. The introduction of new management approaches, such as the Public Financial Management System (Mapolisa et al 2014:1) and the Results Based Management System (Madhekeni 2012:122; Mavhiki, Nyamwanza & Dhoro 2013:135, Gutuza 2016:91) by the Government of Zimbabwe provides a compelling case for the training of school heads so that they are able to implement such policies with a substantial degree of proficiency. This implies that in-service training can be used to prepare school heads for certain developments that are to be introduced within the profession.

A number of benefits are associated with the in-service training of school heads. One major benefit that Ziemke and Ross (2014:34) cite is that CPD can be provided to remedy competence gaps that would have been identified through a process of performance evaluation. Secondly, in-service training can be administered as a state wide intervention measure that can be used to inculcate the basic skills and competences expected of school heads, thereby fostering standards within the system. According to Bush (2008:110) the use of standards in the development of an MDP helps to create a baseline of competences that can then be used as the basis for performance evaluation. In this case, a professional development plan is designed to address the specific development needs of individuals.

The other benefit is that in-service training can be provided using a combination of various instructional approaches ranging from contact sessions, coaching and practice-based activities such as case studies, role plays and simulations. The combination of approaches enables in-service training to cater for the wide array of learning experiences that school heads require. Daresh, Gantner, Dunlop and Hvizdak (2000 in Steyn 2008:892) state that leadership development programmes are more effective if academic sessions are complemented with practical applications in the form of role play, simulations and case studies to enable the transfer of knowledge to the school situation. Lastly, in-

service development programmes have been preferred because they target school heads that are already in practice unlike pre-service programmes that focus on aspiring incumbents, some of whom may never be promoted to headship. In view of the resource constraints that most governments face, in-service training is the most ideal approach as it focuses the use of resources towards the professional development of individuals already in posts.

3.6.4 Contact sessions

Contact sessions refer to those forms of instructional delivery that are administered within a classroom context and that involve face-to-face tuition. These sessions are academic programmes that range from short courses, workshops to degree programmes that are offered by institutions of higher learning and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). The key focus of contact sessions is to inculcate into school leaders, “the knowledge and understanding of the principles of leadership and management in schools” (Forde 2011:357). Contact sessions have traditionally dominated instructional approaches in MDP for school heads. However, the fact that this mode of instruction is classroom based renders it more theory oriented and inadequately practical as to expose school leaders to the real school context. An example of an academic programme that has a component of contact sessions is the Bachelor of Education (Administration and Policy Planning Studies) degree programme that is offered by the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) (Mapolisa & Muyengwa 2012:2162). The programme was meant to prepare school leaders through open distance learning. Distance learning programmes at the ZOU are comprised of components of contact sessions, assignments and self-directed study with little focus on experiential learning. The lack of the experiential component in these open distance programmes and other academic programmes has led some scholars to question the effectiveness of these programmes.

The effectiveness of academic programmes in the professional development of school heads has been questioned by several scholars. Lashway (2003 in Steyn 2008:890) has criticised academic programmes for mainly focusing on theory without being practically

relevant to the real world. In addition, the duration of degree programmes is often long to the extent that by the time incumbents complete their studies, the material studied within the programme would no longer be compatible with the state of affairs in the field of education. This is not to disprove the importance of academic programmes given the fact that they help to drill management principles and theory in school leaders. There is therefore a need to complement academic programmes with a structured MDP that seeks to develop the relevant practical skills for school leaders. Academic programmes can only be effective if theory is integrated with simulations, case studies and role plays to reflect the real situation in the school context.

Short courses and workshops have also attracted much criticism because of their short duration which affects their capacity to broadly cover the knowledge and skills required by participants. Bush et al (2011:33) also lament that the content delivered in workshops is generally prescriptive and worse still, little is done to link theory with the real school context. Another problem associated with workshops has been the “one size fits all” approach which does not give credence to the different needs of learners (Forde 2011:364).

3.6.5 Mentoring

Mentoring is a training approach that involves the process of pairing a beginning school head with an experienced or retired school head so that the latter can use his or her experiences and reflections of the past to provide developmental support to the former (Wallace 2007:5; Agarwal 2014:108). The development of effective school leaders is an undeniable necessity which can only be realised through a systematically designed programme that incorporates mentoring so that newly promoted school heads can be provided with professional support by their experienced counterparts. Management development programmes in several countries are based on the mentoring model of management development (Naicker 2011:439; Weindling 2004:14). Scholars who revere the mentoring model in school management development argue that programmes must be a fusion of theoretical and practical components so that new school heads are exposed

to real-life experiences through the guidance of experienced peers (Hansford & Ehrich 2006:39).

Critics of academic programmes have argued that the former are predominantly theoretical to the extent that they do not reflect the contextual realities in schools (Forde 2011:361). The mentoring model therefore bridges this gap by providing situated experienced-based learning to new school heads. Yirci and Kocabas (2010:3) aver that school heads face many difficulties during the first year of their leadership career and that it is imperative for newly promoted school heads to be provided with professional guidance to facilitate the transition from classroom practitioners to school leaders.

The benefits of mentoring are well documented. Msila (2012b:47) asserts the critical importance of mentoring as a tool that can be used for the socialisation of new school heads. The mentoring of school heads has become necessary in view of the need to empower novice school heads to manage schools effectively at a time when policymakers are emphasising quality leadership in schools. Ongek (2016:335) also postulates that mentoring expedites the process of transition to headship by providing novice school heads with an opportunity to increase their knowledge base through a process of collaboration with their experienced peers. This implies that the various challenges that school heads encounter during the early years of headship can easily be dealt with by bringing them in contact with their experienced and successful colleagues for appropriate guidance. Mentoring also affords the protégé an opportunity to integrate theory with practice, engage in reflective practice and develop a sense of self-awareness, which is critical for professional growth. Providing psychological support and counsel to newly promoted school heads is another benefit associated with the mentoring model (Yirci & Kocabas 2010:4). Novice school heads who are effectively mentored are capable of realising their own roles and developing new knowledge and skills.

In order for mentoring to be effective, there should be an element of trust between the mentor and the mentee. There must also be a match between the character and interests

of the mentor and the mentee. Mentors also require effective training so that they are able to provide professional guidance to their protégés.

3.6.6 Coaching

Coaching is another apprentice-based learning approach in which the learner works under the supervision of a tutor who ensures that certain skills are accomplished through a process of scaffolding until a desired level of understanding is achieved (Agarwal 2014:94; Mullins 2010:197). The process of coaching mainly depends on the establishment of good rapport between the coach and the protégé. The prevalence of trust enables the coach to wield influence over the learner while, on the other hand, learners can share their concerns, perceptions and problems. In order for coaching to be effective, it must not follow an ad hoc approach, but should rather be structured and implemented in line with an inventory of skills and a training agenda that the coach seeks to achieve.

Thrupp (2005:19) states that a major feature of coaching is that it focuses on the training of specific skills such as budgeting, soft skills and legal issues. Mullins (2010:197) and Armstrong (2012:294) cite a number of benefits associated with coaching. Firstly, coaching has been renowned for improving operational efficiency and productivity within an organisation as it focuses on achieving results. The other benefit of coaching is that it is a situated mode of learning that draws opportunities for learning from any situation that may arise within the organisation. This implies that learners are able to use work place situations to determine how to solve problems.

3.7 LEADERSHIP PRACTICE COMMUNITIES

Leadership Practice Communities (LPC) for school heads are a phenomenon built upon Wenger's concept of CoP (Wenger 2000:229; Naicker 2011:440; Naicker & Mestry 2016:3). These are forums at which school heads within a district can meet regularly to share experiences and exchange knowledge and skills among themselves. LPCs are

informed by the thinking that learning is a process that can be achieved through interaction (Naicker & Naidoo 2011:291). It is through interaction that school heads establish a knowledge base and create networks that facilitate collaboration and where peer support is provided (Cowie & Crawford 2009:15). Chiome (2011:454) asserts that school leaders who exist in isolation and do not engage with other peers may not benefit from the diversity and richness of experience regarding school improvement ideas. This attests to the importance of LPC as a source of experiential learning especially for newly promoted school heads.

Novice school heads benefit from participating in LPC in several ways. Firstly, they gain professional support and advice from experienced peers. Naicker and Naidoo (2011:294) confirm that informal mentoring takes place at meetings of school heads. In addition, school heads are afforded the opportunity to reach out to each other even outside these meetings. Chiome (2011:455) cites professional associations such as the National Association of Secondary School Heads (NASH) in Zimbabwe as a typical example of a CoP that can also rally secondary school heads together and facilitate the exchange of knowledge through the convention of workshops and circuit meetings.

3.8 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN THREE SELECTED COUNTRIES

A review of MDPs in other countries (South Africa, Kenya and England) provides insight into global trends regarding the content of an MDP and the process thereof. Such information assists in providing a basis upon which a framework for an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe can be developed.

The three countries were conveniently chosen to inform this study for two reasons. Firstly, South Africa and Kenya are some of the few countries in Africa that run professional development programmes for school heads (Naicker 2011:431; Bush et al 2011:31; Sang 2010:1; Ibrahim 2011:292; Jwan & Ong'ondo 2011:404). Secondly, England (Pont et al 2008:108; Bush & Oduro 2006:189; NCSL 2004:15) was also chosen because it has a

shared educational history with Zimbabwe. Zimbabwe was a colony of Britain and the Zimbabwean education system is moulded along the lines of its former colonial master.

3.8.1 South Africa

The professional development of school leaders in South Africa is part of a broader national strategy to improve educational standards within the country (Bush et al 2011:32). The Policy on the South African Standard for Principals, which was gazetted as notice 323 in the *Government Gazette*, number 39827 of 18 March 2016, provides the framework for the standards and performance competencies that are expected of school principals (*Government Gazette*, www.gov.za/sites/www.gov.za/files/39827_gon323.pdf). The policy, which is an extension of the policy for Norms and Standards for Educators that was developed in 2000, spells out the key areas of principalship as well as the values, qualities, skills and competencies that are required of school principals. This framework provides the basis upon which professional development programmes are constructed in terms of content and the professional development pathways within the programmes.

South Africa has several professional development programmes for school heads. For purposes of illustration in this discussion, reference will be made to the Advanced Certificate in Education: School Management and Leadership (ACE: SML) (Bush et al 2011:32; Kiggundu & Moorosi 2012:216) and the Principals Management Development Programme (PMDP) (Naicker 2011:432). The ACE: SML is a part-time programme that is offered over a period of two years. Run by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) in partnership with South African universities, the main objective of the ACE programme is to equip school leaders with the basic knowledge and skills required for managing schools (DBE 2017, www.education.gov.za/Information_for/Principals/ACE.aspx). The programme mainly targets aspiring principals, newly appointed and practising school heads. Chikoko, Naicker & Mthiyane (2014:222) and Bush et al (2011:34) assert that the ACE programme comprises contact sessions, the development of a professional practice-based portfolio and mentoring sessions that are done by retired school principals. An

examination of the modules that are offered in the ACE programme clearly shows that the programme seeks to equip school principals with such skills as leading and managing schools; the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in managing schools; language used in management; financial management; instructional leadership and assessment among other skills. (Ng & Szeto 2015:4; DBE website, [www.education.gov.za/Information for/Principals/ACE.aspx](http://www.education.gov.za/Information%20for/Principals/ACE.aspx)). The DBE further intends to introduce the Advanced Diploma in Leadership and Management as part of the process of professionalising school leadership and improving education standards (Bush & Glover 2016:211).

The PMDP is run by the University of Kwa Zulu-Natal in partnership with the private sector (Naicker 2011:432). The programme is run over a period of six months and comprises six modules. The modules that are offered include direction and planning, school governance, curriculum management, resource acquisition and management, financial management and people management (<http://www.educationinnovations.org/program/principals-management-development-programme>).

An analysis of the ACE: SL and the PMDP programmes clearly shows that the modules offered seek to address the knowledge and skills of school leaders in those areas that were not covered in initial teacher training. An example can be given of modules such as financial management, personnel management and computer literacy. It can also be stated that these programmes are an endeavour by education authorities to up the skills of school leaders so that they can be capacitated to manage schools effectively. It has, however, been noted that these programmes mainly focus on practising heads rather than beginning school heads. While it could be said that beginning school heads can also be regarded as practising incumbents, it must be noted that this segment of school heads requires special training that is different from that offered to the more experienced peers, especially during the first two years of their leadership career.

3.8.2 Kenya

In Kenya, management development programmes for school heads and other officials within the education sector are coordinated by the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI), which was established in 1981 as the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) until it rebranded in 2011 (Asuga, Eacott & Scevak 2014:356; Muthini 2004:26). Besides KEMI, there are other organisations such as universities, responsible authorities, trade associations, donor agencies and private consultancy firms that also provide professional development courses to school leaders in Kenya (Asuga et al 2014:356).

According to Ibrahim (2011:293), the mandate of the KEMI is to identify the professional needs of educational managers and provide in-service training as a way of enhancing their professional competence. Programmes that are offered by the KEMI are mainly focused on the professional development of practising heads rather than aspiring and beginning school heads (Atieno & Simatwa 2012:389). Despite its main focus on in-service programmes for practising school heads, the institute also offers a one-week induction course in Education Management. The programmes that are offered are basically short duration courses that are run over a period of two weeks during the April and August holidays.

Muthini (2004:26), who undertook a study on secondary school head teachers' perceptions towards KESI programmes established that the programmes offered by the institute were anchored on the following core areas: curriculum implementation, supervision and evaluation; guidance, counselling and discipline; office management and record keeping; book keeping and financial control; management of education; physical planning and development; legal provisions in education; and human and public relations. An examination of these core areas clearly shows that the programmes offered by KESI largely focus on improving the managerial leadership competence of school heads. The subjects that constitute the KESI programmes mainly deal with those skills that relate to the practice of management in schools. According to Bush (2007:393), managerial

leadership competences refer to those skills that enhance the capacity of the school head to effectively deal with the day-to-day administrative matters within the school.

Besides the professional development programmes that focus on the core areas stated above, the KEMI website (www.kemi.ac.ke/index.php/courses) indicates that the institute also offers other certificate and diploma courses with a duration of up to a month and a year respectively. The courses are in the following areas: Education Management, ICT, Integration in Education, Financial Management, Certificate in Educational Law, Policy and Reforms, and Public Procurement Regulations among other courses. Week long courses are also offered in Induction, Financial Management, ICT and Education Law.

The programmes offered by KEMI have been subject to criticism by a number of scholars. Firstly, a major shortcoming that has often been associated with these programmes has been the absence of a professional support programme for beginning school heads. Sang (2010:10) laments the managerial gap that is created by the system in Kenya, in which teachers are promoted to positions of headship without adequate preparation in the formative years of their leadership career. The second weakness levelled against the programmes offered by KEMI has been their short duration. Questions have been raised regarding the capacity of the short programmes to impart content that broadly covers the knowledge and skills that are required for school heads to effectively tackle the complex tasks that await them in schools (Ibrahim 2011:293). Besides the problem of short durations, the programmes have also been criticised for not being responsive to the needs of the school heads (Asuga et al 2014:356). This implies that there exists discordance between the needs of school heads and the content of KEMI programmes because the programmes are not informed by a standard competence framework that identifies the kind of basic skills that may be required for school heads. The mismatch emanates from the fact that the programmes are prescribed by the civil service authorities and the donor community without a comprehensive assessment of the training needs and performance gaps that the school heads might highlight themselves (Ibrahim 2011: 294; Ongek 2016:332). According to Asuga et al (2014:356), a report presented by the Ministry of Education on the Kenya Educational Management Capacity Assessment (KEMACA)

established that despite significant funding for leadership development, most school heads remained inadequately prepared for the leadership role as they lacked basic management skills required for headship.

3.8.3 England

The professional development of school heads in England was initiated by the establishment of the NCSL in 2000 (Bush 2016:9; Ingham & Dias 2015:20). The institution was mainly focused on providing leadership training to school heads as a strategy to improve the quality of leadership in schools. Earley (2013:163) avers that the agency, which was recently rebranded into the National College for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) in 2013, provides a leadership curriculum for school leaders at the various levels of aspiring school heads, newly appointed and practising school heads. The National Professional Qualification for Headship (NPQH) for practising school heads is one of the flagship programmes offered by the agency in association with licensed agencies, universities and local education authorities (LEAs) (NCTL:2015:4; Ingham & Dias 2015:60; Bush 2016:14). The programmes, whose maximum duration is up to two years, prepare individual trainees through the provision of mentoring and coaching sessions, practice-based sessions and networking (Earley 2013:141).

Two points are worth noting about the NCTL programmes. A major point to note about the NPQH in particular, is the practical character of the programme. The programme emphasises training within the school environment, which provides opportunities for on-the-job learning (Earley 2013:141). The integration of theory with practice is very essential as it helps to situate the process of learning within the realities of the school situation. Another significant contribution that the NCTL has made to the development of school leadership in England which is worthy acknowledging is the creation of National Leaders of Education (NLE) (Adrian & Dias 2015:65). The NLE is a pool of 'outstanding school leaders' who are trained to work as trainers of peer school leaders that require professional support (Day & Armstrong 2016:260). The NLEs are deployed throughout the country to provide support to beginning school leaders and leaders in schools facing

challenges. The systems approach to leadership, in which school leaders collaborate to share good practices and to improve standards across schools, is highlighted by Simon (2015:545) to be a much preferred option of the NTCL. Naicker and Mestry (2016:4) also attest to the immense contribution that system leadership makes in the transfer of knowledge and skills among schools. This approach brings a somewhat new dimension in school leadership management discourse which emphasizes the centrality of collaborative networking to the school improvement agenda.

The professional development of school heads in England is guided by the National Standards for Excellence for Headteachers (Department of Education 2015:4). The national standards policy provides a framework within which the role and responsibilities of the headteacher are outlined. The framework also makes reference to the six thematic areas that constitute the major knowledge and professional attributes expected of school heads. Day and Armstrong (2016:248), Riley and Mulford (2007:82) as well as NCTL (2015) cite the following thematic areas as the key areas that define performance standards for school heads: shaping the future; leading, learning and teaching; developing self and working with others; managing the organisation; strengthening community through collaboration; and securing accountability. The outline of the thematic areas clearly shows the extent to which NCTL programmes give prominence to issues of crafting the school vision, instructional leadership as well as fostering good relations between the school and the community.

Although programmes that were offered by the then NCSL have changed significantly over the years (Ingham & Dias 2015:64), it is worthy making reference to such programmes like the Headteacher Leadership and Management programme (HEADLAMP) (Bush & Jackson 2002:422) and the New Visions Programme for Early Headship (Bush & Glover 2005:222; Weindling 2003:15). These were induction programmes for beginning school heads in their first two years of headship. The content of these programmes gave prominence to instructional leadership, vision, organisational skills, policy implementation and community relations in leadership preparation. Bush and Oduro (2006:186) also attest that the programmes were indeed instructional focused. The

provision of these programmes highlights the importance of induction as a critical strategy to support beginning school leaders (Lochmiller 2014:60).

Based on the above, it can be stated that the curricula for NCSL programmes clearly show that the selection of content is guided by the leadership standards framework which provides a competence baseline that outlines the basic performance thresholds that are expected of school leaders. It is these basic performance expectations that the NCSL programmes seek to address.

This short exposition of professional development programmes in three other countries rounds off the contextualisation of MDPs undertaken in this chapter.

3.9 SUMMARY

This chapter addressed various issues that are pertinent to the design and implementation of MDPs for newly promoted secondary school heads. The chapter established the theoretical framework underlying the provision of an MDP for BSSHs. Literature that was reviewed stated that learning takes place within a social context, hence instructional approaches that are used in MDPs should be based on the notion of interactive learning within set professional learning communities. The chapter also reviewed literature on the rationale behind the introduction of MDPs for school heads. The literature that was reviewed revealed that the professional development of school leaders has become imperative given the incessant educational reforms that have culminated in additional and increasingly complex responsibilities for school heads.

The chapter also examined the various factors that can be considered in the design of an MDP. An examination of the international trends regarding the content of an MDP was undertaken. Although differences might exist as a result of variances among countries regarding priorities, national values and context, the purpose and focus of an MDP for school heads has generally remained the same.

In the next chapter, the research methodology for the study will be addressed.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters focused on the conceptualisation of management and leadership in schools and the management development programmes (MDP) for beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs) respectively. The overview that was carried out in the previous chapters was aimed at providing insights into the phenomenon of MDPs. This chapter focuses on the research methodology that was employed in this study. In specific terms, the chapter focuses on the rationale for empirical research; research design; the research paradigm; research methods; population and sampling procedures; data collection, presentation and analysis. Issues of ethical considerations and trustworthiness of the study are also dealt with in this chapter.

4.2 RATIONALE FOR EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The research study was aimed at investigating the perceptions of stakeholders regarding MDPs for BSSHs (see research questions in section 1.6.1). Empirical research was extensively conducted in this study in order to unravel evidence that would help to provide answers to the problem under study. Mouly (1978 in Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2011:3) identifies research as an integral component of the entire process of enquiring into the nature of a given phenomenon. In this study, a review of the relevant literature on the professional development of school heads was undertaken in chapters 2 and 3. The findings from the literature study enabled the researcher to gain an insight into the theoretical perspectives underlying the practice of school leadership development. In addition, the survey of literature also helped in setting the direction for the formulation of the theoretical framework and the identification of procedures for the collection, analysis and presentation of data. Empirical data were collected using individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. The rationale for undertaking the empirical research was guided by the need to gain an understanding of the views and experiences

of participants regarding the professional development of novice secondary school heads. The elicitation of the perceptions of stakeholders on the form and structure of an MDP for BSSHs would greatly assist in formulating professional development that addresses the real training needs of BSSHs. It should also be noted that, given the dearth of literature on MDPs in Zimbabwe, this study shall make a meaningful contribution to the body of knowledge on school leadership.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Creswell (2013:5) defines a research design as the research blueprint that provides a visual picture of the entire research process. This definition implies that the research design acts as the logical structure of the research study. The research design acts as the framework for the research study which outlines the strategies of research inquiry as well as the methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. Cohen et al (2011:116) assert that the determination of the research design is dependent upon three factors: the nature of the problem being investigated, the purpose of the research and the philosophical assumptions that researchers bring into the process of research inquiry. As has been stated before, the central focus of this research study was to investigate the perceptions of stakeholders regarding an MDP for BSSHs. In this study, the research design was structured within the context of a phenomenological research study.

The phenomenological research design is based on the thinking that a clear understanding of a phenomenon can only be achieved by examining the views and lived experiences of participants within a given social setting (Creswell 2013:76). This implies that the reality of a phenomenon is actually perceived within the context of meanings of the experiences of participants involved in it. It is evident that human experience is an integral component of qualitative research. The phenomenological research design entails the collection of data from people who have experienced the phenomenon and interpreting such data in order to develop an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study.

The selection of a research design was done on the basis of the principle of “fitness for purpose” (Cohen et al 2011:115). The notion of fitness for purpose refers to the appropriateness of a research design to fulfil its intended outcomes. Given the fact that this study sought to investigate the perceptions of stakeholders regarding MDPs for BSSHs, it was quite befitting that the research design be aligned with phenomenological research because of its suitability for educational research (Cohen et al 2011:219; Creswell 2013:77). It should be stated that the appropriateness of the phenomenological research design in this study was also informed by the researcher’s philosophical assumptions regarding the nature of reality and the ways of enquiring into the nature of a given phenomenon (Creswell 2013:19). These philosophical assumptions influence the researcher’s beliefs that are embedded in research paradigms.

4.3.1 Research paradigm

This research study was guided by the interpretivist paradigm. Creswell (2014:6) states that the selection of a research paradigm is informed by the philosophical assumptions and beliefs that the researcher brings to the study. These assumptions, regarding the nature of reality, help to shape the theoretical-methodological framework that is used by researchers. The way researchers view social reality is strongly influenced by two basic sets of philosophical assumptions: ontology and epistemology (Blanche, Durrheim & Painter 2014:6, Bhattarchejee 2012:18). Ontological assumptions relate to the nature of reality and its characteristics (Creswell 2013:20). This form of assumption is premised on the researcher’s view of the world in terms of the nature of human beings within their social contexts and how meaning can be denoted from the way they behave. Epistemological assumptions are concerned with the question of what is regarded as acceptable knowledge (Bhattarchejee 2012:18). Epistemology is mainly concerned with unravelling how reality can be known. This includes the characteristics, principles and processes that guide the process of acquiring knowledge. These philosophical assumptions that shape the researcher’s beliefs of the way people perceive social reality also have a significant bearing on the methodological approaches that the researcher employs.

Cohen et al (2011:115) contend that the interpretivist paradigm is premised on the idea that the perspectives and experiences of people can be understood better if they are investigated from within the contexts in which they occur. The interpretivist paradigm was selected for this research study because it enabled the researcher to explore data in an in-depth manner in order to gain a detailed understanding of the behaviour and attitudes of people within the contexts of their natural settings. The interpretivist paradigm made a significant contribution to this study by enabling the researcher to understand the viewpoints of the people who held specific experiences regarding the challenges that BSSH face. Babbie, Mouton, Voster and Prozesky (2015:20) assert that the interpretivist paradigm provides an alternative worldview from that of positivism in terms of social reality. Positivism is a paradigm anchored in the thinking that human behaviour is predictable and that it is capable of being observed from the outside. The assumption within the positivist view is that the research methodology that is used in the study of natural sciences can also be used to study the social sciences. The interpretivist paradigm rejects that view and rather contends that there exist fundamental differences between the methods and procedures that are used in the two fields (Babbie et al 2015:20). A major tenet of interpretivism is that research is not objective but it is rather dependent on an understanding of what happens within society. This implies that the researcher must not study society from the outside, but should be directly immersed within the social setting being investigated and in the process be able to understand the subjects' views from within (Thomas 2009:173).

A number of ontological assumptions are embedded within the interpretivist paradigm. The first assumption is that reality is socially constructed through the meanings and understandings that are generated socially (Cohen et al 2011:33). This view subscribes to the interpretivist perspective that states that the best way to study society is through an interpretation of the behaviour and perceptions of people regarding certain social phenomena. Secondly, reality is indirectly constructed on the basis of individual interpretation and it is subjective. The third assumption is that people interpret and derive meaning out of events. Fourthly, it is also assumed that events are distinctive and cannot be generalised. The fifth and last assumption states that a single incident can be reported

from a variety of perspectives depending on people's views and experiences. Based on these assumptions, it is important to note that social phenomena are viewed differently from the perspectives of various individuals and it is incumbent upon the researcher to reconcile these divergent perceptions in the process of research inquiry.

According to Bryman (2012:28), the interpretivist paradigm gives a contrasting perspective from the positivist view in terms of how knowledge is acquired. Interpretivism acknowledges the fundamental differences between natural sciences and social sciences to the extent that social research requires a research procedure that incorporates human action and perceptions. The major epistemological assumption that characterises the interpretivist paradigm is that knowledge is acquired through approaches that recognise the divergences between people. In this regard, it is vital for the researcher to appreciate that knowledge is gained by interpreting the perceptions and experiences of individuals within given social settings. The second assumption relates to the relationship between theory and research. The interpretivist paradigm subscribes to the inductive approach which asserts that theory is a product of research. The inductive approach is a systematic procedure for analysing data with a specific purpose of generating new theory from it (Yin 2011:94). The third assumption is that knowledge is acquired through personal experiences and finally, that knowledge arises from particular situations and that it cannot be reduced to simplistic interpretation. These assumptions play a critical role in shaping the methods that can be used to acquire information.

4.3.2 Research approach

As indicated in the previous discussion, the research approach selected for this study was largely influenced by the nature of the research problem and the philosophical assumptions characterising the researcher's beliefs. This study took the form of qualitative research as it was aimed at investigating the perceptions of stakeholders regarding an MDP for BSSHs. The decision to situate the study within the framework of the qualitative research approach had a bearing on the selection of the research strategy, data collection instruments and the method of data analysis.

Creswell (2013:44) asserts that qualitative research is associated with naturalistic enquiry which seeks to understand a specific phenomenon from the perspectives of individuals within a given social context. Qualitative research is premised on the view that human beings construct their own understanding of society, in which they live and work, through the development of certain experiences which affect their behaviour and view of situations (Cohen et al 2011:219). Based on the above, it can be stated that a full understanding of a given situation can only be achieved if the researcher relies on participants' views of the problem under study. In this instance, the qualitative research approach was found to be suitable as it enabled the researcher to examine the phenomenon within the social context in which it occurred by making sense of the participants' perceptions and experiences in order to generate knowledge about it.

Babbie et al (2015:270) aver that the appropriateness of a research approach is crucial for the researcher to gain a clear understanding of the problem under study. Flick (2014:12) echoes the same view by stating that the decision to employ qualitative research is determined by the realisation that the research problem under study could be interrogated better by using this approach rather than a different one. Based on the nature of the research problem, it is apparent that this research study required a situated approach in which the researcher would not only investigate the problem within the context in which it occurred, but would also examine the situation from the perspective of the participants. It is for this reason that qualitative research was preferred, as an approach, ahead of quantitative research.

From a comparative standpoint, quantitative and qualitative research represent two distinct world views of social reality to the extent that the key differences characterising these two approaches have a bearing on determining the research strategy, data collection instruments and the method of data analysis. Cohen et al (2011:7) state that the quantitative research is informed by the positivist world view in which phenomena are studied and analysed based on the laws of nature. This implies that quantitative research is largely predictive as research often commences with a predetermined hypothesis. Besides, the researcher is bound to study the phenomenon through observation from the

outside (etic perspective) in order to establish issues of causation and generalisability of findings. It is apparent that quantitative research views participants as objects of study whose experiences about the topic under study are not worth taking into account. This poses a serious challenge for the capacity of quantitative research to be effectively applied to the study of human behaviour. Cohen et al (2011:7) posit that human behaviour is so complex that it can only be fully understood if the perspectives and actions of participants are examined from within the natural settings in which they occur.

Unlike quantitative research, qualitative research bears certain characteristics that make it the appropriate research approach to study social phenomena. As has been explained earlier, qualitative research is a situated activity that seeks to examine problems within the social contexts in which the participants experience them (Creswell 2013:45). In this study, the main aim was to investigate the perceptions of stakeholders regarding an MDP for BSSHs. The interrogation of participants' perspectives on the problem under study was central to this research study as the researcher directly interacted with the participants to gather their views (See sections 4.4.2.1 & 4.4.2.2). Secondly, the qualitative approach is subjective to the use of multiple sources of data, which allows for triangulation and verification. A variety of data collection methods such as individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis were used in this study.

Another characteristic of qualitative research is that it is emergent in design. This implies that qualitative research is largely flexible, rather than predetermined in terms of planning, thereby allowing the researcher to make changes to all stages of the research process (Creswell 2013:47). The purpose of making certain changes is mainly to ensure that the optimum conditions for the collection of in-depth empirical evidence that might help to unravel the research problem under study are achieved. In this study, open-ended interviews were employed to enable the researcher to make follow-up questions to gain clarity on certain issues.

A fourth characteristic of qualitative research relates to its holistic approach to research enquiry. The approach involves multiple perspectives and takes into consideration the

various factors that are at play within a given situation thereby developing a broader picture of the problem under study. In this study, a review of literature was undertaken in chapters 2 and 3 to provide a theoretical perspective on the problem under study. This was followed up by an empirical study in which relevant documents were reviewed while the perceptions of various categories of participants (school inspectors, school heads, deputy heads and senior teachers) were gathered for analysis.

Lastly, another characteristic of qualitative research is that the approach is largely associated with inductive reasoning. Cohen et al (2011:4) and Creswell (2013:45) state that qualitative research follows an empirical procedure in which the researcher collects and organises data into patterns, categories and themes. The data are then analysed, interpreted and synthesized into findings that culminate into a hypothesis. In this study, the researcher employed a 'bottom up' approach to the study. Data were collected and analysed to denote emerging themes, which became the basis upon which research findings could be made.

4.3.3 Research strategy

This research study specifically used the case study as a strategy to interrogate the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the content and typology of an MDP for BSSHs. A case study can be defined as an in-depth investigation of a specific phenomenon that is bounded according to time, space and other physical parameters within its real-life context (Creswell 2013:975; Gray 2009:247). According to Cohen et al (2011:289), a case study focuses on a specific unit of analysis as an element of naturalistic enquiry that provides a unique example of real-life situations. In this particular study, the case study was used to explore and analyse the perceptions of selected participants (school heads, deputy heads, senior teachers and school inspectors) in order to gain a better understanding of their views on an envisaged MDP for novice secondary school heads. The use of the case study as a strategy also enabled the researcher to provide a vivid description of the participants' experiences, beliefs and attitudes concerning the research problem under study. The strategy also allowed for the use of multiple sources of data

that range from interviews to documents which will assist in the triangulation of data (Cohen et al 2011:223). Regarding the specific study design, this research study used the embedded single case study design. The embedded single case study design is a form of a single case study in which more than one unit of analysis uses several sub-categories of participants as multiple sources of evidence. In line with the tenets of the embedded single case study design, this research study used the several sub-units of school heads, deputy heads, senior teachers and school inspectors in selected sites within Zaka district to explore the underlying perceptions regarding the professional development of BSSHs. The use of various sub-units of analysis within a case study had the distinct benefit of replicating evidence, a thing which enhanced the probability of achieving credible findings.

Critics of case study research have cited a number of shortcomings associated with it. Punch (2012:145) and Yin (2011:15) argue that the major shortcoming of a case study is that it is often limited in its scope to the extent that it provides little basis for generalisation. Despite this shortcoming, the benefits of using the case study far outweigh the shortcomings. The case study approach is associated with a number of advantages. Firstly, the case study is widely regarded as an appropriate tool for the conduct of research within the field of education (Yazan 2015:134). Secondly, the strategy allows for an in-depth exploration of behaviour patterns and perceptions of participants within a particular unit of analysis in which they occur. This mode of research strategy enables the researcher to be directly immersed within the setting in which research occurs. Thirdly, the case study approach also allows for the use of multiple sources of evidences as well as the use of a range of methods for data collection. Interviews, observations, document analysis and opinion surveys are some of the methods that can be used to gather data in case studies (Bhattarchejee 2012:40). The use of the various approaches promotes triangulation and validation of data.

The fourth advantage of the case study is that it can vividly describe events and behaviour patterns within real-life situations in a manner that quantitative methods, such as experiments cannot achieve. However, this is not to say that the case study should be

viewed as a purely qualitative approach. Rather, the case study can use both qualitative and quantitative approaches to collect and analyse data.

4.4 RESEARCH METHODS

Creswell (2014:16) succinctly refers to research methods as that range of approaches that are used for purposes of data collection, analysis and interpretation in order to provide a solution to the research problem. This section briefly addresses issues of population and sampling, data collection and data analysis.

4.4.1 Sample and sampling procedure

The population for this study consisted of school inspectors, school heads, deputy heads and seniors teachers. McMillan (1996:85) refers to a population as a group of elements or cases, in the form of individuals or objects, which conform to specific criteria and to whom the researcher intends to generalise the research results. The study was undertaken in the district of Zaka, which is located in the Masvingo Province to the South East of Zimbabwe. The district comprises 42 secondary schools. Although the secondary schools belong to different responsible authorities ranging from central government, Christian missions and the local district authority, the promotion and appointment of heads in these schools is largely the prerogative of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE). School heads are initially appointed into headship from the ranks of senior teachers as deputy heads who can then rise to the level of head. Since the promotion and appointment of school heads is centralised, it can be stated, in terms of this study, that cases of beginning school heads are homogeneous when it comes to their development needs as weighted against the performance expectations required by MoPSE. This is notwithstanding the fact that there are variations that affect the needs of BSSHs due to differences in inter alia the values, cultures and contexts of the schools, which this study will not cover.

The sample for this study comprised a total of 10 secondary schools that were selected through a process of purposive sampling. The district education office in Zaka district also formed part of the sample. As indicated in table 1.1, a total of 28 participants were initially selected to participate in the study but only 27 participants took part in the study. One of the deputy heads who had been selected for a focus group discussion did not turn up. The participants consisted of five BSSHs, five practising school heads, four deputy heads and ten senior teachers. In addition, three school inspectors from the district education office were also selected through purposive sampling. Deputy heads and senior teachers were drawn from the five selected secondary schools headed by established school heads while beginning school heads were selected from the other five separate schools. This was done in order to ensure that beginning school heads would not feel inhibited by the participation of deputy heads and senior teachers from their schools on the same subject.

Nueman (2000:195) refers to sampling as the process of selecting individuals or units from a broader population under study. The smaller group, so selected, gives the researcher the opportunity to collect data, study it and obtain results that may be valuable to others where similar circumstances prevail. The idea of sampling is informed by the fact that a researcher may not be able to study an entire population owing to constraints of time, cost and accessibility (Cohen et al 2011:143). Sampling is therefore a necessary strategy to overcome these challenges and also to ensure that the knowledge acquired from a study of the portion of the larger group is representative of the total population under study.

Mertens (2015:319) cites the critical importance of sampling when conducting both quantitative and qualitative research. Despite the importance of sampling to both paradigms, it should, however, be noted that qualitative and quantitative researchers approach sampling in different ways. Unlike quantitative researchers, qualitative researchers use non-probability sampling strategies. A typical example of qualitative sampling is purposive sampling, which is used in the selection of participants for this study. Teddlie and Yu (2007:77) identify purposive sampling as a technique that is used

in qualitative research to select subjects and units that can be included in the research. The selection of participants is deliberate to ensure that the researcher uses his own determination to denote those subjects with the relevant characteristics and who can be relied upon to provide the information that is being sought. In purposive sampling, the sample is constructed in a manner that helps to achieve the purpose of the research. Kombo and Tromp (2009:83) assert that it is vital for the researcher to purposefully target subjects who have an in-depth knowledge of the particular issues being investigated. In terms of this study, purposive sampling enabled the researcher to select participants on the basis of their professional role and experience in relation to the issues under study.

The selection of different categories of participants through a process of purposive sampling implies that this study employed the maximum variation sampling approach. According to Suri (2011:67), the use of a maximum variation sample enables the researcher to yield a detailed description of the various aspects of a phenomenon as experienced and perceived by the diverse stakeholders within their unique contexts. The maximum variation sampling approach was therefore used to harness the diverse views of the participants regarding the subject of the components of an MDP for BSSHs and to interrogate the shared patterns of perceptions that cut across this heterogeneous sample. The sample was typically heterogeneous as it drew participants with diverse backgrounds, views and perceptions regarding the subject under study. In fact, the sample drew from the different categories of participants who had an interest in headship ranging across the professional continuum from senior teachers (aspiring to be school heads), deputy school heads, beginning school heads, practising school heads and school inspectors (previously served as school heads before promotion to current post). According to this study, beginning school heads are those incumbents that have been promoted to the post of school head and who have less than two years' headship experience while practising school heads are those who have had more than two years' headship experience.

The sample size was deliberately made small because the participants in the case study generally depicted common traits that were found to be characteristic of the larger

population under study (Cohen et al 2011:145). Cohen et al (2011: 144) further state that there are no clear guidelines regarding the size of the sample in qualitative research. Rather, the size of the sample must be determined by the purpose of the study. This implies that the decision regarding the size of the sample must be undertaken with a clear consideration of the goals of the research. Blanche et al (2014:49) state that since qualitative research is less concerned with statistics but deals with an in-depth analysis of perceptions, it does not require a large sample. The researcher was therefore cautious so as to ensure that the sample size was not too small as to impede generalisability but large enough to afford representativeness and generate rich data that would enable the research questions to be answered. The small size of the sample also enabled the researcher to undertake an in-depth inquiry of the case study within the constraints of the available time and resources. Since the sample population was homogeneous, it was anticipated that the small sample size would enable the researcher to collect data up to saturation point. Creswell (2014:189) refers to the saturation point as that state when further collection of information does not provide new meaningful insights. A large sample size, in this instance, would only result in the repetition of data that would be collected.

Table 4.1: Number of participants according to category and research site.

Category of participants	Research Site(s)	No. of participants per research site	Total
School inspectors	District Education Office	3	3
Beginning school heads	5 selected schools	1	5
Practising school heads	5 selected schools	1	5
Deputy heads	5 selected schools	1	5
Senior masters	5 selected schools	2	10
		Total	28

4.4.2 Data collection

The researcher used interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis as the main data collection instruments in this study. Cohen et al (2011:223) identify the interview approach as the major instrument that is used in qualitative research. The interview is deemed appropriate because it allows for the collection of rich data about people's experiences, perceptions and attitudes regarding the phenomenon under study. The researcher also collected secondary data from such sources as vacancy announcement circulars, the CSC training and development policy, relevant statutory instruments and MoPSE policy circulars. The use of interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis enabled the triangulation of data, something that contributed towards the generation of credible findings.

4.4.2.1 Interviews

An interview is a data collection tool that uses verbal and non-verbal interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee(s) in order to elicit the latter's attitudes, behaviours and experiences about a certain phenomenon (Gray 2009:369; Bless, Higson-Smith & Sithole 2013:193). Since this study was based on an investigation of stakeholders' perceptions, attitudes and experiences regarding the phenomenon under study, the interview method was found to be appropriate for eliciting valuable data about people's views within a social context.

Individual semi-structured interviews were used to collect data from the three school inspectors, the five beginning school heads and the five practising school heads regarding what they perceived to be the training needs of BSSHs. The one-on-one interview was preferred for school inspectors because it provided them with an opportunity to provide insights into the topic of research as this category of participants wielded diverse experiences emanating from their professional backgrounds as former school heads and current supervisors of schools and school heads respectively. Individual semi-structured interviews were also conducted for beginning school heads and practising school heads

because the researcher anticipated that these participants might not be comfortable to discuss their performance deficiencies in focus group interviews in which they might be asked to participate alongside their peers. Interview guides were used to provide guidance to the researcher in the process of interviewing participants (See Appendices F, G & H).

Cohen et al (2011:414) cite the structured and the non-structured interview as the two major types of interviews. Structured interviews involve the use of standardised questions that are administered to participants. A major shortcoming of structured interviews, however, is that this form of interview is too rigid as it denies the researcher the flexibility to alter the nature of questioning in search of a deeper understanding of the phenomenon under study. This implies that this form of interview is not ideal for use in this study.

Semi-structured interviews are the other type of interview that constitutes the empirical backbone of qualitative research (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman & Pedersen 2013:295). This type of interview involves the use of non-standardised questions. These are open-ended questions that are developed as a guide to remind the researcher of the key areas that require interrogation (Gray 2009:373). This implies that the questions are not strictly crafted as is the case with questions in a structured interview. The open-ended nature of the questions gives the researcher the flexibility to adapt the order and frame of questions to the direction the interview takes. Further, semi-structured interviews also allow for additional questions to be posed by the interviewer. The fact that this form of interview grants the interviewer the freedom to follow up on issues raised within an interview is very critical as it facilitates a deeper understanding of the participants' perspectives.

As has been previously stated, semi-structured interviews are regarded as the most ideal data collection tool for a qualitative study. This is mainly because this form of interview is associated with a number of advantages. According to Yin (2011:134), semi-structured interviews allow for a social relationship to blossom between the interviewer and interviewee. The social relationship, in Yin's view, puts the interview in a conversational mode to the extent that the environment obtaining within the interview enables the

researcher to probe more deeply certain issues that were previously unanticipated. In fact, this form of interview allows the researcher to follow up on issues that require clarification. Another benefit attached to semi-structured interviews is the fact that they are conducted within the context in which the research occurs (Creswell 2013:161). This implies that data are collected within the natural setting in which participants experience the problem under study. The situated nature of semi-structured interviews helps the researcher to gain a full understanding of how the phenomenon unfolds as perceived by the participant (the emic perspective), which is a cornerstone of qualitative study (Marshall & Rossman 2006:101).

The researcher was cognisant of some of the limitations associated with semi-structured interviews (Hofisi, Hofisi & Mago 2014:62; Cohen et al 2011:414). Firstly, the flexibility of data collected through semi-structured interviews might imply that the reliability can be questioned. In order to overcome this problem, data collected through interviews is validated through a process of triangulation with data collected through secondary data analysis. Secondly, the subjectivity of in-depth interviews might cause participants either to say what the interviewer wants to hear or to withhold valuable information from the interviewer because of fear of perceived ramifications that might befall them. This implies that semi-structured interviews are vulnerable to participant bias. In order to mitigate this problem, an intensive audit trail and member-checking was carried out to verify and corroborate data collected through interviews with data collected using other sources. The researcher also made an extra effort to build trust with the participants as a way of building confidence among them so as to ensure that they would participate well in the interview process.

4.4.2.2 Focus group interviews

A focus group can be defined as an assembly of individuals with certain common characteristics who engage in a discussion on a given theme (Dilshad & Latif 2013:192). Cohen et al (2011:409) state that a focus group interview involves verbal interaction between two or more people on a subject of interest with the purpose to exchange ideas.

The focus group strategy is a qualitative strategy that allows researchers to interrogate the perceptions of several participants in a single encounter (Gray 2009:233). The definitions cited above imply that the concept of focus groups can best be understood from the phenomenological perspective, which asserts that knowledge is socially constructed (Marshall & Rossman 2006:114). This view emphasises the notion of social interaction as a strategy for exploring people's attitudes, perceptions and experiences about certain phenomena.

According to Acocella (2012:1128), focus groups provide participants with an opportunity to identify collective perspectives and share experiences. Besides, the focus group strategy can also help to identify the areas of convergence and divergence within the perspectives of participants in a single focus group. A major strength of this form of interview is that it enables the researcher to directly participate on the same platform with interviewees and discern their perceptions regarding a particular situation. Regarding access to participants, focus group discussions are better placed than other data collection procedures.

In this study, focus group interviews were held for the five deputy heads and the 10 senior teachers drawn from the five selected schools to elicit a solid understanding of the challenges affecting BSSHs. Senior teachers were divided into two focus groups with each focus group comprising five participants. This brought the total number of focus group interviews to three. Focus group interview guides were used to enable the researcher to field questions that addressed critical aspects of participants' perspectives about the topic under study (see Appendices I & J). As a way of ensuring confidentiality within the focus group interviews involving senior teachers, either of the two participants drawn from each school was deployed to a separate focus group. The two focus groups convened at venues that were purposively identified by the researcher on the basis of their centrality and easy accessibility to participants. Focus group discussions with deputy heads and senior teachers helped to provide insight into the training needs of school heads from the perspective of those aspiring to be school heads. As a way of validating data, the researcher also held individual interviews with selected participants to seek

clarification on information obtained from certain participants who had been interviewed earlier in focus group interviews. The individual interviews were also undertaken as a way of assessing the credibility of data.

The use of individual interviews and focus group interviews for the different categories of participants in this study was part of the researcher's multi-method approach to collect data as the two methods are capable of complementing each other (Guest, Namey, Taylor, Eley & McKenna 2017:693). Individual interviews were used to examine the individual experiences, perceptions and feelings of school heads and school inspectors on the sensitive issues regarding the challenges that school heads face in the early years of school leadership. On the other hand, focus group interviews were also used to examine the shared perceptions and beliefs that were generated and shared among the relatively homogeneous groups of deputy school heads and senior teachers. The social interaction within the focus group, which reflects the manner in which individuals form opinions in the real world through interacting and conversing, enabled the researcher to obtain rich data from the discussions (Dilshad & Latif 2013:192; Boateng 2012:54).

4.4.2.3 Document analysis

The use of secondary data as a source of information is widely practised in qualitative research. According to Johnston (2014:619) secondary data analysis entails the examination of data that was compiled by someone else for a certain primary purpose. In this study, document analysis was used to review such documents as the vacancy announcement circulars (See Appendix U), the Civil Service Commission (CSC) training policy, relevant statutory instruments (SI) and MoPSE policy circulars were examined. The documents provided the researcher with vital information, which enabled the researcher to obtain an insight into the nature of performance expectations and training needs characterising the role of secondary school heads.

The importance of documents as a source of data is highlighted by Marshall and Rossman (2006:107). They identify archived documents as a potentially rich source of data from

which researchers can access valuable information regarding the phenomenon under study. Barbour (2014:301) also asserts that the analysis of documents helps the researcher to gain a historical understanding of the social problems that relate to certain phenomena. The study of such documents also enables the researcher to identify and analyse trends characterising the behaviours and perceptions of the given participants. This explains the critical importance of documentary analysis as a supplement to other data gathering approaches.

Some scholars have identified several constraints associated with the use of documents in data collection. Barbour (2014:302) opines that documents are a product of their place and time and, as such, historical records of perceptions and situations cannot give a correct picture of a social setting. This implies that the researcher must exercise utmost care in considering the relevance of such data to the current situation under investigation. The other practical challenge associated with the use of documents relates to the difficulties that the researcher may encounter in accessing archived data within institutions.

Barbour (2014:303) also points to a common limitation of document analysis when he states that researchers often fail to analyse documents meaningfully as they lack a full understanding of the context in which such documents were developed. Researchers must therefore gather sufficient background knowledge that will enable them to gain a better understanding of the data.

A document analysis guide was constructed to guide the researcher in the review of relevant documents (See Appendix K). As previously indicated, vacancy announcement circulars from the CSC that outline the responsibilities of the school head were reviewed so as to gain insight into the inventory of standard technical skills and competences required for the post of secondary school head. Armstrong (2012:210) contends that training needs can be identified on the basis of an outline of the roles that are expected of school leaders. The role profile is, therefore, a basis upon which performance can be measured against set expectations.

The researcher was cognisant of the limitations of each individual data collection method hence the use of the multiple methods is meant to enable the various methods to complement each other. The use of the various data collection methods also enabled the researcher to enhance the corroboration of data and accuracy. Cohen et al (2011:22) state that using plural approaches reduces the risk of bias as well as polarisation and affinity to a single research approach. Multiple methods can also be relied upon to measure the credibility of collected data through a process of triangulation.

4.4.2.4 Pilot study

Piloting is a strategy of pre-testing research instruments in order for the researcher to gain feedback on the appropriateness, reliability, validity and practicability of the instruments (Cohen et al 2011:402). In this study, a pilot study was conducted in preparation for the major research study. The pilot study targeted participants who match the characteristics of the participants in the main study but who were not part of those purposively sampled for the real empirical study. The purpose of the pilot study was multi-fold. Firstly, the pilot study was conducted to pre-test the interview guide and assess the clarity of the interview guide as well as the order of questions. The pilot study was also undertaken in order to determine whether the interviewees had a clear understanding of the research questions. The researcher also checked the complexity levels of the language used in the interview guide in order to ascertain that it matched with the level of cognition of the participants. The pilot study thus provided the researcher with an opportunity to deal with any ambiguities or omissions that might be identified within the research instruments. The feasibility study was also done to measure the extent to which the interview schedules conformed to the duration of the interviews that were set. This gave the researcher the opportunity to denote whether a particular interview guide was too long or too short. In addition, the feasibility study was quite beneficial to the researcher as it helped to identify potential problems associated with the administration of the research instruments in the preliminary stages ahead of the main study. This gave the researcher the opportunity to adjust and make corrective measures well ahead of the main study. In this study, the researcher engaged the services of one school inspector

and one school head who were not part of the study sample to pre-test the interview guide. Focus group interviews for deputy heads and senior teachers in schools that were not part of the sample were also conducted for the purpose of testing the appropriateness of the interview schedules.

4.4.2.5 Gaining access to conduct research

It is essential that the researcher endeavours to gain access to research sites. Cohen et al (2011:168) aver that access to research sites may be acquired through gate-keepers. Regarding this research study, gate-keepers are those who control access to educational institutions such as headmasters, education officers and responsible authorities. A formal request for permission to conduct research in selected sites in Zaka district was lodged with the MoPSE. Once granted, the written permission was used to request for access to schools and the school inspectors (See Appendices Q, R and S).

Cohen et al (2011:168) cite a number of problems that impede researchers from gaining access to educational research sites. The political situation within the research sites can affect the researcher's access as participants may not be willing to cooperate with strangers. Besides, gate-keepers may impede the researcher's efforts to collect data if they feel such data may expose their incapacities. In order to deal with these problems, the researcher strived to gain the confidence of participants by explaining to them the purpose of the research and how the research sites stand to benefit from such research. It was also ideal to set out clearly how the research would be undertaken in terms of data collection procedures. In essence, the researcher made it a point to address the concerns of the participants and establish trust so as to ensure that they were comfortable to express their perceptions clearly without hindrance.

4.4.3 Data analysis

Data analysis is a critical process in research as it enables the researcher to progress towards the realisation of findings by extracting meaning from collected data. Cohen et al

(2011:537) refer to data analysis as the process of arranging and interpreting data according to defined patterns, themes and categories. Since this research study falls within the qualitative research design, it implies that the process of analysing qualitative data involves making sense of the collected data through an analysis of the participants' perceptions of the situation and their relationships within their social context (Cohen et al 2011:537; Bless et al 2013:339). This implies that the process of data analysis seeks to construct meaning out of the people's lived experiences as transmitted through the participants' own words.

The data analysis procedure used in this study follows the basic steps as suggested by Creswell (2014:197) in the diagram below. The diagram illustrates the six steps that were followed in the qualitative data analysis process within this research study. The steps are presented in a bottom to top hierarchical order. The first step involves organising and preparing the data for analysis. At this stage, data that were collected through interviews and document analysis were arranged and sorted into different categories.

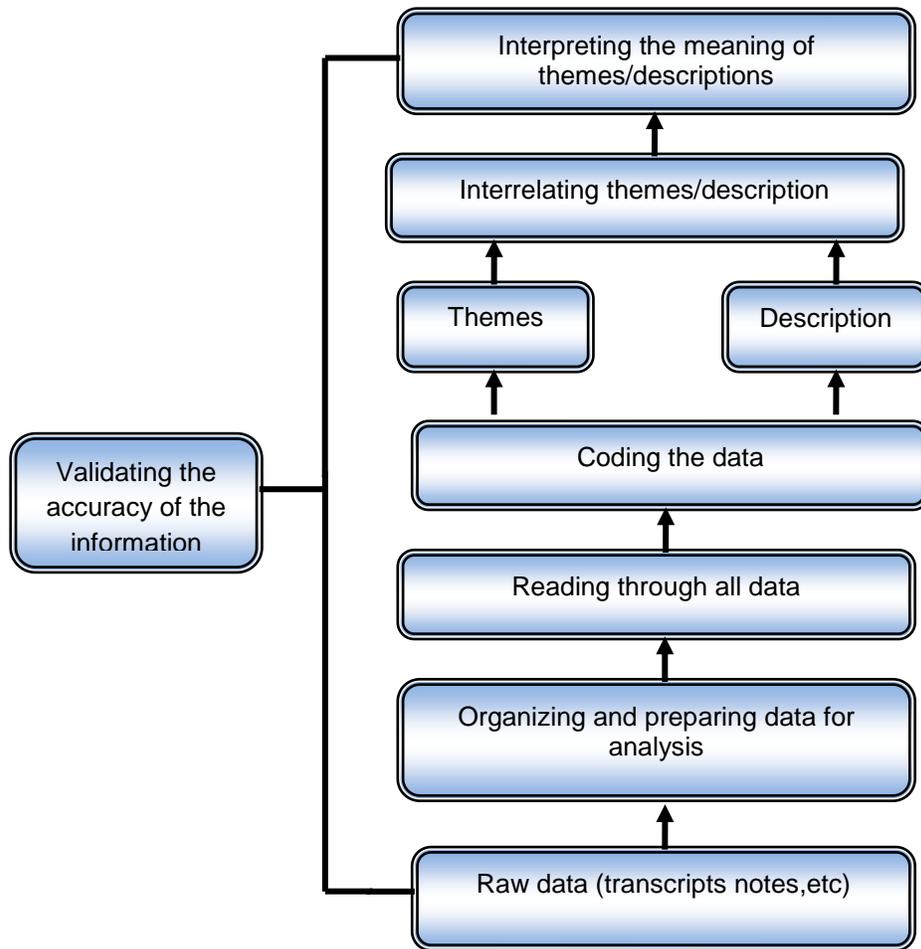


Figure 4.1: Data analysis procedure

Adapted from Creswell (2014:197)

In the second step, the researcher sifted through all the data in order to gain a deeper understanding of the information that had been collected. The coding process marked the beginning of intensive data analysis within the third step. A code can be defined as a name or label that is given to a piece of text that bears a certain idea. According to Cohen et al (2011:559), coding is a critical element of qualitative research design as it enables the researcher to organise data into segments by grouping information with the same ideas into specific categories. According to Johnstone (2014:620) the process of coding collected data involves interpreting what participants mean as they respond to interview questions. In order to achieve proper coding, it is important that the coder has sufficient

background knowledge regarding the area of research study. An understanding of the area of study enabled the researcher to derive correct meaning out of the data.

The fourth step entailed the use of the coding process to generate detailed descriptions of the participants in terms of their perceptions, location and setting. As a result of the coding process, the researcher was able to identify similar information from which themes and categories are generated. These themes were then used to denote the major findings in the research study.

The fifth step involved the narrative description of the themes and the presentation of illustrations and citations as a way of conveying the findings of the qualitative data analysis. Tables and figures were also used to present the data.

The sixth step is the final step in which interpretations were made from the analysed data. In this instance, the researcher made a comparison of the research findings and the information obtained from the theoretical framework and the literature study to determine whether the findings confirmed or diverged from what is already known. Imenda (2014:188) argues that theory acts as a measure to determine the extent to which research findings match with the theoretical framework. This shows the critical role that the theoretical framework and literature study play in situating the research study within the context of the methodology used to collect, interpret and analyse data. It should also be noted that the interpretation of data also presents the researcher with an opportunity to develop new insights that had not been anticipated earlier in the study but which may require further interrogation.

4.4.4 Measures for trustworthiness of data

The notion of trustworthiness of data is vital in determining the extent to which the research study of a particular phenomenon reflects the contextual reality of the situation. Trustworthiness of data refers to the extent to which a research study is acceptable, honest and capable of being generalised to the wider population (Cohen et al 2011:179).

The four constructs that are critical in gauging the trustworthiness of a research study are credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability. According to Babbie et al (2015:278) these constructs are a measure of the trustworthiness of qualitative research in as much as validity and reliability are to quantitative research. In order to ensure that the researcher would establish facts that are valid and worthy of replication by other researchers, the research study was undertaken in the natural settings within which the study was situated. The researcher also used a multi-method approach (making triangulation possible) in the collection of data in order to ascertain the verification of data by one data collection method against the other. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:168) assert that the data collection stage required different types of triangulation in order to verify the accuracy of data. In this instance, data collected from interviews was compared with data collected from documentary analysis. Collecting data from different research sites (space triangulation) also helped in verifying the authenticity and confirmability of such data. The researcher also continued to remain in the field until the data saturation point was attained as a way of ensuring that adequate data were collected. Member checks were conducted to verify the data collected in liaison with the sources of data.

In terms of transferability of the research findings, the researcher ensured that the sample was representative enough and that the findings of the study were capable of being generalised to other similar situations through a rigorous process of analysis and verification of data.

Intensive audit trails were conducted in respect of data collected through interviews and document analysis. This exercise was necessary as a measure to determine the relationship between sources of data and collected data, interpretations and conclusions made in the study. Cohen et al (2011:199) assert that the process of ascertaining the dependability of information is critical in order for the study to be consistent and capable of confirmation if a similar study were to be carried out in the same context.

4.4.5 Triangulation

Cohen et al (2011:195) define triangulation as the use of two or more methods of data collection in social research. Triangulation is associated with the mixed method approach, which entails the use of a range of methods in the study of a social phenomenon (Wagner et al 2012:168; Punch & Vancea 2014:344). The rationale for the use of triangulation in social research stems from the fact that social reality is complex and dynamic to the extent that it is difficult to understand human behaviour on the basis of data collected by a single method (Yeasman & Rahman 2012:55; Cohen et al 2011:195). This implies that the single method approach cannot be relied upon to provide sufficient data as it provides a narrow insight into the study of human behaviour.

Yeasman and Rahman (2012:55) identify several benefits that are realised by using triangulation in social research. Firstly, the use of a single method of data collection is associated with a high risk of bias as the researcher's view of social reality is restricted to a single source of information. The use of multiple methods helps to overcome the problem of method-boundedness (Cohen et al 2011:196). Secondly, triangulation provides the researcher with an opportunity to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study from the several perspectives presented by the data collection methods being used. The different methods provide different angles and this can help to enhance the confirmability, credibility and validation of findings, especially if the various methods yield the same results (Cohen et al 2011:195). This implies that triangulation can be used as a powerful tool for the corroboration of data. Lastly, the use of different data collection methods enables the strengths of one method to complement the deficiencies of the other. This helps to achieve completeness in the process of collecting data.

In this study, methodological and space triangulation were used to investigate the perceptions of participants regarding the management development needs of BSSHs. The use of these triangulation approaches helped the researcher to gain a complete view of the phenomenon under study. Methodological triangulation enabled the researcher to

cross-check data collected by using different methods in order to determine consistency. Data collected from interviews were compared with data obtained from document analysis. The collection of data from participants drawn from a number of schools (10 schools in this study) also brought into this study the factor of space triangulation. This enabled the researcher to compare data obtained from schools with different contexts and sub-cultures.

4.4.6 Ethical considerations

The observance of ethics in research has become a fundamental best practice worldwide (Blanche et al 2014:6, Mertens 2015:347). There has been increasing advocacy from within the research fraternity for the establishment of ethical codes and standards that regulate the behaviour of researchers in relation to the treatment of participants in research. The rationale behind the notion of research ethics is based on increasing concerns about the risks of violating participants' rights during the conduct of research (Creswell 2013:95). Ethics, therefore, seek to strike a balance between the quest for scientific inquiry and the need to protect participants from possible harm.

Research ethics refer to the moral principles that guide research (Gray 2009:69). Bless et al (2013:28) assert that the term 'ethics' is related to the term 'morality' which deals with whether certain behaviour is right or wrong. This implies that research ethics is mainly concerned with determining whether the behaviour of the researcher is in keeping with set ethical principles. The involvement of people as participants in a study requires that the researcher conforms to certain ethical principles and guidelines that regulate the researcher's behaviour in terms of upholding the rights of the participants within the study (Yin 2011:46). The ethical considerations that a researcher ought to adhere to are mainly based on the ethical principles of non-maleficence, beneficence, autonomy, fidelity and the respect of participants' rights (Bless et al 2013:29).

The principle of non-maleficence states that participants must not be subjected to physical or emotional harm during the course of a research study. Beneficence is the other ethical

principle and it states that research must not negatively affect participants but must rather seek to improve the welfare of people (Cohen et al 2011:85). Autonomy refers to the basic freedoms that individuals enjoy and which provide the individual with the latitude to choose whether to participate in research or not. The respect for participants' rights is therefore a fundamental principle of research ethics. This principle is based on the Human Rights Charter, which states that human beings must not only enjoy rights and protections but that they must be treated with dignity, equality and without discrimination (Bless et al 2013:28). On the basis of the principle discussed above, this researcher ensured that certain ethical considerations regarding participants' rights to informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity (right to privacy) and protection from harm were observed.

4.4.6.1 Informed consent

The principle of informed consent is based on the thinking that participants have a right to self-determination and as such they have the latitude to elect whether to take part in research or not (Cohen et al 2011:77). This implies that participants must be adequately furnished with information regarding the nature of the research as well as its risks and benefits so that they are able to make informed choices. A vivid explanation of the purpose and significance of the study as well as the rights of participants were made so that the participants freely chose to participate after having been informed of the facts underlying the study. Participants were given information sheets that provided details about the research study and the nature of participation that was expected of them (See Appendices L & N). The researcher also visited participants in their respective schools and other designated research sites to explain the purpose of the study and the possible benefits likely to emanate from the study. An assurance was given to the participants that information provided by them during the interviews would be kept confidential. Furthermore, participants were assured that they would be free to discontinue their participation at any time if they felt so. Participants were also assured that those who chose to discontinue would have their wishes respected and that they would not be prejudiced on the basis of their decision to stop participating. Participants were then requested to complete an informed consent form as testimony to the fact that they would

have understood the explanation provided by the researcher in respect of their participation (See Appendices L, M, N, O & P).

4.4.6.2 Confidentiality and participants' right to privacy

Confidentiality and the right to privacy are the other ethical requirements that were observed in this study. In respect of confidentiality, participants were assured that information provided by the participants would not be divulged to the public. Bless et al (2013:33) assert that data collected from participants must be securely protected as a way of ensuring the safety, dignity and identity of participants. The disclosure of highly sensitive information about the participants could be detrimental to the participants hence this researcher ensured that all data collected was kept secure.

Linked to the principle of confidentiality is the participants' right to privacy. Participants have the right to remain anonymous during the course of their involvement in the study. In this study, the researcher maintained the anonymity of participants by ensuring that names of participants were not used or associated with the data collected from participants. Rather, numbers were used to identify participants during the research study. The practice of maintaining the privacy of participants would continue to be observed even after the research findings had been documented. Prior to their participation in the study, participants were provided with a participant information sheet detailing the nature of their participation. The participant information sheet also gave assurance on issues of confidentiality of the identity of participants (See Appendix N). The participants were then expected to sign consent and confidentiality forms before their participation in the study (See Appendices M, O & P). Anderson (2009:75) highlights the critical importance of observing confidentiality in the conduct of research as it enhances the security of information.

4.4.6.3 Protection from harm

There is a risk that research can injure the physical, psychological, emotional and social well-being of participants if the researcher does not take measures to protect participants from any negative consequences emanating from the research (Bless et al 2013:33). The participants were assured that they would be protected from any form of harm and that they will be treated with respect. In order to ascertain that this study would be ethically appropriate and that it would not harm participants, approval to undertake this study was obtained from the Research Ethics Committee at the University of South Africa (UNISA) and an Ethics Certificate was granted as evidence for permission to undertake the study. (UNISA Policy on Ethics; 2013; See Appendix T). This was a very important step in ensuring that the research study would comply with the ethical requirements for the treatment of participants in the study.

4.5 SUMMARY

This chapter sought to describe the type of research design and methodology used in this study. The research study is based on the qualitative research approach which was considered appropriate for the study of stakeholders' perceptions regarding the MDP for BSSHs. An attempt was also made to unravel the underlying philosophical assumptions that inform the qualitative research design. The chapter furthermore outlined the research strategy, population and sampling procedure and the data collection methods that were used in this study. Finally, issues of trustworthiness of data and ethical considerations were deliberated upon.

CHAPTER 5

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present, analyse and interpret data that was collected during the field study. The study sought to gain insight into the perceptions of stakeholders on management development programmes (MDPs) for beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs). Data was generated using individual interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. Individual interviews were administered to selected school inspectors, practising school heads and beginning BSSHs while focus group interviews were also conducted for selected deputy heads and senior teachers. A total of 28 participants were initially selected for the study but only 27 participants took part. School heads (beginning and practising), deputy heads and senior teachers were drawn from ten selected secondary schools. The individual interviews and focus group interviews were audio-recorded and the data were then transcribed to denote the perceptions and lived experiences of the participants regarding the phenomenon under study. Data collected from the interviews and focus group interviews were then integrated with information that was collected from other data sources such as the vacancy announcement circulars, Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) circulars, the Civil Service Commission (CSC) training policy and Statutory Instruments (SI).

The empirical study was guided by the major research problem and the sub-problems that were set out in section 1.7. Individual interview schedules, focus group and document analysis guides were constructed in a manner that would help the researcher to extract optimum data from the participants regarding their perceptions about the subject under study. The data that were collected during the empirical study is presented in the following manner: Firstly, the background data about the ten schools involved in the research sample are provided. Secondly, an overview of the characteristics of participants is presented according to category by gender, age, qualification and work and school

leadership experience. Lastly, a comprehensive presentation, discussion and analysis of the data that was collected during the empirical study are undertaken in section 5.3.

In order to maintain the privacy, anonymity and confidentiality of participants, the researcher assigned identity codes to the participants. The coding was also done in such a way that it would be easy to identify the participants in accordance with their different categories. Firstly, the abbreviation of the professional title of SI was used as their identity code. The participants in this category were then ascribed numbers from one to three to ensure ease of individual identification. Secondly, the ten secondary schools that were selected to be part of the research sample were coded using letters of the alphabet from A to J. Thirdly, the school heads, deputy heads and senior teachers were coded as H, DH and ST respectively. The codes for school heads, deputy heads and senior teachers were then combined with the alphabetic letter denoting the code of the school as indicated in tables 1 to 7. Based on these tables, it can be noted that practising school heads were identified as HA, HD, HF, HI and HJ respectively while beginning school heads were also identified as HB, HC, HE, HG and HH respectively. As previously stated in section 4.4.1, deputy heads and senior teachers were drawn from schools led by practising school heads. This implies that the deputy heads would be identified as DHA, DHD, DHF, DHI and DHJ respectively. In the same manner, senior teachers in the first focus group were identified as STA1, STD1, STF1, STI1 and STJ1 respectively while those in the second focus group were STA2, STD2, STF2, STI2 and STJ2 respectively.

5.2 BACKGROUND OF SCHOOLS SELECTED FOR THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

As has been stated before, ten secondary schools located within Zaka district were purposively selected for inclusion in the research sample. The district of Zaka is a rural district, which implies that all the selected secondary schools were located in rural areas. The table below provides information about the different responsible authorities running each school as well as the status of the school head in terms of headship experience:

Table 5.1: Table showing school by responsible authority and status of school head.

School	Responsible Authority	Status of School Head
A	District Council	Practising
B	Church	Beginning
C	District Council	Beginning
D	District Council	Practising
E	District Council	Beginning
F	Church	Practising
G	District Council	Beginning
H	District Council	Beginning
I	Government	Practising
J	District Council	Practising

According to the table above, of the ten schools, 7 schools (70%) were run by the district council, 2 (20%) were run by churches while 1 (10%) was a government school. The different identities of the responsible authorities under whom the schools within the sample fall might point to existing divergences about the values, beliefs and expectations that the authorities hold regarding the management practice and performance of school heads who serve in their respective schools. In this study, the researcher purposively sampled schools from different responsible authorities in order to examine whether the context of the school can be considered in the professional development of the school head. Striepe, Clarke and O'Donoghue (2014:89) state that the practice of educational leadership is largely influenced by such factors as the school context, school's affiliated faith and other external influences. This view is also supported by Parshiadis, Brauckmann and Kafa (2018:1) who contend that the school context plays an important role in the practice of school leadership. It is an undeniable fact that responsible authorities prescribe the values, traditions, ethos and faiths that are practised in their schools. This implies that since the values and beliefs of the responsible authorities have a significant influence on the philosophy, culture and mission of the school, it is important to customize the orientation and management development of beginning school heads within specific school contexts.

5.3 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Background information regarding the 28 participants who took part in the research study was collected by way of administering a form in which they filled in their personal details such as age, gender, academic and professional qualifications as well as years of work experience. The collection of data about the characteristics of participants in this study was prioritised because the researcher assumed that such information would provide insight into the historical perspectives underlying the participants' academic and professional qualifications as well as their work experiences.

5.3.1 School inspectors

Three district school inspectors were part of the research sample and their characteristics are shown below:

Table 5.2: Characteristics of School Inspectors

Participant's characteristics	SI 1	SI 2	SI 3
Gender	F	M	M
Age	47	53	64
Highest academic qualification	O LEVEL	O LEVEL	MSc SMGT
Highest professional qualification	M.ED	M.ED	BED
Further qualifications in school leadership or related area	SMC	SMC	SMC
Experience as school head (state number of years)	5 years	6 years	16 years
Experience as schools inspector (state number of years)	3 years	1year	2 years

Key:

- O level:** **Advanced level**
- BED:** **Bachelor of Education**
- GCE:** **Graduate Certificate in Education**
- MSc SMGT:** **Master of Science in Strategic Management**
- SMC:** **School Management Course**

The data presented in the table above indicates that the three participants in this category were aged between 47 and 64 years with only one out of the three participants being female. In terms of academic qualifications, all the participants in this category possessed relevant qualifications. The highest academic qualification among the participants was a Master of Science in Strategic Management while the highest professional qualification was a Master of Education in Education Administration. Although participant SI3 possessed a post graduate qualification that was not directly related to the field of education management, it was noted that the participant had a Bachelor of Education degree in Education Administration. The work experience of the participants as school heads ranged from five to 16 years while the participants' experience as school inspectors ranged from one to three years. All the participants indicated that they had done short courses in school management during their tenure as school heads and school inspectors respectively.

5.3.2 School heads

Ten school heads were subjected to individual interviews. Of these school heads, 5 (50%) were newly promoted incumbents who had less than two years headship experience. The other 5 (50%) were practising school heads who had more than two years headship experience. As indicated in section 2.10, incumbents who are promoted to the post of headship are often deployed to assume full leadership responsibilities at the given stations. This implies that most newly promoted incumbents would be at the helm of schools on their own without having been appropriately nurtured for the post of headship. The following tables show the characteristics of the two categories of practising school heads and beginning school heads who participated in this study respectively.

Table 5.3: Characteristics of Practising School Heads

Participant's characteristics	HA	HD	HF	HI	HJ
Gender	M	M	F	M	M
Age	55	50	50	52	53
Highest academic qualification	A LEVEL	A LEVEL	BA GEN	BA GEN	MSc PLCS
Highest professional qualification	BED	BSc Ed	GCE	GCE	CE
Further qualifications in school leadership or related area	NIL	NIL	NIL	SMC	NIL
Experience as head (state number of years)	10	3	11	7	4

Key:

- A level:** **Advanced level**
- B. Sc Ed:** **Bachelor of Science Education**
- B A:** **Bachelor of Arts**
- BED:** **Bachelor of Education in Education Administration**
- CE:** **Certificate in Education**
- GCE:** **Graduate Certificate in Education**
- MSc PLCS:** **Master of Science in Peace, Leadership and Conflict Studies**
- SMC:** **School Management Course**

According to the data presented in the table above, all of the five participants were aged between 50 and 55 years. Among the five participants, only one was female which might imply an evident demographic trend in which males occupy the majority of posts in school leadership. The apparent bias towards male domination in school leadership could be explained on the basis of historical and cultural gender imbalances that have characterised the education system in Zimbabwe (Matope 2012:690). In terms of academic qualifications, all the participants in this category possessed relevant qualifications except for participant HJ who had a Master of Science in Peace, Leadership and Conflict Studies degree which was found to be irrelevant to the field of Education, although it had a leadership component in it. Despite this irrelevant qualification, it was found that this participant was the only candidate who had attained a further qualification in the form of a School Management Course. The work experience of participants as

heads ranged from three to 11 years. As indicated in section 5.2.2, three of the five practising school heads, HA, HF and HI were at the level of substantive head while the other two practising school heads were still at the level of substantive deputy head with more than two years in the post.

Table 5.4: Characteristics of Beginning School Heads

Participant's characteristics	HB	HC	HE	HG	HH
Gender	M	M	M	M	M
Age	43	48	53	49	50
Highest academic qualification	BA	O LEVEL	O LEVEL	BA	O LEVEL
Highest professional qualification	PGDE	MED	MED	MED	BED
Further qualifications in school leadership or related area	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Experience as Senior Master/Woman (state number of years)	5	12	13	10	9

Key:

O level: Ordinary level

BED: Bachelor of Education

PGDE: Post Graduate Diploma in Education

M. ED: Master of Education in Education Administration

The data presented in the table above shows that the age range of participants in this category was between 43 and 53 years. Based on the age of the oldest participant in this category, it was observed that incumbents often rose to positions of school leadership late in their careers. This problem could be attributable to the non-availability of headship posts within the education system. The highest academic qualification among the participants was a Bachelor of Arts degree while the highest professional qualification was a Master of Education in Education Administration. In this category, all participants, except one, were holders of this post-graduate qualification. In terms of experience, it was

observed that all the participants had had experience as senior masters ranging from five years to 13 years. As shall be stated in 5.2.4, two individuals are appointed from among the senior teachers to become the senior master and the senior woman respectively. The two individuals become part of the school management team and assist in the administration of the school. It was observed that individuals who would have served as senior masters often aspire for promotion to school headship. There was no participant who had further qualifications in school leadership in this category.

5.3.3 Deputy heads

The deputy heads were drawn from schools headed by school heads that had more than two years' headship experience. The table below shows the background information relating to the deputy heads.

Table 5.5: Characteristics of deputy heads

Participant's characteristics	DHA	DHD	DHF	DHI	DHJ
Gender	N/A	M	M	M	M
Age	N/A	51	49	52	48
Highest academic qualification	N/A	MBA	A Level	B Com Acc	MSc Ph
Highest professional qualification	N/A	B Ed	B Ed	CE	CE
Further qualifications in school leadership or related area	N/A	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Experience as deputy head (state number of years)	N/A	8	5	3	4
Experience as Senior Master/ Woman (state number of years)	N/A	11	8	13	9

Key:

- A level:** **Advanced level**
B. Com Acc: **Bachelor of Commerce in Accounting**
B Ed: **Bachelor of Education**

BAECS:	Bachelor of Arts in English and Communication Studies
CE:	Certificate in Education
MBA:	Master of Business Administration
MSc Ph:	Master of Science in Physics

As indicated in the table above, only four out of the five selected deputy heads participated in the focus group interview. The deputy head of school A was away on national voter registration duties when the focus group interview was conducted. The data presented in the table reveals that all participants were male with ages ranging between 48 and 51 years. It was noted with concern that the post of deputy head was dominated by men. It would seem as if females aspiring for headship were experiencing serious bottlenecks at the level of senior teacher which impeded their possible ascension to the post of deputy head. One wonders why there is no semblance of gender balance in school leadership, yet the government of Zimbabwe has been spearheading policies of equal opportunities and women advancement in particular. In terms of academic qualifications, the participant with the least qualifications had advanced level passes. It was also observed that one participant had attained a Master of Business Administration degree, which is regarded as irrelevant to the field of education because of its inclination towards commerce and industry. The professional qualifications of participants in this category ranged from Certificate of Education to the Bachelor of Education degree. The trend shows that although two of the deputy heads were appropriately qualified, the other two needed to upgrade their professional qualifications to degree level. It emerged that of the four participants in this category; only two participants (DHD and DHF) were substantive deputy heads while the others were in an acting capacity. The work experience of participants as deputy heads ranged from three to eight years while their experience as senior masters before promotion to their current posts ranged from eight to 13 years. The trend shown by the longevity of service at the level of senior master could be due to limited posts for promotion in the education sector as a result of competition for the few available posts that are intermittently advertised as and when a government freeze on posts would be lifted to recruit school leaders.

5.3.4 Senior teachers

A total of ten senior teachers participated in focus group interviews. Two senior teachers were selected from each of the five secondary schools headed by practising school heads. The administrative structure of secondary schools allows for the appointment of a senior master and a senior woman to assist in the administration of the school. It was these two members that were selected from all the ten schools to participate in the study. Their involvement in the administration of schools naturally develops in them a sense of aspiration to become school leaders as they are often delegated duties to lead the school in the absence of the school head and deputy head respectively. Each of the two senior teachers from the same school was deployed to a different focus group discussion. This implies that each focus group consisted of 5 participants with each group comprising of both male and female participants.

Table 5.6: Senior Teachers in focus group 1

Participant's characteristics	STA1	STD1	STF1	STI1	STJ1
Gender	F	M	M	F	M
Age	50	54	46	44	43
Highest academic qualification	A LEVEL	O LEVEL	B Sc	B Sc	A LEVEL
Highest professional qualification	B Ed	CE	Dip Ed	Dip Ed	B Ed
Further qualifications in school leadership or related area	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Experience as Senior Master/Woman (state number of years)	12	14	3	6	4

Table 5.7: Senior Teachers in focus group 2

Participant's characteristics	STA2	STD2	STF2	STI2	STJ2
Gender	M	F	F	M	F
Age	51	51	47	49	37
Highest academic qualification	BAECS	O LEVEL	A LEVEL	BAECS	BA GEN
Highest professional qualification	CE	B Ed	B Ed	CE	GRAD DE
Further qualifications in school leadership or related area	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL	NIL
Experience as Senior Master/Woman (state number of years)	9	3	4	12	6

Key

- O level:** Ordinary level
A level: Advanced level
BA GEN: Bachelor of Arts General
B Ed: Bachelor of Education in Education Administration
BAECS: Bachelor of Arts in English and Communication Studies
B Sc: Bachelor of Science
CE: Certificate in Education
Dip Ed: Diploma in Education
GRAD DE: Graduate Diploma in Education

The information presented in the two tables above shows that the age of participants in the two focus groups ranged from 37 to 54 years. Of the ten participants in this category, two had Ordinary level as their highest academic qualifications. Three participants had Advanced levels; two had Bachelor of Science degrees while the other three had Bachelor of Arts degrees. In terms of professional qualifications, nine of the participants were appropriately qualified with such qualifications as Certificate in Education, Diploma in Education, Graduate Diploma in Education and the Bachelor of Education degree. The work experience that the participants had attained as senior masters/women ranged from three to 14 years. As stated above, the senior master and the senior woman were selected from among the senior teachers within a school to assist in the administration of the school. The researcher was therefore mainly interested in their experience in these capacities rather than as senior teachers per se.

5.4 DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY

As previously stated in section 4.3.2, the study employed a qualitative approach of analysing data collected from several interviews and focus group interviews that were conducted during the empirical study. The data was initially transcribed from the audio recordings into text. The researcher then went through all the data using a process of open coding to reduce and summarise the data as well as make sense of the emerging patterns from the data. In the process, data was labelled with codes while codes with similar ideas were further grouped together to form sub-categories or categories of data that were then consolidated into themes. Research questions set out in section 1.6.1, which were instrumental in guiding the researcher to formulate interview questions, were the bases upon which themes were generated in the presentation and analysis of data. The following themes, as presented in table 5.8 below, emerged from the data that was collected during the study.

It is important to note that the researcher did not correct the language use of the participants in any quotes from their direct words in this study. Sometimes their language use was not good, but it was kept unchanged.

Table 5.8: Emerging themes and categories

THEME		CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORIES
1.	Responsibilities of secondary school heads	1.1 Accountability	1.1.1 Report writing
		1.2 Day-to-day administration of the school	1.2.1 Planning mission and vision of the school 1.2.2 Organising 1.2.3 Coordinating 1.2.4 Decision making 1.2.5 Problem solving
		1.3 Policy implementation	1.3.1 Implementation of Statutory Instruments and Education Act 1.3.2 Curriculum policy
		1.4 Financial management	1.4.1 Budgeting 1.4.2 Procurement 1.4.3 Resource mobilisation
		1.5 Human resources management	1.5.1 Staffing, supervision 1.5.2 Staff development 1.5.3 Staff discipline 1.5.4 Staff welfare and grievance handling
		1.6 Assets management	1.6.1 Management of teaching and learning material 1.6.2 Asset inventories 1.6.3 Maintenance of infrastructure and facilities.
		1.7 Link between school, the ministry and other stakeholders	1.7.1 Community relations 1.7.2 School development committee
		1.8 Marketing the school	
		1.9 Instructional Leadership	1.9.1 Student enrolment 1.9.2 Timetabling 1.9.3 Setting the school atmosphere 1.9.4 Supervision of teaching and learning 1.9.5 Student welfare and discipline 1.9.6 Sporting activities 1.9.7 Management of Examinations 1.9.8 Staff development of teachers 1.9.9 Curriculum planning

Table 5.8: Emerging themes and categories (Continued).

THEME	CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORIES
2. Challenges faced by BSSH	2.1 Lack of proper induction	2.1.1 New environment 2.1.2 Language and cultural barriers
	2.2 Instructional leadership	2.2.1 Planning 2.2.2 Resources management 2.2.3 Conflict management 2.2.4 Time management 2.2.5 Staff discipline 2.2.6 Supervision of staff 2.2.7 Student discipline and welfare 2.2.8 Management of examinations
	2.3 Financial management	2.3.1 Budgeting 2.3.2 Procurement 2.3.3 Resource mobilisation
	2.4 Implementation of policies	2.4.1 New curriculum 2.4.2 Statutory Instrument 1 of 2000 2.4.3 Policy circular 35 2.4.4 Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 2.4.5 Education Act
	2.5 Asset management	2.5.1 Implementation of projects 2.5.2 Infrastructure development
	2.6 Information and Communication Technology	2.6.1 Use of ICT in teaching and learning 2.6.2 Use of ICT in management of school records and communication.
	2.7 Overburdened with responsibilities	
	2.8 Human Resources Management	2.8.1 Staff resistance and indiscipline 2.8.2 Staffing 2.8.3 Staff supervision 2.8.4 Staff development
	2.9 Community relations	2.9.1 Public relations 2.9.2 Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 and functions of School Development Committee
	2.10 Documentation	2.10.1 Report writing 2.10.2 Completion of forms
3. Role of tertiary education institutions in preparing aspiring incumbents for school leadership	3.1 Teachers' Colleges	
	3.2 University education degree programmes	

Table 5.8: Emerging themes and categories (Continued).

THEME	CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORIES
4. Work experience at the level of senior teacher as a form of preparation for school leadership	4.1 Leadership styles of school heads	
5. Current training programmes for BSSH		
6. Perceptions of participants regarding the need for training for BSSH		
7. Role of experienced/retired school heads in the professional development of BSSH		
8. Components of an envisaged management development programme for BSSHs as perceived by stakeholders	8.1. Financial management	8.1.1 Financial regulations 8.1.2 Budgeting 8.1.3 Tender procedures 8.1.4 Resource mobilisation and management 8.1.5 Book keeping
	8.2. Instructional leadership	8.2.1 Leadership 8.2.2 Curriculum management 8.2.3 Planning mission and vision of the school 8.2.4 Supervision of staff 8.2.5 Examinations management 8.2.6 Student welfare and discipline
	8.3 General administration	8.3.1 Planning 8.3.2 Timetabling 8.3.3 Time management 8.3.4 Organising and coordinating 8.3.4 Decision making 8.3.5 Problem solving
	8.4 Policy issues	8.4.1 Education Act 8.4.2 Statutory instruments 8.4.3 Policy circulars

Table 5.8: Emerging themes and categories (Continued).

THEME	CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORIES
	8.5. Community relations	8.5.1 External relations with stakeholders 8.5.2 School Development Committee
	8.6. Information and Communication Technology	8.6.1 Use of ICT in research, teaching and learning 8.6.2 Use of ICT in administration and management of school records
	8.7 Human resources management	8.7.1 Staffing 8.7.2 Staff motivation 8.7.3 Staff supervision 8.7.4 Staff discipline 8.7.5 Staff development
	8.8 Documentation	8.8.1 Supervision and report writing 8.8.2 Completion of data forms e.g. ED 46 etc and leave forms.
	8.9 Asset Management	8.9.1 Asset inventory 8.9.2 Project management 8.9.3 Maintenance of infrastructure and physical Facilities
9. Strategies for delivery of instruction to BSSH	9.1 Partnership between MoPSE and tertiary education institutions.	9.1.1 Academic/contact sessions
	9.2 Induction training	9.2.1 School-based orientation 9.2.2 Workshops
	9.3 Self learning	9.3.1 Provision of material: modules, policy manual/handbook, policy circulars, Statutory Instruments, Education Act, critical forms etc. 9.3.2 E-learning modules
	9.4 In-service training	9.4.1 Workshops

The following discussion of the data will be done according to the above themes.

5.4.1 Theme 1: Responsibilities of secondary school heads

This theme focused on the responses of participants to the question regarding their understanding of the responsibilities of secondary school heads. An interrogation of the participants' understanding of the responsibilities of school heads was crucial as this would enable the researcher to gauge the stakeholders' perceptions of the roles of school heads. The responsibilities of school heads are clearly spelt out in the job description and the vacancy announcement circulars that are generated by the MoPSE as indicated in section 2.11 (See also Appendix U). A perusal of relevant documents that were generated by the MoPSE and the CSC respectively also provided an insight into the nature of responsibilities that constitute the role of the school head. Examples of such documents included the CSC training and development policy; statutory instruments (SI) like SI 1 of 2000 and Policy Circular P35 of 1993 among others. Literature on school leadership development contends that the responsibilities of school heads are derived from the national standards framework which sets out the domains of competences that school leaders must attain if they are to perform according to the expectations of the national education system (Armstrong 2012:90). This implies that the job description can be used as a yardstick to determine the need for the professional development of school heads if it is observed that the performance of targeted incumbents does not match the set performance standards as outlined in section 3.4.2. The following statement represents the view of one participant about the responsibilities of secondary school heads:

The responsibilities of heads are numerous. The school heads are guided by their job description and let me make an attempt to single out ... (S11)

The responsibilities of school heads as perceived by the participants were grouped into ten emergent sub-categories as follows: accountability; day-to-day administration of the school; financial management; human resources management; asset management; implementation of policies; link between the school, the ministry and other stakeholders; marketing the school and instructional leadership.

5.4.1.1 Accountability

It emerged in this study that two of the three participants at the district education office cited accountability as one of the major responsibilities of the school head. Under the category of accountability, several participants identified one sub-category of report writing. Regarding the accountability role of secondary school heads, the perceptions of the participants were enunciated by the expressions of some of the participants as quoted below:

The school head is an accounting officer ... (S11)

First and foremost, they (school heads) are supposed to be the accounting officers, the accounting officers at the school. (S12)

The major responsibility of a school head is mainly accountability, accountability of public institution and public funds, accountability of the welfare of the student, accountability of the welfare of the teacher. (HD)

There are many. You are the chief executive officer if you are the head.... You are responsible for the teachers, you are responsible for the learners, you are responsible for the parents, you are responsible for the results, you are responsible for the finance that comes into the school ... (HG)

As stated in the literature study in section 2.4, governments the world over regard schools as vehicles for the advancement of national development goals. It is for this reason that school heads are made to be accountable to education authorities in order to provide feedback about the extent to which schools are implementing set educational policies. Participants HE and HI also concurred that school heads had an obligation to be accountable to the various stakeholders within the school. The education authorities, for one, expected the school head to constantly provide feedback about whether the performance of the school was in line with the goals of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE). In addition, participant STJ also insinuated that since parents paid fees towards the education of their children, they expected the school head to be transparent in the handling of funds and the deployment of such funds within the

school. In this regard, the school head was supposed to possess high interpersonal skills that could enable the prevalence of sound relations between the school and the community. The SI 87 of 1992 prescribes that the school head is supposed to have an understanding of the regulations underlying school governance, particularly relating to the existence of the School Development Committee (SDC) and parental involvement in the affairs of the school. The SI cited above clearly spells the need for transparency and accountability by school heads in the management of the school's resources and the overall process of decision making. Besides the parents, teachers and learners also happen to be significant stakeholders who expect the school head to ensure that adequate teaching and learning material is provided within the school.

5.4.1.1a Report writing

It was quite evident during the study that the issue of report writing was a major responsibility of school heads. It emerged from the assertions of some participants that school heads were expected to submit periodic reports to the education authorities. It was noted that reports were regarded as the official way of providing feedback to the heads' immediate supervisors at the district education office. The following responses represent the participants' views regarding the issue of reports:

Reports are needed, end of term, end of month ... (HJ)

As a head you should know exactly what needs to be covered in a particular report and when you transact the same information to your lower colleagues they should know exactly what is being covered here (STD1).

Despite this being a major responsibility, most participants lamented the incapacity of secondary school heads to produce good and informative reports.

5.4.1.2 Policy implementation

It was revealed during the interviews that secondary school heads were responsible for policy implementation in schools. This implies that school heads have an obligation to

ensure that the school complies with set educational policy. The participants' views regarding the school head's role in policy implementation were represented by the following responses:

It is also the responsibility to implement policy ... that is one of his core, core business. What am I trying to say here? I am saying we have statutes which should guide operations of the system and it is the responsibility of the head to reinforce the implementation, the correct implementation of these statutes (S11).

And again he ensures adherence to policy and regulations in the school (S13).

There is issue of implementation of policy, be it at primary or secondary, we deal with policy every day ... policy to do with what is taught, what is not to be taught; the curriculum, policy on the curriculum, policy on examinations. (HF)

During the focus group discussions, participants reiterated the critical role that school heads play in policy implementation. A participant remarked that the heads' responsibility is “... to implement the policies and the rules too” (DHF). Participants were able to mention some of the policies that school heads were expected to interpret and enforce into practice. Some of the policies that were cited during the interviews were the curriculum policy, financial regulations, examinations policy, guidelines on student discipline, statutory instruments (SI) such as the policy on school governance (SI 87 of 1992) and regulations on employee conduct (SI 1 of 2000). School heads were also under constant supervision from education authorities to determine the extent to which they complied with set policies and standards.

5.4.1.3 Day-to-day administration of the school

Most participants in this study concurred that school heads were mainly responsible for the day-to-day administration of the school. The literature study in section 2.6 and the other ensuing paragraphs cite planning, organising, leading and controlling as the major management functions of the school head. This implies that for the school to function

well, the school head must plan and ensure that all the activities within the curriculum are effectively implemented. In essence, one participant summed it up when he stated that the school head was responsible for “ ... *the general planning of all activities that are taking place at the school in terms of development, learning activities (and) the general welfare of the school*” (DHI). The timetable was identified by participant HA as one of the plans that the school head was expected to develop so as to ensure the efficient use of time. In addition, it was also revealed by the participants that the day-to-day administration of the school required that the school head make sound decisions which would ensure that effective teaching and learning as well as other co-curricular activities took place within the school. Participants felt that the school head could not execute all the activities without the participation of subordinates hence the need for delegation of duties by the school head was highly emphasized in the discussions. This implies that the school head was supposed to have an understanding of participatory leadership styles that would enable the distribution of responsibilities among other members of staff so as to ensure efficiency in the execution of school goals. Lunenburg (2010:2) asserts that delegation is a major hallmark of instructional leadership in secondary schools as they are departmentalised to the extent that school heads must work with heads of department (HOD).

The role of the school head in respect of this responsibility is represented by the sentiments of other participants stated below:

I think the role of the heads in the schools...will be looking at administration and when we look at administration we are looking at aspects like the management of the staff, the pupils and any ancillary staff within the school. We may also be looking at co-ordination of activities taking place within the school and you may also be looking at management. In terms of management we are referring to aspects like financial management ...Then the head has to plan for the activities to be carried out at a school. He is an organiser. He is also a co-ordinator (STD1)

A secondary school head has quite a lot of responsibilities which include the day to day running of the school, enrolling students, supervision of

the staff and the pupils themselves, organising meetings with the community, with the parents especially (HJ).

Yeah, the head is the overall overseer of every activity that goes around the school (STA1).

The head is the overall person who is in charge of all the activities that goes on within the school and as the overall person in charge, I think he has to do a lot of discharging some of the duties to his juniors because he cannot do all the operations on his own (STI1).

Furthermore, other participants also indicated supervision of staff, student welfare and discipline as well as problem solving and decision making as some of the activities associated with the day-to-day administration of the school. Studies have shown that the maintenance of a culture of teaching and learning within a school calls upon the school head to provide direction and support to both teachers and students (Kruger 2003:206). These tasks, together with other day-to-day administrative responsibilities of the school cited above, are at the core of the instructional leadership function of school leaders. The realisation of sound leadership is dependent upon the extent to which the school head is equipped with conceptual, human and technical skills that would enable the former to contribute towards school effectiveness.

5.4.1.4 Financial management

The majority of participants cited management of school finances as one of the major responsibilities of school heads. According to the participants, the major activities associated with the financial management role of school heads included budgeting, resource mobilisation and procurement. The critical importance of the financial management role of school heads was emphasised by one participant who opined that *"...financial administration is very crucial because it plays a great role in the building of the school"* (HA). The same respondent went further to state that, *"... If you have sound financial management skills then obviously the handling of resources will change the face of your school"*.

These sentiments were also corroborated by the following views from other participants:

Primary on the responsibility of the head is management of finances in the school (HI).

Major responsibility is to enrol students; then collect and manage the finances; then develop the school and then make sure there is smooth running of the school ... (HH).

Participants in focus groups also supported the above sentiments regarding the financial management role of school heads. The following statement represents their views on this subject:

He also handles the school finances. He has to plan the budgeting for the activities to be done and he is the person who needs to co-ordinate the SDC, parents or learners to make the school viable (STD1).

All the secondary schools that were selected for this study are mainly funded by the tuition fees that are paid by parents. As previously stated, all the schools were located in rural areas with nine of the ten secondary schools being day secondary schools while only one, F, was a boarding high school. With the exception of the former school, learners attending the other schools were found to be from families of poor backgrounds who could hardly afford to pay for the education of their children. The inability of parents to pay tuition fees severely affected the school's revenue base. Despite this challenge, the community still expected the head to continue spearheading developments at the school and “... making sure that the school has enough resources” (DHD). Studies have shown that school heads leading schools affected by multiple deprivation faced challenges of inadequate resources as their schools were located in rural areas that were poverty stricken (Maringe & Moletsane 2015:347; Zikhali & Perumal 2016:2). The dire situation would require the school head to be innovative and to introduce resource mobilisation strategies to raise funds for the procurement of teaching and learning material. Besides, the situation would also require that the school head as an instructional leader must adapt certain instructional techniques that would ensure that teaching and learning continued despite the lack of instructional material within the school. It is quite apparent that

beginning school heads need certain entrepreneurial skills in order to be responsive to these difficult circumstances in disadvantaged schools.

5.4.1.5 Human resources management

It was revealed during the study that human resources management was one of the key responsibilities of school heads. The major sub-categories that were cited by participants under this category included staffing, supervision, staff development, staff discipline, grievance handling and staff welfare. It emerged from the responses of the participants that school heads were responsible for staffing and the supervision of teachers. The school head was also responsible for the recruitment of support staff that provides ancillary services within the school. In terms of staffing, it was quite evident that most participants were intelligible about the role played by school heads in identifying the human resources needs of the school and requesting for such needed staff from the district office. The following statement represents one participant's view of the role of school heads when it comes to staffing:

It is also the responsibility of the school head to make sure that the school is adequately resourced in terms of staffing. He does not staff but he identifies need and it is the responsibility of the head to deploy the given staff appropriately (SI1)

Besides staffing, supervision was also identified as a key human resources management function that school heads were supposed to perform. One participant accurately pointed out that school heads were responsible for the “... supervision of teaching staff, non-teaching staff and the general hands in the school” (HI). Supervision is very critical because the school head “... needs to ensure that the teaching and learning process goes on” (HF) and also to ensure that every member of staff, teaching or non-teaching, is performing according to set performance expectations. This implies that the head plays an important function in the implementation of the performance management system in which supervisors set performance targets with supervisees and review after a given period of time to establish if the member has been performing to expectation. It is quite

evident that supervision reports generated by the school head during class observations and performance reviews are the basis upon which performance weaknesses among members of staff can be identified. As outlined in the literature study in section 3.4.3, the identification of performance challenges is critical in the development of interventions that seek to improve the performance of employees. Participants who were interviewed during the field study attested to the critical role that the school head plays as a human resources manager in ensuring that the performance deficiencies of subordinates were addressed. This implies the school head was perceived to play an important role in the staff development of teachers as a strategy to enhance their instructional capacity. The following statements represent the perceptions of participants regarding the responsibility of school heads in staff development:

He also plans in-service courses or workshops for his staff ... (SI2)

As a head you also want to staff develop other colleagues, those who are coming in as new members into the system. Even those who are already in the system, still they need in-service training so that should be the duty of the school head to make sure that members receive in-servicing (HB).

Participants also indicated that school heads were supposed to have a clear understanding of the policies and procedures underlying human resources management within the school. Examples of policies and procedures that the participants cited included conditions of service, code of conduct, dress code, disciplinary procedures, grievance handling and issues relating to application for leave. This implies that the execution of the human resource management function demands that the school head “... *should know policy issues, how to handle cases, misconduct cases because he will definitely need such things ...*” (SI3).

The consideration of the welfare of employees was also cited to be of paramount importance to the human resources management function of the school head. School heads had an obligation to look into the welfare of employees so as to ensure that they were kept motivated to discharge their duties effectively. One participant had the following to say about the school head’s responsibility regarding staff welfare:

We also look into the teacher welfare when we deal with accommodation ... motivation and so on. We go into teacher welfare, sometimes they are sick, they are bereaved and so on (HF).

Another participant from a focus group discussion also spoke at length about the critical importance that school heads play in managing the welfare of teachers. He stated the following:

Then my colleagues also talked about resource management. Let me also hit on the fact that teachers at the school are also part of the resources. So as a head in managing resources, the most important resource that needs to be managed well is the teacher because he is the person who is actually watering the garden to produce results and if you don't handle that person well then you are into problems (STJ1).

An analysis of the human resources management functions of school leaders clearly shows that school heads require certain skills in order for them to perform their role effectively. Lunenburg (2010:7) asserts that school heads need interpersonal skills so that they are able to motivate, communicate, coordinate and manage conflict among members of the school community. Besides, it is quite evident that school heads also require technical skills that will endow them with the necessary technical authority to provide guidance and support to their subordinates.

5.4.1.6 Asset management

The management of assets was cited by several participants to be part of the school head's major responsibilities. School assets are in two forms: movable and immovable assets. Movable assets include motor vehicles, furniture for both staff and learners, equipment that is used for teaching and learning, computers, photocopiers, printers, textbooks. Immovable assets are the buildings that constitute the school plant and these include the physical facilities such as the administration block, classrooms, specialist rooms, laboratories, ablution facilities, hostels, staff houses and sporting facilities. It was observed during the study that of the ten schools, only two owned motor vehicles. School F had a school truck and school bus while School G had a minibus. A random survey by

the researcher during the visits to the schools established that although the schools had buildings that appeared to be in a sound state, it was observed that teaching and learning material such as media as well as equipment that is used for the teaching of technical subjects was lacking in the classrooms, specialist rooms and laboratories in most schools. These challenges could largely be a result of the economic crisis currently gripping the country.

In view of the several assets that exist within the school, participants highlighted the critical role that the school head plays in the management of assets. One participant indicated that the school head was supposed to maintain an inventory of all assets and the condition of such assets within the school. The participant had the following to say:

So the head keeps the master records, the master asset register of the school (SI1).

It was apparent from the insinuations of the participant that an asset inventory is an important record that enables the school head to keep track of all the school's assets. The asset register helps the school head to obtain information about the condition of assets so that decisions can be made about maintenance of current assets, disposal of obsolete equipment or procurement of new assets. Such information is critically important as it aids planning and budgeting. Although stationery is not part of the assets, it is also important that the school head maintains an inventory in order to monitor consumption so as to avoid pilferage. One participant stated that *"...when you go into a station, you end up having to buy and there are leakages of the same"* (STA1). The same respondent's views regarding pilferage are typified in the following statement:

At the end of the day you buy and they go, you buy and they go then you are made to account for the material that you have been using you find that nothing exists within the school.

Another respondent aptly enumerated some of the assets that exist within the school by mentioning *"...facilities, the classroom blocks, the special rooms as well as the grounds and the teachers' houses"* (DHF). The maintenance of physical facilities, equipment and

grounds in a sound state is very essential as it provides the school with the optimum ambience conducive for effective teaching and learning to take place. It was quite evident that participants viewed the importance of managing teaching and learning equipment in a good state as they felt it would lead to school achievement. According to participant DHD, “... *the school needs other resources like equipment in order to run well*”. In addition, well maintained staff accommodation could be a source of motivation for the teachers.

This implies that the school head requires technical competence to ensure the sound management of the school premises and facilities. On the basis of the above, it could be stated that the management of school assets requires such technical expertise as planning, budgeting, general infrastructural maintenance and documentation of assets. According to UNESCO (2009: 27) the task of facilities management is quite time consuming and school heads could rely on delegation if there are individuals with the relevant skills within the employ of the school while they maintain a supervisory role.

5.4.1.7 Link between the school, the ministry and other stakeholders

Many participants in this study expressed the view that the school head played a linking role that connected the school with the community and other interested stakeholders such as parents, community leaders, local politicians, education authorities and NGOs. The participants’ views regarding the role of the school head in providing such linkages are outlined in the following statements:

May be first and foremost he is the link person between the district, the community and the school. He is the link person, the member who is in charge to make sure that he is always in liaison with all stakeholders who have to do with the school (SI2).

I think the most important thing is they are a link between the district office and probably the school. They play a leading role in that function (HA).

The secondary school head is also a link between the ministry and the community ... You have got to be in touch with the parents because

usually if you are not in touch with them, there are a number of problems in fees payment especially (HJ).

To have very good public relations so that you are able to mix well properly with the parents, with other stakeholders, teachers, the pupils, the Ministry, even politicians (HB).

And he is responsible for linking the school with the outside world, the outside stakeholders, the parents and other interested parties (DHJ).

As indicated in the literature study in section 2.7, it is quite evident that school leaders require interpersonal skills to develop relationships based on mutual trust among the several stakeholders cooperating in advancing the agenda of the school. The existence of linkages between the school and the other parties stems from the fact that the latter have direct interests in the school as they contribute towards the education of children. School-community linkages, as indicated in section 2.4, are based on the thinking that schools do not exist in isolation but rather reside within their given community. It was for this reason that participants in the study raised the view that the school head had a responsibility to cultivate good relations with the communities surrounding their schools. The case for sound community relations is made stronger by the fact that communities have now become responsible for funding the education of their children (UNICEF 2009:4). This has now called upon school heads to be accountable and transparent in the management of school funds. Parental involvement in the affairs of the school is mandatory as the government has promulgated policies and procedures that regulate community participation in school governance and development. One participant was able to cite SI 87 of 1992 as the key policy that provided guidance on school governance, particularly the role of the SDC. This implies that school heads must work with the SDC in order to enhance collaboration between the school and the community.

In Zimbabwe, NGOs complement national efforts for children to achieve access to education by running support programmes in schools. The launching and funding of these programmes places a burden upon the school heads to provide the donor community with comprehensive reports on the implementation of such programmes as well as how donated funds and material could have been used.

It is quite apparent, on the basis of the above, that the school head must be endowed with an understanding of the policies and procedures that prescribe government expectations about the provision of quality education as well as issues relating to parental participation in the activities of the school.

5.4.1.8 Marketing the school

One participant identified school marketing as one of the major responsibilities of the school head. The participants' perceptions regarding the marketing role of the school head is encapsulated in the following statement:

It is the responsibility of the head to make sure that he/she markets the school. We want to say we have different sets of schools anywhere, boarding schools whatever but whatever the type of the school, that school should be marketed (SI1).

Literature on school marketing succinctly corroborates the above participant's view that school heads must be responsible for marketing their schools (Musingafi, Zebron, Chimbwanda & Chaminuka 2014:27; Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown 2004:376). The education sector has been characterised by intense competition among schools as they seek to increase their enrolments. An increased enrolment implies that the school stands to benefit from an expanded revenue base, especially in this era when the government has stopped funding schools. In this regard, school heads have an obligation to market the school by "... *communicating its purpose, values and products to the pupils, parents, staff and wider community*" (Oplatka & Hemsley-Brown 2004:376). Best practices in marketing contend that customer satisfaction is the hallmark of quality service; hence school heads must strive to attend to the needs of their clients by ensuring that they provide instructional programmes that meet the expectations of the communities in which their schools are located (Musingafi et al 2014:26). In addition, school heads have an obligation to improve the image of the school through the maintenance of a clean environment within the school; sound community relations; provision of consultative advice to students and parents and a record of student achievement (Unicef 2009:9).

Schools that falter in the upholding of quality service within a school are likely to experience a drop in students as parents transfer their children to other schools, a development which may cause overstaffing and severely affect revenue inflows into the school. School heads must therefore have the appropriate knowledge and skills that enable them to market their schools effectively.

5.4.1.9 Instructional leadership

All the participants in this study shared a general view that school heads played a crucial role of providing instructional leadership in schools. It was quite evident during the deliberations that the participants were well aware of the fact that effective school leadership was a major determinant of school success. This thinking among the participants is in line with the literature study in section 2.8, which succinctly explains the various forms of leadership associated with school leadership. It emerged during the empirical study that of these forms of leadership, instructional leadership was the most predominant form of leadership that school heads had to provide in order to ensure quality teaching and learning in schools. According to the participants, the instructional leadership role manifested itself in the form of the various management activities that the school head had to execute in order to create the optimum conditions for student achievement and school success in general. The key sub-categories cited by participants in relation to the category of instructional leadership included such responsibilities as student enrolment, budgeting, procurement of teaching and learning material, staffing, curriculum planning, timetabling, setting the school atmosphere, supervision of teaching and learning, student welfare, student discipline, management of examinations, staff development of teachers and management of sporting activities. An analysis of the array of roles cited above clearly shows that the broader spectrum of the head's management functions are instruction focused.

Participant HH summed up the instructional role of the school head by stating that the responsibility of school heads was “ *... to enrol students, then collect and manage the finances, then develop the school and then make sure there is smooth running of the*

school and then help the subordinates so that they help they help the learners and they achieve the intended goals of the ministry”.

Another participant in one focus group discussion had the following to say about the instructional leadership role of the school head:

Right, the school heads are there to look at the smooth running of the school, that is supervising of the teachers, resource management, pupils' academic performance, the community at large, infrastructure and results based management to see whether the school has got good results within the district, the province and the country at large (STA1).

According to participant SI1, the MoPSE was guided by a vision and mission statement which was “... to be the leading provider of quality inclusive education for socio-economic transformation”. The participant went on to state that in light of this mandate, “... it is the responsibility of the head to see to it that the ministerial vision is upheld and the mission is fulfilled”. This implies that school heads have a responsibility of setting the direction for the school and crafting its vision so that it dovetails into the national educational goals. Literature study in sections 2.6.4, 2.8.1 and 2.8.2 corroborates the above-mentioned respondent's view that school heads play a critical role in setting the vision and communicating it clearly to subordinates for ease of implementation. Another participant, STJ2, also highlighted that the school head “... helps in the framing of the school curriculum”. This implies that for the school head to ensure the proper implementation of the curriculum there is need for proper planning and organising that is required within the school. As stated earlier in this discussion, planning involves such activities as “... timetabling and budgeting”. Besides, the school head must ensure that teachers are appropriately deployed and that the school plant is well maintained with all the physical facilities functioning well to ensure effective teaching and learning as well as co-curricular activities such as sporting. According to participant DHF, “... the head superintends over facilities, the classroom blocks, the specialist rooms as well as the grounds and the teachers' houses”. In addition, the proper management of the school's financial resources is also a critical function of the school head as this enables the provision of teaching and

learning material for effective instruction. Furthermore, the head is responsible for creating a culture of teaching and learning by setting the right norms and routines that culminate in the establishment of an acceptable work ethic among staff as well as the acceptable behaviour among students. This, according to HF, implies that the school head must “... *supervise to ensure that the teaching and learning process goes on*” well and also to ensure that the activities within the school are in line with set performance and assessment standards. The instructional leadership role of school heads also requires that school heads lead by example in demonstrating proper teaching approaches for the professional development of junior teachers. Supervision can also extend to class observations, which become the basis upon which the instructional leader identifies performance deficiencies among staff and “... *plans in-service courses or workshops for his staff for purposes of staff development*” (SI3). Participant HI also stated that school heads were expected to teach “... *because normally when we meet our supervisors, they talk about the headteacher instead of the headmaster because they insist that you have to teach and demonstrate how things should be done*”. It also emerged from some of the deliberations that it was fundamental for the school to forge sustainable collaborations with staff and the community. These collaborations could be achieved through “... *promoting good relations between the school and its stakeholders*” (HB).

5.4.2 Theme 2: Challenges faced by beginning secondary school heads

This theme focused on an assessment of the challenges that newly promoted secondary school heads encountered during the first two years after appointment. An examination of the challenges that novice heads face in this study was crucially important as it provided insight into the specific areas in which they required training. The literature study in section 3.4.3 highlights the involvement of participants in identifying training needs as a critical element of the training process. In this study, the identification of novice school heads' challenges would help to denote any possible deviations from the set performance expectations as spelt out in the job description in section 2.11. The information on the challenges school heads face can potentially be used to provide direction in formulating

the training objectives, the development of the training plan and design of a programme and the selection of modes of instructional delivery in an envisaged MDP.

During the empirical study, participants cited several challenges that were encountered by BSSHs. Ten categories were identified under this theme and these were challenges associated with lack of proper induction; instructional leadership; financial management; implementation of policies; asset management; ICT; overburdened with responsibilities; human resources management; community relations and documentation.

5.4.2.1 Lack of proper induction

The majority of participants raised the perception that school heads were not receiving appropriate induction training that could effectively familiarise them with their new job. The reasons why most participants expressed apprehension about induction training were numerous. As previously stated, induction training programmes were looked down upon because they were not comprehensive enough as to cover the fundamental skills that school heads required for them to be effective within their new roles. The duration of the induction training, which was said to range from three days to two weeks was considered to be too short for trainees to master the critical skills constituting their job. The inconsistencies characterising the duration of the induction training clearly point to the sporadic nature of the programme. There is a strong likelihood that the selection of content to be covered in these induction programmes is done at the behest of education authorities without giving consideration to the needs of the novice heads. The following statement represents the views of participants regarding the challenges associated with induction programmes:

It wasn't comprehensive enough to cover the needs because even the facilitators who facilitated in the induction programme told us that the time which they were given or that was allocated for them was not enough for them to cover the, all the material for a newcomer into the system, for a new head into the system (HB).

One participant from the focus group discussions had the following to say:

Some of the challenges which are identified from the newly promoted school heads, usually, it's the problem of induction into the new job. Usually, you find that most of these new heads, they are not taught or they are not given enough information on how to go and run the schools where they are going (STD1).

Almost everything has been said but I also want to hammer on the issue of induction. You will find that the problem with our Ministry is, it just appoints somebody to a post and no induction exercise is made and then they expect somebody to go and manage a station quite well....so that's one major challenge that we have. And also I wanted to talk about the issue of lack of professional development programmes in the system whereby heads are promoted, people are promoted into leadership, no professional development programmes are conducted. You are expected just to take it as you get it and as a result you might probably take people astray (STJ1)

It was also observed that the timing of induction programmes was also problematic as novice school heads were often “... inducted whilst they have already started ... some months later or even a year later when they have experienced these challenges” (DSI3). The case of two participants who had indicated that they had not received induction training by the time of this study leaves one to wonder whether such training would be provided at all. One of the participants, HE, was a beginning school head, who had spent almost a year in post without induction while the other one, HF, was a practising head. This scenario highlights the manner in which novice school heads are simply thrown into the schools to grapple on their own without the necessary induction support.

Under normal circumstances, beginning school heads were supposed to “be inducted just before assumption of duty so that they are provided with the necessary orientation required for their new role” (SI3). Crow (2006:311) makes reference to broad categories that characterise the socialisation of beginning school heads. The two forms of socialisation are professional and organisational socialisation. Professional socialisation relates to the academic courses that incumbents undertake as part of the preparation for school leadership, while organisational socialisation involves the process of learning about the values and practices of an organisation in order for the new incumbent to be able to adjust within the context of the organisation. Cottrell and James (2016:7) go

further to identify personal socialisation as an essential component of the entire socialisation process of beginning school heads as it helps an individual to make sense of their identity and to adjust their perceptions in relation to the expectations of their roles. This implies that any meaningful induction programme for beginning school heads should strive to address these core areas.

The other problem that negatively affected the socialisation of novice school heads into their schools and the surrounding community was that upon appointment, they were simply sent to schools armed with letters of appointment. It was observed that education authorities made no efforts to accompany the incumbent to the staff, parents and students at the new school. This problem is well articulated by one participant in the statement below:

One of the challenges is that these people ... are normally given just a letter that they have been promoted and been posted to a certain school without necessarily being taken to be introduced to the staff and the community by someone who is ... his or her immediate boss. Normally it's ... someone who will be acting, the junior member who will introduce the new head to the community ... in some cases there might be some challenges there. The reception won't be all that good and so forth (S13).

It is quite apparent that heads are not likely to perform accordingly if they are not inducted and socialised appropriately into their new job. A new head was likely to encounter difficulties settling in within a new environment if no efforts were made to provide adequate socialisation. Besides, participants also indicated that the newly appointed school heads were likely to face resistance from senior members of staff already within the school.

Issues of language and cultural barriers were also cited as challenges that affected individuals who were promoted from one region to the other. One respondent, DHJ, stated the following about this challenge:

I also want to think we have this other area of language. We have so many languages in Zimbabwe. Some speak Shangani, some Shona, some Ndebele, some Tonga and then as a head you may be posted in one of these areas where one will have challenges of language. It will be a handicap (DHJ).

In view of the above, it can be noted that school heads deployed to an area with a completely different language and culture really need the requisite orientation about the social norms and practices in order to avoid cases of a clash of culture. This problem is also reminiscent of novice school heads who are promoted from rural schools to schools in urban locations. Differences were likely to emerge between the beginning school head on the one hand and the parents, staff and students on the other as a result of divergences in social backgrounds, values, norms and experiences. According to STJ1, “... *what you think is the right thing to do*” in one context might “*not the right thing to do*” in another context. If novice heads are not appropriately inducted, conflicts are likely to sprout and severely affect the culture of teaching and learning. These challenges attest to the need for the education system to introduce an induction training that helps to transition the incumbent from the classroom to the post of school head and to orient them to the new working environment. Although there was one participant, HH, who stated that the current induction training being offered was comprehensive, it was observed that the content and duration of the programme could not adequately encompass all the fundamental skills required by the school head. Major emphasis was only given to financial management training.

5.4.2.2 Instructional leadership

Several participants, among them HG, HI, HF and HJ, cited the capability to provide sound instructional leadership as a major challenge that BSSHs encountered during the early years of headship. Several sub-categories of challenges were identified under this category. These were planning, curriculum management; resources management; time management; staff discipline; supervision of staff; student discipline and student welfare as well as management of examinations. An examination of the sub-categories cited above clearly shows that beginning secondary school heads were perceived to be

encountering challenges in areas that are deemed to be the major pillars of instructional leadership. The fact that novice school heads were found to be experiencing performance challenges in areas that constituted the major responsibilities of school heads as stated in section 2.11 attests to the need for the effective preparation of secondary school heads in order to ensure that they guide their schools towards success. Studies have shown that sound instructional leadership has a stronger impact on school achievement than other forms of leadership (Bendikson, Robinson & Hattie 2012:3; Horng & Loeb 2010:66). This implies that school success is dependent upon the extent to which the instructional leader has the requisite skills to execute the several responsibilities that constitute his or her leadership role. As previously indicated in the literature study in section 2.8.1, instructional leadership entails defining the school mission; planning and implementing the curriculum; allocating resources towards instruction; maintaining a culture of teaching and learning and ensuring that standards are maintained in the conduct of school activities. The array of responsibilities ascribed to the instructional leader clearly shows that instructional leadership is an integration of several tasks that culminate in quality teaching and learning and overall student achievement. Despite the critical importance of the functions of the instructional leader, it was quite evident from the perceptions of the participants that novice school heads were simply thrown into schools without adequate preparation in the various key areas.

The issue of resource management was highly topical during the discussions. The general feeling among participants was that sound instructional leadership was dependent upon the availability of resources to fund school activities. It was indicated that novice school heads faced challenges in mobilising resources in schools, particularly in “... *the collection of tuition fees and levies* “ from learners (HI). It was observed that the communities in which the schools selected for this study were located were generally poor, to the extent that the parents could hardly afford to pay for the education of their children. As a way of cushioning the plight of the affected learners, the government had intervened and directed schools not to send away students with fees arrears. Under these circumstances, it is quite evident that the resource bases of schools might continue to dwindle. But despite this challenge, school heads were still expected to perform and

ensure that teaching and learning took place within the school. It was felt that the effective implementation of the new curriculum required a lot of financial resources and in view of the economic challenges facing rural secondary schools, there could be a real need to equip BSSHs with the requisite training in resource mobilisation, which would enable them to spearhead fund raising projects to augment the meagre resources in schools. Participant SI1 intimated that school heads encountered challenges in curriculum planning as they struggled with the distribution of resources needed to procure instructional material in the several learning areas. The learning areas were too many to the extent that the schools' revenue bases could not sustain the financial implications of an expanded curriculum. In this regard, school heads were expected to be innovative and develop alternative instructional approaches that would enable teaching and learning to continue even if schools lacked resources to purchase learning material. The following statements illustrate the perceptions of participants regarding the challenge of resource management:

There are very big challenges which we have in terms of resources. Resources are inadequate and currently to efficiently administer the tasks that we have and which the students needed to do (HJ).

The updated curriculum also requires financial resources which most schools or nearly all schools cannot afford, especially the extent to which the school is supposed to implement the curriculum, the new projects and tasks. The resources are inadequate (DHD).

Yes, I would say the main key result areas are infrastructural development. The teachers would want decent accommodation; the learners would want well ventilated rooms. All that requires money, so the main challenge that one would face as an administrator are financial limitations to fund all those projects especially against the background of the so called updated curriculum. You need a new set of textbooks; you need to send the educators, the teachers to workshops to be aligned with the so called updated curriculum (HG).

The major challenge that is, maybe we might cry foul about is of course funding. A school head is supposed to engineer and initiate projects at an institution, projects which need initial funding and that initial funding in the event of it not being there you cannot cry upon that. So you have to use strategies to entice the beneficiaries of that institution so that they might find ways of raising funds (HE).

It also emerged that school heads encountered challenges in the management of existing physical resources and consumables within the school. It was observed that there were no inventories of consumables that were kept to track the use of stationery and avoid unnecessary pilferage while records of assets were also not properly maintained. According to participant STJ1, *“... you find when you go into a station, you end up ... buying and there are leakages of the same, at the end of the day you buy and they go, you buy and they go then when you are made to account for the material that you have been using you find that nothing exists within the school”*. Participant HI also indicated that school heads often faced challenges in the management of assets. This is what the respondent had to say:

And even management of assets as well because this one as a government school, there is always a challenge when auditors come. And so, some of the things which they expect, some heads will be found wanting, but not because they did it deliberately, but maybe because of ignorance of how certain things would have to be done (HI).

The introduction of the new curriculum in 2017 was also perceived to be a source of problems for BSSHs. Participants lamented that the curriculum was too broad as it comprised of eleven learning areas in which students were expected to undertake prescribed tasks and projects in every learning area. According to participant HJ, the volume of work was too burdensome for students to the *“... extent that they really don't have time to revise”*. It was stated that the students were severely under pressure *“ ... because every teacher has got to ensure that they do a project in addition to covering the syllabus and writing all those other tests”*. Similarly, the advent of *“... the updated curriculum”* was perceived to be posing serious challenges to school heads as *“...schools are running short of human resources because it seems our curriculum has become very large that few human resources at the school cannot fully implement all the learning areas”* (DHD). It emerged from the discussions that novice school heads were grappling with the problem of deploying the available staff under circumstances of an expanded curriculum. According to SI1, school heads were not supposed to introduce all the learning areas simultaneously but rather they were supposed to *“... concentrate on the*

core” and make additions as the staffing situation improved. In the absence of training, it is quite apparent that novice school heads could remain oblivious to the reality of such strategies.

Notwithstanding the work overload that students experienced, it also emerged that school heads and teachers had not been trained in the implementation of the new curriculum. For instance, no orientation had been provided to school heads and teachers on the assessment of tasks in the various learning areas of the new curriculum. Participant HJ had the following to say about the lack of assessment training:

Even the assessment of the task, no training was done. They promised that training will be done and sponsored by UNICEF. We haven't seen such training activities but only circulars ...They should have trained people, teachers who guide the students in tasks and they should have undergone thorough training but it has not been done so far and we coming to the end of the year. These students are writing next year. I don't know how efficient and authentic that certification will be if the situation continues like this (HJ).

The lack of training on the new curriculum renders school heads virtually incapacitated to provide technical guidance and support to teachers who look up to the former for direction. According to participant DHD, the school head “... *should be conversant with the updated curriculum because more often we have seen subordinates trying to get information from the seemingly uninformed head that doesn't even know how to implement the updated curriculum*”. Such a situation in which both the school head and the entire teaching staff grapple with the implementation of the curriculum has negative ramifications on the quality of instructional delivery and student achievement. Manaseh (2016:35) corroborates this view by stating that school heads that are not equipped with the requisite skills were likely to encounter challenges in the effective management and supervision of subordinates.

In terms of instructional supervision, it was also stated that school heads lacked the technical expertise to support the professional growth of their subordinates through

clinical supervision, the generation of informative supervision reports and staff development initiatives. One participant had the following to say:

As a head you also want to staff develop other colleagues, those who are coming in as new members into the system. Even those who are already in the system, still they need in-service training so that should be the duty of the school head to make sure that members receive in-servicing (HB).

It was observed that supervision reports were often the source of conflict as school heads generated reports that were basically fault-finding rather than development oriented. Several participants conceded that they faced challenges in report writing skills. One participant had the following to say:

You also find a situation whereby the head is suddenly required to produce reports, supervision reports, but if you go back to teacher training, there is nowhere you are taught to supervise (HJ).

The other challenge that affected BSSHs was how examinations were conducted. It was observed that beginning school heads often faced difficulties with the interpretation of examination regulations. This challenge was illuminated by the following statement:

If you are newly appointed, you have not been working with examinations ... the registrations and all those things, you need to be staff developed so that you perform your work well (HC).

Other critical areas of instructional leadership that posed challenges to a BSSH had to do with time management, student discipline and welfare as well as staff discipline. In respect of time management, participant STD1 highlighted that school heads grappled with the efficient use of time “... as they can take three hours for a meeting when it is supposed to take less than an hour”. The efficient use of time and adherence to the school timetable is the hallmark of an effective instructional leader. Studies carried out by Horng, Klasik and Loeb (2009:20) have shown that school heads spent their time in a variety of activities that include supervising the instructional process; managing the school as an organisation; looking after the welfare and discipline of students; budgeting; reaching out

to internal and external stakeholders and handling policy compliance issues among others. The effective use of time to ensure all these activities are attended to is of paramount importance to the school leader. There is a strong likelihood that the inefficient use of time could be a result of lack of planning skills on the part of the school head. According to the participant respondent, *“... time management on its own should be taught to the new head”*. It was also highlighted that school heads encountered immense challenges in administering student discipline. It was observed during the empirical study that there were regulations commonly known as Policy Circular 35 (P35) that governed the procedures that school heads and teachers were supposed to observe in the administration of student discipline, particularly with regards to such issues as corporal punishment, suspensions and the expulsion of students. It emerged that novice school heads were not conversant with the stipulations of these regulations because they would not have been trained in these aspects. Yet according to HF, *“... as a head you need to deal with such problem areas as difficult students”* hence there is a need to train school heads on student disciplinary procedures. The risk of lack of training was well enunciated by participant HJ who shared his experiences about cases of *“... so many heads who have been discharged from these schools after mismanaging handling of student discipline sometimes having ... forced students to transfer and so on and so forth”* (HJ). Studies by Chimhenga and Mpofu (2016:35) confirm that school heads and teachers continued to use corporal punishment without following due procedure as outlined in the policy circular. This situation calls for training on the part of those entrusted with the role of administering in schools.

5.4.2.3 Financial management

All participants were of the view that BSSHs encountered serious performance challenges in the management of school funds. It emerged during the study that sound financial management was perceived to be crucially important in school achievement. Participant HA aptly stated that *“... financial administration...is very crucial because it plays a great role in the building of the school and if you have sound financial management skills then obviously the handling of resources will change the face of your school”*. Yet it was evident

from the empirical study that school heads grappled with the management of school finances as they had received little or no training in financial management skills. According to participant SI2, the lack of financial skills was so severe that most of the beginning heads “... may not even last after they have maladministered funds at the school ... not because they intended to do so, but because they don't have the practices, the proper practices as required by the statutes that are set by the Ministry”. Reported cases of financial mismanagement that were cited in section 1.1 attest to the widespread professional incompetence among school heads which are a result of incumbents assuming positions of leadership without adequate training in financial management.

The following statements illustrate the participants' perspectives on the challenges facing a BSSH on this issue:

The first major problem is financial management. Teacher training does not include anything on financial management. So that's a very big challenge. You will get into a situation where now you manage the finances of the school according to statutory (instruments) provided by the government, but you do not have any experience in that area and usually you did not get enough training (HJ).

That one is a very challenging issue because even at college we were not exposed to financial management and if you happen not to be a person who has not been doing accounting or accounts as a subject, it's a very challenging and it's a very risky area. So management of finances, it's one of them (HI).

I think we need to receive adequate training on the management of these finances. Because we have so many policies, there are so many guidelines to do with the management of these public funds and so if you divert or if you don't comply to any of the guidelines you will be in trouble (HG).

Most of us as heads, we are not trained in finance administration but you are required to partake those skills as a financial administrator. So there is need for someone to undergo training in financial administration (HD).

I also find as a challenge the idea of managing school finances, the procedure, the way that is expected by the Ministry ... actually heads may find themselves in problems in terms of how the funds are

handled, disbursed ... the procedures that are taken or especially maybe the recording of those finances, those books of the finance, you may not be aware of how the clerk records information whether is doing the right thing, bank reconciliations. They may not be aware of how it is done (DHF).

Some of the challenges that participants highlighted included such elements of financial management as resource mobilisation, budgeting, book keeping, procurement and interpretation of financial regulations. As previously stated, the schools that participated in this study were located in rural communities with children whose parents could hardly pay for the education of their children due to their poor circumstances. As a result of this problem, it was stated that school heads faced the challenge of collecting tuition fees and levies that were necessary for effective teaching and learning to take place within the school. The problem, according to participants HI and HG, was exacerbated by the existence of a government directive that compelled schools not to send away learners with fees arrears. Participant DHD also corroborated these perceptions by stating the following:

And in rural day secondary schools, there is a challenge on getting fees. Some parents, they don't respond to the school to pay fees. So you find they just send their children to school, they don't pay anything and because government doesn't accept situations whereby pupils are sent back home.

This challenge implies serious difficulties on the part of BSSHs on how to augment the little resources trickling into the school's coffers so as to ensure that the school is kept functioning. The ability to mobilise resources through the initiation of income generating projects and encouraging parents to pay fees is a skill that BSSHs ought to develop.

It is apparent that sound financial management can only be achieved if there is meticulous planning and budgeting to guide decision making in the use of financial resources, yet it was clear from the discussions that participants professed lack of technical proficiency in planning and budgeting. Studies have shown that school heads encounter challenges in the management of school finances (Mapolisa, Ncube, Tshabalala & Khosa 2014:1).

According to SI1, the school head was supposed to develop skills on “how to identify areas of need and dispense that revenue” towards the identified areas. Based on the above-mentioned participant’s sentiments, it is quite evident that school heads require financial management skills for them to be able to appropriately distribute financial resources among the several competing needs of the school, like the purchase of teaching and learning material, infrastructural development, sporting equipment, wages for support staff and general administrative expenses. Although some participants indicated that they had bursars who were in charge of financial administration, the school heads also raised the problem of lack of adequate skills to supervise them given that they were the ones who were ultimately accountable to the parents and the education authorities on financial matters. The following statement represents the views of one participant regarding the incapacity of school heads to supervise bursars:

I have to supervise the bursar but the bursar is a specialist in those areas, in accounting systems. I find my supervision really very difficult because I have not been trained as an accountant but I have got to be accountable to how the finances of the school have been used from year to year. And so, even drawing up those reconciliations, I cannot profess proficiency in that area. I am very green. I really need training in that area if I were to be a very effective head (HI).

It was also observed from the discussions that school heads lacked the capacity to adequately interpret the regulations that governed the use of school funds. The management of finances required school heads to be conversant with procurement procedures as there were clearly laid down regulations that schools were supposed to follow when purchasing items for the school. In addition, school heads were also supposed to know the role of the SDC in financial decision making and issues of governance in general so that there could be parental involvement in the financial matters of the school.

5.4.2.4 Implementation of policies

All participants in the study conceded that BSSHs faced challenges in the area of policy implementation. These challenges were perceived to be so rampant despite the fact that school heads were expected to interpret policies and direct the school's activities in line with the national education goals. Studies have indicated the critical importance that policies play in providing direction within the education system about the purpose of education, its objectives and the strategies that can be implemented to achieve set goals (Yaro, Arshad & Salleh 2016:5). Since policies regulate "*what is to be taught*" in schools, it is pertinent that school heads be knowledgeable about these policies (HF).

Participants generally indicated that they lacked "... *proper knowledge in terms of the policies and guidelines*" that governed the operations of the education system (HB). The lack of understanding of the policies among beginning school heads could emanate from the fact that the incumbents are not provided with the physical policy documents which they could study, familiarise with and refer to in the process of decision making. According to the participants, novice school heads lacked craft competence and craft literacy to interpret and implement policies to the extent that they worked on the basis of trial and error and only got to know of some of the policies when a problem arose. The following statements illustrate the perceptions of the participants on the matter:

Another challenge is on implementation, implementation of ... enforcement of policy from the Ministry which we say as a newcomer to the system, you want to be aware of or to be apprised of all the policies from the Ministry so that you know which direction you need to take (HB).

Yeah, in terms of circulars on policies on how to run the secondary schools, most of them, they may not know some of the policies. It is only ... when you come across such a problem that you may want to find a policy which governs that particular problem. But I don't see situations whereby we have certain heads are taught about certain policies; about how to govern their schools. Most of our orientation is based mainly on hands on experience rather than a planned activity to say now you are going to govern this school this way and that way in terms of policy implementation (DHJ).

Documentary analysis revealed that there were numerous statutes and policies that governed the education system in Zimbabwe. These included the Education Act 25:04 which provides the legal framework for the provision of education in the country. The updated curriculum policy of 2017 spells out the major curriculum reforms being undertaken in the education system in Zimbabwe while SI 1 of 2000 deals with public service regulations regarding conditions of service. SI 87 of 1992 was promulgated to provide guidance on issues of school governance as it culminated in the formation of SDCs that enabled parents to participate in the affairs of the schools. Other statutes and policy circulars include SI 65 of 1992 and policy circular P. 35 of 1993 which dealt with student discipline and examinations circulars such as circular number 11 of 2018. The above policies are, however, not exhaustive as school heads continuously receive policy circulars depending on certain developments within the education environment.

5.4.2.5 Asset Management

Participants H1, HC, SI1 and STD1 indicated that BSSHs faced difficulties in the management of school assets. The school assets that were identified during the empirical study included such physical facilities as classrooms, specialist rooms, staff accommodation, playgrounds and teaching and learning equipment. It emerged that school heads encountered challenges in the management of asset inventories that are critical for the maintenance of records of the school's fixed and non-fixed assets. Besides, it was also observed that school heads were also supposed to maintain records of consumables such as stationery to ensure the easy monitoring of consumption, yet they did not have the requisite skills to do so. The implementation of projects was also another area where school heads were found to be lacking. It was noted that capital projects were by their nature capital intensive to the extent that school heads required certain technical competencies for them to be able to develop a strategic project master plan, budget for the projects and monitor the implementation of the projects.

5.4.2.6 Information Communication Technology

Participants HA, HB, DHJ and STJ1 identified the issue of information communication technology as a major challenge affecting BSSHs. It emerged in the empirical study that most school heads were not only computer illiterate, but that ICT had not been fully integrated in these schools. The following statements illuminate the perspectives of participants regarding the challenge of ICT among school heads:

We also want to be computer literate because when we received training during our time, there was no, there were no computers. But right now you can see that everything is being done with the use of computers (HB).

I mean basically we also need some computer training of some sort because we were born before computers and sometimes it's very difficult. Some of the work demands that we must deal with the computers and some of us don't have the ... we are different from those who are training nowadays. They have the skills in computers and sometimes we find ourselves quite lacking (HA).

Participants from focus group discussions also had the following to say about the same challenge:

Then finally as a head, I think there is need to be ICT compliant and the challenge we are facing now is that most of the heads out there are not ICT compliant. They have to make use of other teachers in doing office work and that's when we have official secrets leaking out and maybe a head trusting somebody who is computer literate more than his senior teacher or more than his deputy. Then you end up having problems at the school (STJ).

That may require some experience but personally I also feel there is an area on ICT that I think is generally lacking among the administrators. Maybe it's a new area but its fast coming and really that's an area the Ministry should try to focus and improve (DHD).

The current advances in globalisation place an imperative upon education systems that schools must adapt to the new technological developments associated with the computer age. Despite these developments, it is evident that the challenges facing school heads in

ICT proficiency is hindering schools from embracing the use of ICT for both administrative and teaching and learning purposes. Studies have shown that the integration of ICT in education helps to improve the quality of teaching and learning, documentation, communication, procurement, the management of staff and student records, physical assets as well as financial records (Schiller 2002:291). There is no doubt that the development of computer proficiency skills among beginning school heads would enable schools to gain from the multiple benefits associated with the use of computers in education as stated above. The fact that these schools were situated in rural areas where resources hardly permitted the installation of ICT facilities and where there was low internet connectivity could also explain why there was such an alarming lack of computer skills among school heads. More so, it also emerged that ICT was not part of the courses that were offered during induction training for newly promoted school heads.

5.4.2.7 Overburdened with responsibilities

One participant lamented about the challenge of being overburdened with responsibilities characterising the role of school heads in general. There was a feeling among the participants that school heads were inundated with numerous responsibilities to the extent that novice school heads could not effectively perform the tasks that they were expected to perform. Participant HF lamented about the challenge of an overload of responsibilities by stating that the “... *post of the head is a loaded post*”. She had the following to say:

The head must do everything including the teaching. You still have to go into the classroom and deliver lessons as well as run the school and for a boarding school again, you are on duty 24/7 managing the boarding school after their lessons. You still have to take care of the learners. So it's 24/7, 7 days a week, 365 days a year. The maintenance, the provision of food stuffs, health and so on. So there are some quite a number of challenges (HF).

She further indicated that among the school head's responsibilities was “... *administration on its own which may not necessarily have direct bearing on teaching and learning yet the head is a teacher*”. The participant also had the following to say:

He/she is a teacher and at times they say the head is the teacher at a school. The rest are assistant teachers but you find that most of the time, or at times a day may pass without you being able to attend to issues to do with actual teaching and learning. You will be dealing with other related things ... at the end of the day the head is asked to produce so many supervision reports to show that you have been supervising the teaching and learning of learners. At the same time you have other businesses to do, you have workshops to attend and if you are at a boarding school, you have purchases to make, orders to do ... and so on and so on ... provision of commodities so the role of the head is not clearly and it's a big role, a big responsibility. You have to deal with parents. You, you may plan your day but what you have planned, at the end of the day you may fail to implement a single item of what you would have planned. A parent may come and you cannot dismiss that parent to say today I am not attending to parents. You cannot do that. So there are so many issues at stake when it comes to the role of the head (HF).

A study carried out by Bayar (2016:193) corroborates the findings in this study by citing workload and heavy responsibilities as some of the major challenges facing school heads. According to the literature study in section 2.4, the expanded role of the school head has largely been a result of the decentralisation of power to the school head, thereby culminating in site-based management, a development which has demanded the school leader's attention to tasks that were initially outside the ambit of their responsibilities. An analysis of the problem of school heads being expected to attend to several different tasks at the same time possibly suggests that the challenge might be ameliorated if school heads were to be equipped with skills on multi-tasking, delegation, time management and planning.

5.4.2.8 Human resources management

It emerged in the discussions that BSSHs had challenges in executing the human resources function of their role. The major sub-categories of novice school heads' challenges in this category were: staff discipline and resistance; staffing; staff supervision and staff development. Participants indicated that novice school heads often encountered resistance from senior members of staff within the school who would not accept a departure from the leadership approaches that were prevalent under the previous school

head. Besides, the problem of resistance was also caused by pre-conceived anticipations and anxieties among members of staff regarding perceived changes to the leadership style that they would have been used to. Anxieties developed because no prior efforts would have been done to introduce the new incumbent to old members of the school and they could establish warm relations before the former assumed duty. This implies that the personal socialisation of the new school head is very essential to allow for interaction with subordinates. The following statement vividly expresses concerns raised by participant HF regarding the problem of difficult teachers. She had the following to say:

Yeah. You go at a school, you go to a school where you are trying to do your best but you would still find difficult teachers, teachers who are very difficult to deal with (HF).

You find that in most institutions you come across very senior guys who have joined the service before you and they think they know the job better than you. And obviously they will resist when it comes to supervision (HG).

Most of the time these new heads, they are appointed to go to new schools, new places as she has said new environment. Most of the time he lacks trust and sometimes he faces challenges from senior teachers who are already at the school; lack of respect or sometimes they will just not recognise him as head most of the time (STF2).

The same problem was echoed by participant SI1 who highlighted that education authorities often made an oversight of deploying a substantive head to a school without making efforts to transfer the individual who would have been heading the school in an acting capacity. The previous incumbent's continued presence within the rank and file of the school staff would potentially cause conflicts and affect the newly promoted incumbent's capacity to execute his or her duties autonomously. Bayar (2016:193) states that newly promoted school heads often face the challenge of subordinates who tend to compare the leadership style of the current incumbent with that of the predecessor thereby inciting each other to resist the new policies and procedures being introduced by the current school head within the school. It is quite apparent that BSSHs need training on how to develop sound social relations that can foster trust among members of the school community. In addition, it is also important to introduce certain interventions that

will help the new head to be integrated within the school as the risk of isolation and loneliness may affect the culture of teaching and learning within the school.

Another participant indicated that school heads hastily changed the administrative structure within the school without taking time to introspect and make sound decisions. According to STD2, the incoming head was supposed to work with those already within leadership positions at the school and desist from making rushed decisions on restructuring staff as this would create conflict and resentment among members of staff.

Participants also cited the challenge of staffing as a problem that was among newly promoted school heads. It was stated that the new curriculum “... *has become very large to the extent that school heads faced difficulties in assigning the few human resources at the school to fully implement all the learning areas*” (DHD). This situation calls for school heads to be oriented on how they can deal with issues of staffing. Related to the issue of staffing was also the challenge of supervision and staff development. Participants perceived that beginning school heads encountered immense difficulties in providing technical guidance, supervision and support to teachers especially in the implementation of the new curriculum. It was observed that the incapacity among novice school heads was largely a result of lack of training in this area. According to DHD, cases had been recorded in “... *schools of subordinates trying to get information from the seemingly uninformed head who doesn't even know how to implement the updated curriculum*”. The lack of capacity to implement the new curriculum implies that school heads do not have the technical capacity to staff develop teachers in this area.

It was also evident during the discussions that beginning school heads grappled with the challenge of supervising teachers. In participant HJ's view, school heads were expected to “... *produce ... supervision reports but if you go back to teacher training, there is nowhere you are taught to supervise*”. It was stated that novice school heads lacked the capacity to write constructive criticism reports after class observations to the extent that subordinates would not append their signatures to the reports. In some instances, school heads were not able to present SIs with records of well informing supervision reports that

could be used to make decisions on the level of performance of teachers. These challenges had the potential to cause conflicts and litigation among members of staff which could adversely affect the culture of teaching and learning within the school.

Issues of staff discipline were also perceived to be presenting challenges to BSSHs. It is quite evident that school heads need to receive training on the regulations governing staff conduct and conditions of service as enunciated in the relevant SI cited in section 5.3.2.4. In addition, BSSHs were supposed to be conversant with staff disciplinary procedures so that they would have the capacity to complete disciplinary charge sheets and handle cases of misconduct within an acceptable degree of expertise. If studies carried out by Lunenburg (2012:4) are anything to go by, it could be concluded that the assimilation of knowledge and skills about the human resource management function by beginning school heads enables them to assert their expert power and technical authority over their subordinates. It is quite apparent that education authorities have a moral obligation to professionally develop school leaders with the appropriate skills necessary for the job (Bush 2008:29).

5.4.2.9 Community relations

Participants HB, HH and STJ2 mentioned the aspect of community relations as a challenge for BSSHs. Participants perceived that novice school heads generally encountered difficulties in building sound relations with the communities surrounding their schools. Reference to this item in several discussions was taken to imply that the school head was “... *responsible for promoting good relations between the school and its stakeholders*” (HB). Stakeholders of the school community include parents, students, teachers, local politicians and education authorities. The need for sound relations between the school and the community emanates from the realisation that schools are there to serve the communities in which they are situated and that parents are now responsible for the education of their children through the payment of tuition fees and levies. Participants had the following to say about the need for school heads to receive training in community relations:

I think there is also need for them to be trained in the human resources or how to work with other people, maybe public relations. You are deployed at a new school, new environment with people and you are given a new SDC with people with different personalities. You also need to have that form of training so that you will be able to handle each and every member according to his or her personality (STJ2).

You want to ... have very good public relations so that you are able to mix well properly with the parents, with other stakeholders, teachers, the pupils, the Ministry, even politicians. You want to have proper training in some of those areas, just to mention a few because there are so many areas (HB).

Participant HE also enumerated the various obligations that the school head bears in respect of the several stakeholders of the school. The participant's perspective is reflected in the following statement:

You find that the community is hinged upon you. You find that the community solicits answers from the head of the station if in the event of them finding some difficulties. Political leadership normally come and get help from you. Church organizations find may be some direction from a leader if you are may be trying to accommodate them in your institution (HE).

The expectations emanating from the various sectors of the school community clearly show that school heads are likely to encounter challenges in dealing with this responsibility if no training is provided. The need for school heads to be trained in community relations is crucial given the fact that there is no meaningful orientation that is provided for novice incumbents within their new environments. As aptly stated by SI3, the school heads are just posted to a school and armed with a letter, they are asked to assume duty "... without necessarily being taken to be introduced to the staff and the community". If no intervention is undertaken to socialise newly promoted school heads into their new communities, then their early period of school leadership is likely to be marred by poor community relations characterised by mistrust and apprehension.

The study established that community relations were manifested through the establishment of SDCs which were meant to ensure parental oversight, transparency and

accountability in the running of the school's affairs. As previously stated, the SDC exist on the basis of the SI 87 of 1992 hence the school head is expected to be conversant with the stipulations of the instrument in order to ensure parental involvement in school governance. Literature study avers that sound community relations can be achieved if the school head aligns the school mission with the expectations of the community (UNICEF 2009:3). Members of the community are also likely to forge good relations with the school once they realise that the culture of teaching and learning facilitates the attainment of quality education and the creation of a child-friendly environment within the school. The recognition of the community's values and the diverse backgrounds of the learners might also help to forge good relations with both parents and students. To this end, school heads ought to ensure that they exercise a measure of impartiality in the administration of rules and procedures among students. The involvement of teachers in the running of the school as well as attending to their concerns helps to foster a spirit of mutual trust and collegiality. These obligations attest to the need for school heads to be trained in community relations.

5.4.2.10 Documentation

Participants indicated that BSSHs faced numerous challenges in dealing with certain documents that they were expected to complete in line with the expectations of their roles. It emerged during the discussions that school heads encountered problems with report writing and the completion of critical forms that they were supposed to submit to the district education office.

Three forms of reports were mentioned as posing challenges to BSSHs. These were the monthly reports in which school heads apprised education authorities on the state of the school and its activities; supervision reports that were compiled after class observations and the reports that dealt with staff discipline. Participant HA conceded that report writing was a major challenge facing school heads because most heads often wrote reports that lacked detail and were rather sketchy. This problem could probably be a result of the fact

that school heads were not trained on how to compile these reports. This observation is consistent with the views of participant HJ when he stated the following:

You also find a situation whereby the head is suddenly required to produce reports, supervision reports but if you go back to teacher training, there is nowhere you are taught to supervise.

One participant, STA1, stated that the issue of reports was a cause of conflict as heads often generated supervision reports that were not accepted by their supervisees. It is apparent from the above that school heads often triggered conflicts as a result of their incapacity to write supervision criticism reports that were constructive and developmental in nature. According to participant STD1, the school head was supposed to “... *know exactly what needs to be covered in a particular report*” so as to communicate the appropriate message regarding the kind of remediation that might be required.

In the case of reports to do with teacher discipline, particularly those who underperformed, it was imperative that school heads furnish education officials with “... *records of whether you have been supervising that member on a constant basis and whether you have been cautioning those members and so on*” (HI). The fact that these reports would become evidence to support a disciplinary case clearly shows the need for school heads to receive appropriate training.

Participants also intimated that school heads faced challenges with the completion of such forms as the sick, vacation, special and maternity leave forms as they lacked an understanding of the conditions of service that regulate leave of absence. It was observed that the proper completion of these forms depended on the capacity of the school head to interpret the existing policy position that informed each particular document. The other areas in which school heads were said to be facing challenges included the completion of forms “... *like the ED46*” (STF1) which required school heads to present monthly statistical returns of student data. The compilation of disciplinary charge sheets against members of staff implicated in cases of misconduct was also cited by participants as another in which school heads encountered challenges. It is quite apparent that these

challenges could only be overcome if beginning school heads could be effectively prepared for these tasks.

The challenges that were cited by the participants in this study are a typical reflection of the training needs of BSSHs. It is quite apparent that the challenges provide valuable information about the performance deficiencies of novice school heads. The NCSL report (2004:15) asserts the importance of needs analysis in determining the nature of an MDP. An analysis of the training needs of school heads ensures that the programme content is appropriate and relevant.

5.4.3 Theme 3: Work experience at the level of senior teacher as a form of preparation for school leadership

This theme was mainly meant to gauge the perceptions of participants about whether teaching experience, prior to promotion, provided adequate professional grounding for the transition of senior teachers into positions of school leadership upon promotion. As indicated in sections 1.3 and 2.10, school heads are promoted from the ranks of senior teachers on the basis of a good teaching record. On the basis of the above, it was pertinent to question participants' views regarding the extent to which experience gained prior to promotion could equip beginning school heads with the necessary skills that are required in school leadership. All the participants that were interviewed affirmed that teaching experience at the level of senior teacher was very essential as it helped school heads to have an understanding of the supervisory role that they were expected to perform. In essence, participants unanimously agreed that the experience gained in the classroom was quite helpful as it enabled incumbents to develop a clear understanding of the instructional approaches as well as the needs and concerns of subordinates. This implies that participants viewed teaching experience as a critical determinant of sound instructional leadership. This finding is typified by the participants' responses in the statements below:

Definitely, definitely, I think this is where I got most of the experience because when you are teaching you really understand what must be done by a teacher, by a classroom teacher so that you can implement it in your supervision (HA).

Definitely, my teaching experience was very handy in my new task as deputy head because definitely you need to rely on the past in order to move on ... Even though you are a teacher but you are already involved in administration. As teachers on duty, you supervise students. I was at one time senior lady so I was part of the administration. At another time, I was teacher librarian running the school library as well as teaching; yet at another time also I was the school counsellor. So all those posts, definitely, are part and parcel of the administration. Even the day to day duties of the teacher are encompassed in administration although at a smaller scale (HF).

In my role as a senior teacher before promotion, I had to deal with issues to do with examination management, disciplinary issues ... I was a member of the disciplinary committee, managing sporting activities and tours to various centres for learning purposes and various such other responsibilities as delegated by the head. But, all those duties had to do with school administration. So as a senior teacher I gained a lot of experience because my headmaster exposed me to various situations that made me experience those necessary activities that would enable me to be an efficient leader if I were to be given a chance to lead a school (HI).

The findings above indicate that teaching experience, particularly at the level of senior teacher provides aspiring incumbents with an insight into school management. Participant SI3 corroborates this by stating that some of the senior teachers would be at the level of head of department and “... that gives them the opportunity to learn how to lead”. According to him, senior teachers are promoted to “... the post of deputy head” from that of head of department hence they are in “... a better position unlike someone who is just from the classroom, who has never been an HOD”. This implies that “the experience they gain when they lead a department is of assistance to the higher post”. Crow (2006:317) supports this view by stating that the conceptualisation of headship roles by subordinates largely depends on the experiences that they gain through observations and when certain duties are delegated to them. It is quite evident from the above findings that most participants revered the importance of teaching experience as a precursor to sound leadership. The participants also acknowledged the need for further training of school

heads as a way of consolidating the basic administrative exposure that senior teachers would have acquired before promotion.

One participant, however, stated that teaching experience added little value to school leadership. The participant had the following to say:

Not very much, there is quite a difference between the leadership I am playing right now and the teaching role I played before promotion (HJ).

The participant's response echoes the findings outlined in the literature study in section 2.2 which postulates that the post of headship requires a different set of skills that are totally different from those that are expected in teaching. This view provides testimony to the need for training of beginning school heads in order to avert the risk of promoting incumbents with a good teaching record to a level of incompetence during their tenure of headship. The post of headship requires the mastery of certain technical skills as a pre-requisite for sound leadership, yet there is no meaningful leadership preparation that is being provided to newly promoted incumbents except for the induction training that hardly covers all the major critical aspects. The absence of a comprehensive MDP for BSSHs might imply that education authorities take it for granted that teaching experience provides the necessary preparation for school leadership. The sentiments below help to illustrate this thinking:

I was saying usually the main assumption is that by having been within the system or in the system for so many years one should have gained the experience to be able to lead a school. They make it an assumption but it depends on conditions and the environment in which one would have been ... (DHI).

A sizeable number of participants also felt that the capacity for senior teachers to gain experience before promotion was largely dependent upon the leadership style of the school head. Participants stated that the leadership style of the school head was a critical factor in determining whether or not an aspiring incumbent could be groomed into leadership. It was stated that some school heads were participatory in terms of their leadership disposition to the extent that they involved subordinates in administration

through delegation which provided the latter with a chance to learn. To the contrary, other school heads were so autocratic that they hardly involved subordinates in the affairs of the school. Under such circumstances, it would be difficult for senior teachers to gain any meaningful leadership experience. According to participant DHJ, the experience that senior teachers get in schools “... depends on the institution one will be working”. This implies that a teacher’s work ethic was likely to be modelled on the basis of that of the school head within a particular school. This view is reflected in the following statements:

There are some types of leaders who are prepared to groom others into leadership positions. Now if you have such a leader, then I think the people in the school will have the opportunity to grow as leaders but if the system is closed to an extent that people are not delegated some leadership responsibilities then it may mean that people in the school may never know about leadership (DH).

Yeah really, especially if you are at a school where you are delegated some duties. You will be seeing quite a lot of things; you will be exercising certain duties that are supposed to be exercised by the head or some, part of them. It depends on the school that you are. If you are under an autocrat head, when you go to head a new school, it may become difficult for you because you will have theoretical knowledge without any practice. But if there is a school where you are delegated a duty as a senior teacher, because normally senior teachers work together with the head and the deputy head, so most of the administrative issues, you will know them. So being at a school and having a lot of experience might help in the quick assimilation of execution of duties when you are head (ST).

I think it depends with stations because some heads are so democratic that you can even be given keys when he is out and we can handle visitors, log them in and sometimes we attend some of the meetings like financial meetings. We are informed in everything (STD2).

Besides the issue of school heads’ leadership styles cited above, some school heads were also not keen to groom subordinates due to politics at play within the school. The literature study in section 2.10 contends that the power relations emanating from the micro-politics within the school environment might not enable the school head to collaborate with the teachers. This is especially the case in those schools where power is centralised in one individual. It is quite evident that incumbents who get promoted from these types of schools require effective training if they are to effectively lead the schools

entrusted to them. Participant STJ1 vividly explained some of the problems inhibiting the proper grooming of aspiring incumbents in schools. The participant had the following to say:

But now the problem that we have is, let me say, the problem that we have is power distribution at schools is the major problem that we have. Somebody is appointed senior teacher but the headmaster might not be quite confident, quite sure to give all the trust to that person as a senior teacher. There are some limitations that are given on you, some barriers. You are not supposed to know something; you are not supposed to be well versed in something. You have got your own ends and actually that's where the problem comes from. When you are promoted, you are half backed and when you get your post then you meet problems (STJ1).

Participant STA1 raised concerns about the exclusion of senior teachers from participating in “... some of the issues of management especially the financial management”. The participant stated that senior teachers did not have a say in financial matters which “... means you cannot be a leader because you don't know how the school funds are run”. The above view was corroborated by respondent STA2 who stated that the involvement of senior teachers and deputy heads in school management “... will make them prepare for the future job which they will be aspiring to do” when they got promoted. It is quite clear that if senior teachers did not participate in such matters like financial management, then they might not acquire the necessary exposure to handle these matters once they are promoted into headship. This highlights the need for an MDP for BSSHs.

Participant STJ2 also lamented the plight of female senior teachers within schools. She was able to share the experience at her school by stating that she was never accorded the opportunity to participate in administration. The following statement represents her views on the plight of female senior teachers:

For us women, just working, just the experience we get when we are just as teachers it's very different from the experience we will get when we go or when we are promoted as heads. I am talking from experience. Most of the administrative issues or what, you are

excluded. You are just given an office, yes, because that's supposed to be the organogram of the school. There should be a senior lady in the school. But you don't know anything that happens in the school. You are only called when there is a girl who needs your help, full stop. So when you are promoted to being a head, you know nothing. You are more like, I don't know...more like a student. You are now doing everything using that trial and error, you know (STJ2).

It is quite clear from the foregoing that the leadership style of the school head, the micro-politics of the school and the problem of gender intolerance in schools are factors that inhibit the capacity of senior teachers to acquire the basic administrative skills through the guidance of the school head. In spite of the glaring challenges that aspiring incumbents encounter, education authorities are somewhat oblivious to the reality that senior teachers acquire little school leadership experience that can enable them to develop leadership potential within their schools. In the absence of effective preparation, such incumbents are likely to perform dismally in the event that they are promoted to positions of school headship.

5.4.4 Theme 4: The extent to which tertiary education institutions help to prepare aspiring incumbents for school leadership

Under this theme, an attempt was made to examine the views of participants regarding the extent to which tertiary institutions contributed towards the preparation of aspiring incumbents for school leadership. Two categories emerged from this theme in respect of the tertiary institutions that were of primary focus in the discussions. The first category referred to the teachers' colleges that train secondary school teachers up to diploma level while the second category dealt with universities that offer degrees in education management. Participants were asked to reflect on their experiences and state whether there was a connection between teacher training and the skills that were required in school leadership. In essence, the question sought to find out whether the curricula in the teachers' colleges and universities had components of school leadership. It emerged that the participants provided mixed responses about the contributions of tertiary institutions to the professional development of school heads.

5.4.4.1 Teachers' Colleges

Participants displayed mixed responses regarding the extent to which the teacher training curriculum in colleges had aspects of school leadership. Some participants indicated that the teacher education curriculum helped to provide a foundation upon which the teaching profession could be developed. It was quite evident from the participants' responses that teacher training was an essential step within the professional ladder of the teaching career. Participants who subscribed to this view argued that teacher training dealt with elements of leadership in its curriculum. This view was presented by participant HC who stated that "... *under teacher training we are exposed to various trends of leadership styles*". This implies that teacher training incorporates certain issues on leadership, although these are mainly in theory, as aptly stated by other participants in the following statements below:

Yeah, to some extent because teacher training offers us the fundamentals of teaching which will relate to the job which we will be given when we go to the ground (HC).

Yes. There is a correlation between what we did at training ... because I trained at GTC College there. I find that it was necessary that after that training you could use those skills in leadership (HD).

Yes, there is, to a small extent, because we deal with theories of leadership, when we study education theories there are something to do with leadership and also studies on philosophy, sociology and psychology. All those areas have a bearing on management and administration (HF).

I think yes, to some extent, because teacher education gave us the foundation from where to start from, otherwise you cannot just wake up and know everything. Everything should have a beginning so I think the teacher education gave us enough background to develop from so I think it was quite necessary, the education that we got at teachers' colleges (DHD).

There were, however, other participants who felt that teacher training hardly included components of school leadership as it was mainly focused on issues of pedagogy and theory of education in general. According to the participants, there was no connection

between teacher training and the skills that are required in school leadership. The following statements represent the participants' sentiments about this view:

It's totally divorced. Personally, I was educated at (name supplied) Teachers' College from 1983 till I completed. We had a four-year course. During our training as teachers, all what we were doing had to do with, in terms of education, adolescence, how to handle adolescence in school and also the content matter, the content only. With regards to school administration and even management of examinations and so on, it was not in the curriculum, it was not in the syllabus. We had to experience when we were deployed in the schools (HI).

There is no connection at all. Teacher training and leadership, in fact teacher training does not include much on leadership. Much of the emphasis is on the child but not on leadership (HJ).

I don't think it's aligned. Teacher training has got to do more with the output, student output whereas administration is something else. I would rather suggest that there be a programme in teacher training colleges which is aligned to management per se because it's like you are coming from the bush into the office (HG).

Yeah, to a certain extent it covers but maybe the teacher training on its own may not exhaust all the expertise which is needed in the management of schools itself. It covers more on how to build a teacher in the classroom rather a teacher as an administrator (DHJ).

Participants went further to lament the gaps that, according to them, existed in the teacher education curriculum as evidenced by the absence of components of leadership within it. One participant, STD1, from a focus group discussion stated that although teacher training provided “... the basics of how schools are run ... there is a gap” in components of school leadership. According to him, “... if maybe the teacher training period itself could encompass the idea of educational management in terms of managing schools, then that could improve that gap”. As a way of addressing this gap, “... the teacher training programme should somehow include leadership; training in some leadership skills” (HJ). According to the same respondent, the inclusion of a leadership course in teacher training is necessary to avert a situation where “... the teacher suddenly finds himself or herself in a leadership position but without any skills from college”. It was also the respondent's

feeling that “ ... *there should be a leadership course attached to every teaching programme*”. Another participant from a focus group discussion, STF1, indicated that “ ... *the topic on leadership at colleges is done in passing*”. In his view, there was need to incorporate school leadership into the teacher training curriculum in colleges so that “ ... *as soon as the teacher moves from college he is able even to take up a leadership position*”. Although several participants felt that the teacher training programme must provide foundation skills in school leadership, the current promotion criteria in the CSC stipulates that a candidate must be a holder of a first degree in education. This implies that those who undergo teacher training at colleges would still need to attain relevant degree qualifications at universities in order to qualify for school headship. Based on the above, it is quite apparent that if there is cooperation between teachers’ colleges, MoESAC and universities in the design of teacher education content, it will allow for undergraduate degree programmes to build upon the basic knowledge acquired by incumbents at teachers’ colleges.

5.4.4.2 University Education Degree Programmes

Only two participants made reference to the role that universities play in preparing aspiring incumbents for school leadership. Before the views of these participants are discussed in detail, it is essential to indicate that several universities in Zimbabwe offer programmes in education management such as the Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree in Education Management and other related post graduate degrees and diplomas. As previously indicated in section 1.3, the first tertiary institution to launch the Bachelor of Education degree programme was the then Centre for Distance Education (CDE), now the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU). Other universities later on offered their own versions of the degree programme which was mainly a professional qualification meant to equip aspiring, newly promoted and practising incumbents with the appropriate skills for school management. It must be noted that the enrolment of incumbents into the degree programmes at the several institutions was mainly out of the members’ own aspiration to advance their studies. This implies that despite the importance of the degree programme to school leadership, there were no efforts on the part of government to fund the education

of school leaders. Despite the lack of funding from government, an examination of the qualifications of the participants in the various categories displayed in tables 5.1 to 5.7 clearly shows that the majority of the participants had undertaken studies in education at either undergraduate level or postgraduate level. Literature studies indicate that although the degree programmes have modules on management and leadership, a common limitation among these programmes was that they were mainly theory based as they failed to provide students with the real practical exposure about how to tackle their key responsibilities in schools. Pont, Nusche and Moorman (2008:130) assert that the content of university programmes need to incorporate aspects of the real school context so that trainees are able to transfer their skills and knowledge to the real school situation. This implies that practice-based approaches like case studies and fieldwork need to be incorporated into the programmes. Participant SI1 suggested that “ ... *there should be strong partnership between the ministry and the tertiary institutions*” in the design and development of these degree programmes, especially if consideration was given to the fact the universities are “ ... *training for the ministry*”. In addition, the respondent raised the fact that universities were supposed to standardise the BEd degree programme and the Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) programme across all institutions of higher learning so as to facilitate quality of instruction that is informed by the real challenges and needs emanating from the school context.

Another participant, HB, suggested that the content of degree programmes was supposed to be a blend of theory and practice. In addition, it was stated that institutions entrusted with the training of teaching professionals were supposed to standardise the content of the various programmes they offered so as to ensure that the programme content at each level fed into or built upon the other level. In his view, if content in induction training programme was related to content in degree programmes, trainees would stand to gain because it “ ... *would be a question of reminding people what they have already learnt at tertiary level*”. It is quite evident from the perceptions of this participant that the induction workshops should build upon knowledge acquired in the degree programme because it was difficult for trainees to master critical skills in a short space of time. The participant also emphasised the need for continuous professional development because it was

“impossible to be a financial manager in day or two”. This underlines the need for cooperation between the MoPSE and universities in the design and development of practice- and skills-based degree programmes that address the real challenges facing school heads.

5.4.5 Theme 5: Current training programmes for BSSHs

This theme focused on the perceptions of participants regarding the kind of training programmes that are currently provided to initiate BSSHs into the role of school leadership. Participants proffered mixed responses to the question about whether newly promoted school heads currently received any form of training upon appointment to school leadership. The majority of participants affirmed that beginning school heads underwent some induction training upon promotion. According to the participants, the induction training is coordinated by the CSC and the MoPSE. Personnel drawn from key departments in the MoPSE act as resource persons and provide training in the various areas that constitute part of the training curriculum. The following statement reflects participant HH’s perception regarding the training programmes for the newly promoted school heads currently being used:

There are training programmes which are held by the Ministry ... for newly promoted heads (HH).

Two of the participants, however, stated that they had never attended any induction training after appointment to the post of headship. Participant HE indicated that he had not received *“... any particular formal training”*. For participant HF, it was a matter of *“... just finding yourself in the thick of things and trying to do what you think is best”*. This view clearly attests to the manner in which newly promoted heads resort to trial and error as they grapple with challenges associated with their new leadership role.

The negative responses from the two participants could imply that the induction training was not conducted during the time HF and HE were promoted. The conclusion that one can draw from the inconsistencies emanating from the participants’ responses is that the

induction training is sporadic. It could also point to the fact that the induction training programme is not systematically structured as to follow a certain laid down training routine for all newly promoted incumbents.

In terms of the duration of the induction training, participants cited periods ranging from one week to two weeks. The following statements represent participants' responses regarding the duration of the programme:

3-5 days. It's one week. Let me say, let me call it one working week (SI1).

There is a workshop; there is course where you go for a week (STI2)

What I have seen especially on the heads which were recently promoted, they were given a period of a week (DH).

The training programme was two weeks (HC)

They usually take a week or two weeks then you go back, then you go again, then you go back to the station (HH).

The inconsistencies in the duration of the induction training clearly point to the lack of a systematic programme. It is possible that variations in durations may imply that the curriculum is not fixed to meet set consistent training goals. Participants were able to cite financial procedures, policy issues, general administration, assets management and grooming and etiquette as some of the topics that were covered by the induction training. Participant STJ1 stressed that although the training dealt with an array of issues, the major thrust of the training “... is put on financial administration ... you find that most of the workshops that are conducted are on finance”. This implies that newly promoted incumbents were mainly “... getting workshops on financial issues more than administrative issues” (STJ1). It is evident that induction programmes tended to give too much emphasis towards the development of the financial management skill at the expense of other equally important skills.

Besides, participants also stated that the instructional approach that was used in the induction training was mainly based on theory without aspects that would involve trainees in real practical work. One participant had the following to say:

And most of the workshops just focus on theory. I think more should be done so that upcoming heads actually engage in the practical aspects. They might have the theory on how to record certain financial statements or what but they may not be able to do that practically. So I think the practical aspect is lacking (DH).

The views expressed by the participant above corroborate assertions made by Ibrahim (2011: 295) when he states that the preparation of school leaders need to be grounded in school-based experiences and practices.

Despite the inconsistencies in the duration of the programme, most participants expressed misgivings about the fact that the training programme was too short for an in-depth coverage of the major components of the training. The sentiments expressed in the statements below typify the thinking among the participants regarding the duration of the programme:

No, it wasn't, because we had about three days. I think it was too short for such a mammoth task (HA).

It wasn't comprehensive enough to cover the needs because even the facilitators who facilitated in the induction programme told us that the time which they were given or that was allocated for them was not enough for them to cover the, all the material for a newcomer into the system, for a new head into the system (HB).

It covered part of the needs of a school head but not everything. That is why I was saying the period given for that orientation is usually too short (HJ).

That training to me, was not very effective because there were so many issues that were dealt with and compressed within just a week (HI).

Participant DSI2 also expressed reservations about the duration of the one-week induction training. His feeling was that it was too short in view of “... *the responsibilities that they are supposed to take care of ... in one week*”. According to participant DH, it would be difficult to give beginning school heads “... *some kind of orientation on financial management because the time they are given is not adequate to build some kind of leaders who are quite efficient in their management of finance*”. While the training might “... *provide the basics on financial management but the number of times or the frequency they are given is not all that adequate especially to beginners*” (DHJ). This participant felt that a week was not adequate because “... *finance is quite a multi-faceted discipline which requires a long time as some people may not comprehend all what is required within a week*”. Beginning school heads therefore “... *need so many workshops which are designed to manage various facets within the management of finance itself*” (DHJ).

The other problem that was cited by participants in relation to the induction programme was about its timing. It was stated that beginning school heads were invited for induction training long after they would have assumed duty. According to DHF, school heads did not receive any meaningful orientation and in most instances they were “... *taught when they have already made mistakes*” especially in the management of finances. This view was also shared by respondent SI3 who had the following to say:

That's one of the challenges and normally these people are then inducted whilst they have already started, some months later or even a year later when they have experienced these challenges. So we are saying they should be inducted just before assumption of duty so that they are well versed with (how) to be in charge of the school (SI3).

An examination of the participants' views about the current induction training programme clearly show that the programme is characterised by inconsistencies in programme content, duration and timing. It is apparent that the current induction programme was not informed by a needs analysis, but was rather crafted to upskill beginning school heads in areas that education authorities deemed to be critical.

5.4.6 Theme 6: Perceptions of participants regarding the need for training for BSSHs

This theme reports on participants' responses to the question whether BSSHs required training to effectively prepare them for school leadership in the first two years of their headship career. Findings from the study established that all the participants viewed the need for training of novice school heads as a necessary intervention that could be administered to equip them with the technical skills required in the execution of their new leadership role. According to participant HJ, it was evident that “... heads are not oriented enough for the posts they take”. Rather, they simply “... assume those posts and they learn through the process ... on the job instead of having some base”. The lack of orientation points to the need for the introduction of a systematic training programme for the effective preparation of BSSHs for their new role.

The views of other participants in respect of the need for training of newly promoted school heads are illustrated by the following statements:

They should have specific training (DSI2).

Yeah, yeah it's very necessary because you find that for someone to go into administration, one is a teacher, you are...a...classroom practitioner, you want to transform yourself to be a leader. So there is need, there is great need for someone to be trained in how to administer, administer the human resource part of it and these other issues to do with office administration (HD).

We need proper, in fact proper training for the responsibilities that we are, we are in right now. We need the proper training because you will find out that the, the position is too involving. You want to be involved in almost everything for the system to run smoothly. You...are a financial manager who did not receive any training to do with management of finances. You want to be, to have very good public relations so that you are able to mix well properly with the parents, with other stakeholders, teachers, the pupils, the Ministry, even politicians. You want to have proper training in some of those areas, just to mention a few because there are so many areas (HB).

Like all the areas that I have said are posing challenges, definitely there are showing the needs which I have as a leader. So if I can be staff developed along those lines, I think that will help me (HC).

Yeah, I think I do because what normally happens here is you simply familiarise yourself with the roles of the head ahead of the interview. After qualifying, then you forget about it. You run things your own way; you have your own style of leadership. So you immerse yourself in those roles in order to pass the interview. After that, very few heads do apply those theories with the practice on the ground (HG).

Yeah, they need it because one week may not be enough. There is quite a lot that is involved. Some of them will not have done courses like management, leadership and so forth. May be he has a degree in a subject area; he needs to know management skills, leadership skills and the styles to use so that he can deal with various situations. So there is definitely need to continuously train them whilst they are on the job. Induction, yes, to begin with it's ok but there are further issues that need to be stressed so that he is well acquainted with the demands of his profession (SI2)

The general consensus among the participants in this study was spurred by a realisation that training provided the necessary transition for newly promoted school heads from the classroom to the position of school leadership. Participants reflected on their experiences and expressed their misgivings about the current situation in which there was no systematic training programme meant to orient newly promoted incumbents to the new job. According to HF, the absence of a training programme for school heads meant that newly promoted incumbents just found themselves “... *in the thick of things*” and trying to do what they thought was right. This view clearly shows that school heads encounter numerous challenges to the extent that if no training interventions are put in place, these challenges would affect their capacity to perform effectively. As stated previously in section 2.2, the post of headship requires a different set of skills from those required in classroom practice, hence there is a real need to ensure that the newly promoted heads are trained for their new responsibilities. It is quite apparent from the above that if newly promoted incumbents are not training for their new roles the education system risks promoting individuals from a position of competence to a position of incompetence as aptly described in the literature study in section 2.2. The need for training is summarised by the participant HD who states the following:

Surely, I would like to say the idea of training heads is pertinent. Training is maybe necessary for anyone to maybe produce efficient and productive results at the end of the day. If there is no training, then we don't hope to have any headway in future, but that training is paramount and it should be a prerequisite for anyone who wants to be a leader (HE).

Although it emerged that there was an induction training that was offered by the MoPSE, the majority of participants felt that the programme was not comprehensive enough as to cover all the basic fundamentals relating to the training needs of beginning secondary schools. According to participant SJ1, the training mainly dealt with “... *financial issues more than administrative issues*”. Besides, participants viewed the week long duration of the induction training to be too short for newly promoted incumbents to be able to master the technical skills that are fundamental to the post of headship. This view was echoed by participant HJ who stated the following:

Those orientation programmes, they are too short to make you get the necessary skills in financial management (HJ).

The statement summarises the shortcomings of the current induction training programme as perceived by the participants. This calls for the design of a structured, comprehensive and systematic MDP for beginning secondary schools.

5.4.7 Theme 7: Role of experienced/ retired school heads in the professional development of BSSHs

The majority of participants to the above theme indicated that experienced or retired secondary school heads could play an important role in the provision of training support to newly promoted secondary school heads. It was stated that long serving school leaders as well as those who had gone into retirement had a wealth of experience which could be tapped into to professionally develop BSSHs during the early years of their new role. According to the participants, education authorities were supposed to consider co-opting experienced school heads as resource persons and consultants in the management development of newly promoted incumbents. Besides, they could also play the role of

mentors and coaches entrusted with the responsibility of providing guidance to the novice school heads within the school site. Participants lamented about the fact that there was no meaningful role that retired school heads and their experienced counterparts were currently playing in the management development of newly promoted incumbents in spite of the wide range of experience that they had amassed during their long careers. It is quite apparent from the views of the participants that experienced school heads could potentially reflect on their experiences to train BSSHs in key problem-solving and decision-making strategies. The following statements represent the views of participants regarding the role of experienced school heads:

I was thinking that before someone is given a school ... like this one here, someone needed to be attached to an experienced head and then during that probation period, I would suggest that the candidate should then be assessed based on what they have been able to master and so on or ... the newly promoted heads to be deployed to such experienced heads to be able to observe good practices that are being done by the experienced ones (HI).

It would be very vital because for us, some of the experienced heads would be able to articulate some of the issues, the challenges which they have experienced and they will be able to share with the newly appointed heads. Other than having a situation whereby we go to a training workshop by Public Service Commission, these people, yes, they are good trainers but some of the issues are pertinent to do with on the job and they require someone who has the experience of how to deal with issues on ... at the work place (HD).

Participant HH intimated that experienced school heads played a critical role of providing support to the less experienced incumbents within the context of the cluster system. Under the system, “... the schools are grouped into clusters and at times we do cluster workshops whereby ... we ... make some visits as cluster heads”. He went further to state the following:

You go to this school, you see what is happening there, you give advice to that head, they come to your school, they also observe and give advice and so forth. So the old heads will always be beneficial to the newly appointed heads (HH).

The views of participants above attest to the critical role that experienced school heads play in the professional development of beginning school heads. It is evident that experienced school heads provide expert guidance and support to beginning school heads in work-based learning within schools and clusters. Studies have shown that the involvement of experts in the preparation of newly promoted incumbents helps the latter to acquire the necessary skills through coaching, mentoring and interaction at cluster sessions (Mullins 2010:197; Bush 2008:43; Chikoko 2007:43).

Some participants, however, expressed reservations about the idea of using experienced or retired school heads in the management development of BSSHs. In the case of retired school heads, it was stated that they could not be of much help given the rapid changes and developments that would have taken place in education after their retirement. The case of the new curriculum and the use of ICT in instructional practice were cited as examples of some of the areas where their technical proficiency could be weak. The statements below illustrate the perceptions of the participants on the matter:

Yes, he has experienced something. He has something to share, but there are changes coming up like recently we have had the new updated curriculum. So someone who has retired before it has been introduced will definitely be knowing very little along those lines. But maybe when it comes to leadership, his experiences, yes he can be quite helpful. The retired head can be quite helpful in that (SI3).

Yeah, to a lesser extent because normally things change and you...for example if I leave the institution today two/three years and I want to come back there are a lot of changes. Like for example we have the new curriculum and sometimes it's very difficult to rely on your experience. You have to learn new skills all the times. I don't think there is much to involve retired heads, probably of course in administration, but still it's a challenge because things are always changing (HA).

We are in the same dilemma with experienced school heads. In fact, sometimes we are in a better position than the experienced ones because most of them, they are nearing their retirement age so they no longer pay attention to some of these issues like the computer issue. In fact, they come, instead of us going to them to seek assistance from them; they come to us (HB).

Despite their performance challenges in some of the areas cited above, participants acknowledged that experienced school heads were quite strong in the areas of “... *conflict resolutions and community relations*” (HB). Despite the cases of incompetence the participants cited in respect of experienced school heads, international practices in school leadership development currently prioritise the training of mentors and coaches in order to effectively prepare them for the role of providing technical support to the novice school heads (Wallace 2007:7).

5.4.8 Theme 8: Components of an envisaged management development programme for BSSHs as perceived by stakeholders

In this theme, participants were asked what they perceived to be the components of an envisaged MDP for BSSHs. Nine categories were identified and these were: financial management, human resources management, general administration, asset management, policy issues, instructional leadership, community relations, ICT and documentation. The table below shows the content of the training programme as perceived by the participants:

Table 5.9: Components of the management development programme

Components of the Management Development Programme	Sub-categories of the Programme Components
1. Financial management	Financial regulations, budgeting, tender procedures, resource mobilisation and management, bookkeeping
2. Instructional leadership	Leadership, curriculum management, planning mission and vision of the school, supervision of staff, examinations management, student welfare and discipline
3. General administration	Planning, timetabling, time management, organising and coordinating, decision making, problem solving
4. Policy issues	Education Act, statutory instruments, policy circulars
5. Community relations	External relations with stakeholders, School Development Committee

6.	Information Communication Technology	Use of ICT in research, teaching and learning, Use of ICT in administration and management of school records
7.	Human resources management	Staffing, staff motivation, staff supervision, staff discipline, staff development
8.	Documentation	Supervision reports and report writing, completion of data forms e.g. ED 46 etc, completion of leave forms.
9.	Asset management	Asset inventory, project management, maintenance of infrastructure and physical facilities

An analysis of the components that were cited by the participants during the empirical study as constituting their training needs clearly shows that these components are, to a large extent, a reflection of the responsibilities of school heads enumerated in section 2.5. It is quite apparent that the components of the envisaged MDP as perceived by the participants is reflective of the broader responsibilities characterising the current management tasks expected in school-based management. School management development literature states that the content of school leadership training programmes is selected on the basis of two main determinants: leadership frameworks and standards of practice that define the type of responsibilities that school heads are expected to fulfil and training needs analyses (Pont et al 2008:62; Armstrong 2012:90; Hussain & Zamair 2011:25). As indicated in section 3.4.2, national competence frameworks and standards provide insight into the type of responsibilities that school heads are expected to perform and it is on the basis of such information that education authorities can determine what can be taught to school leaders. Literature study in section 3.4.3 also attests to the essence of undertaking a training needs assessment (TNA) as a way of identifying the performance challenges facing school leaders and determining the kind of skills that they require. This implies that national competence frameworks, standards and TNA can be used to provide information that can help in the formulation of training objectives and the selection of content for an MDP. In this study, participants enumerated the responsibilities of school heads as well as the challenges that BSSHs encounter during the early years of their career. Their perceptions were corroborated by literature study in sections 2.11 and 2.12 which implies that roles and challenges of school leadership are somewhat of an international phenomenon. This implies that the content and structure of MDP might

be similar in many countries leading to the thinking that the design of these programmes could be based on certain international standards despite the contextual and cultural variances among countries (Earley 2013:441).

Based on an analysis of the contents of MDPs in South Africa, Kenya and England in section 3.8, it can be observed that the content of these programmes is largely comparable to the components of the envisaged MDP that were perceived by participants in this study. The content of programmes in South Africa, Kenya and England had certain prominent topics that were common across all the programmes, such as instructional leadership; policy implementation; community relations; ICT; financial management; human resources management. (Ng & Szeto 2015:4; DBE website, www.education.gov.za/Informationfor/Principals/ACE.aspx; KEMI website, www.kemi.ac.ke/index.php/courses Muthini 2004:26; Naicker 2011:432; Bush & Glover 2005:222). Certain topics were, however, particular to each programme. Bush (2008:39) contends that while the content of an MDP can comprise generic topics, certain topics are included to suit individual countries' contexts, values and interests.

5.4.9 Theme 9: Strategies for delivery of instruction to BSSHs

This theme focuses on the perceptions of participants on the strategies that could be used to train newly promoted secondary school heads. The responses that were given by the participants were arranged into the following categories: Partnerships between MoESAC and tertiary institutions, induction training, self-learning, in-service training, cluster-based training and mentoring and coaching.

5.4.9.1 Partnerships between MoPSE and tertiary education institutions

Several participants proposed the need for MoPSE to collaborate with tertiary education institutions in the design and development of a school leadership curriculum for novice school heads. In terms of the provision of contact sessions, teachers' colleges and universities were identified as the major players in the academic and professional

advancement of incumbents within the field of education. To this end, the sentiments among the participants were that there must be cooperation between the parties in the preparation of pre-service and in-service students for a career in school leadership. It was observed that the current teacher training curriculum offered in teachers' colleges largely focused on issues of pedagogy and theory of education while little attention was given to aspects of school leadership, yet graduates from the teachers' colleges would constitute a pool from which future school leaders would be selected. Participant HJ clearly stated that “... *teacher training does not include much on leadership as emphasis is on the child ... not on leadership*”. He went further to say the following:

I feel teacher training programme should somehow include leadership; training in some leadership skills. That is very necessary because the teacher suddenly finds himself or herself in a leadership position but without any skills from college. I feel there should be a leadership course attached to every teaching programme.

Participants also opined that it would be quite ideal if the diploma programme in teachers' colleges exposed incumbents to elements of school leadership so that they could develop basic leadership skills required to deal with real school needs at the early stage of their career development. These views corroborate the sentiments of Pont, Nusche and Moorman (2008:129) who state that the mix of pedagogical and academic teaching with training on professional leadership of work helps to provide a firm grounding upon which the leadership competencies of individuals can be enhanced during teacher training programmes.

The case of universities was also discussed during the empirical study. Participants acknowledged that universities were reservoirs of expertise which could contribute to the professional training of teachers. It was observed that several universities were currently offering various degrees in educational leadership and pedagogy at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. According to participant SI1, a major shortcoming of the degree programmes was that they were not standardised according to the expectations of MoPSE. Rather, the module outlines were developed in the interests of the institutions

offering them without taking into consideration the training needs of school leaders within the real-world context. The participant lamented about the following:

I have tried to make reference to quite a number of course outlines from the various tertiary institutions. I have had a look especially at the PGDE programme outline and questioned myself whether these people they are churning out graduates who have the potential to be school heads (S11).

The diploma and degree programmes were criticised for being too theoretical without giving emphasis to the integration of theory with practice. Graduates of the programmes were said to have a lack of understanding of policy instruments such as SI 1 of 2000 as well as financial management skills among others. The Bachelor of Education Honours Pre-Service degree programme was singled out, during the empirical study, as an example of a programme that did not provide sufficient experiential and practical grounding to the candidates given the fact this category of students would not have undergone teacher training at colleges. According to participant S11, there was a risk that candidates of the degree programme were likely to graduate without the adequate professional grounding needed for school leadership if no measures were taken to include practical aspects of school leadership into the programme. It is quite evident that there is a need for partnerships between tertiary institutions and MoPSE to ensure that the content taught in the academic programmes is standardised. Pont, Nusche and Moorman (2008:138) contend that the curricula of the various institutions that are involved in the training of education personnel must be harmonised on the basis of national standards in order to ensure quality of professionalisation. This implies that institutions of higher and tertiary education need to collaborate in the design, development and implementation of the school leadership curriculum.

5.4.9.2 Induction training

Induction training was cited as one of the strategies that could be used for the management development of newly promoted secondary school heads. It was observed that although induction training was currently being administered, participants bemoaned

the shortcomings that characterised the current induction training. The current induction training was said to be a once-off training workshop with a short duration ranging from three days to two weeks. Due to its short duration, the induction was not comprehensive as to cover all the critical elements pertinent to novice school leaders. Besides, the participants had serious misgivings about the timing of the induction training as it was observed the training would often be administered well after newly promoted incumbents had assumed duty at their new stations. Despite the problems cited above, participants identified induction training as a viable strategy for preparing newly promoted school heads for their new role. This implies that there is need to review the current induction training to ensure that it becomes comprehensive and responsive to the needs of beginning school heads. The following statements represent the views of participants on induction training as a strategy:

I think heads need induction. They need to be helped in decision-making skills; problem solving (STD2).

Usually they promote in groups and once that happens, they should have maybe some six months or so of training rather than having a week's training on a particular element or section of the leadership skills (DHI).

And I have also suggested that if the induction is to be done it needs to be given sometime so that they really understand exactly what is supposed to be done (SI2).

I was thinking of a situation where the Ministry would organise, just after promoting the heads, would organise a workshop that would take maybe the whole month the holiday that follows soon after promoting them (STF1).

Studies have shown that induction training is the most ideal training strategy for newly promoted school heads who have not received any form of initial training prior to their appointment (Pont et al 2008:122). The duration of induction training sessions has been found to vary from three days to two years depending on the programme structure. In this case, an induction training programme covering the first two years of probation could be ideal if the perceptions of the participants regarding the short duration of the current

programme were to be taken into consideration. This would enable the design of a comprehensive programme that would target the specific needs of beginning school heads and deal with the challenges that they are likely to encounter during the early period of their leadership career.

As previously indicated in section 3.6.2, Kitavi and Van der Westhuizen (1997 in Bush 2008:100) made reference to eight strategies that characterise effective induction programmes. The socialisation of the school head within the school and its community coupled with the assignment of an experienced peer to provide guidance to the newly promoted incumbent are very essential elements of the induction process. This implies that these strategies should be implemented first before other several components of induction programmes are administered.

Induction training programmes are comprised of a variety of components that include contact sessions, self-learning, mentoring and coaching sessions as well as cluster-based practicums (Bush 2008:43, Wong 2007:142). The array of components constituting induction training programmes are meant to impart the range of skills required by novice school heads. These include the theoretical principles of management and the practical skills that are critical for problem solving and decision making. The mix of theory and practice would be critical for the professional development of a school leader who would make an impact in the management of teaching and learning within the school. It emerged during the study that workshops could be used to provide beginning school heads with the foundation skills in critical areas. Participants proposed that beginning school heads were supposed to attend “ ... *workshops whereby they maybe assemble for a week or two and they have a course on a particular subject*” (STJ1). Workshops were observed to be most preferable as these could “ ... *be arranged over the holidays so that heads can have enough time to attend to the workshops*” (HB).

5.4.9.3 In-service training

Participants HA, HB, HH, HF, SI1, SI3 and STJ1 made reference to in-service training as a possible strategy that could be used in the professional development of beginning school heads. Although numerous participants identified this strategy, it was noted that in-service training was traditionally meant to inculcate new skills to practising school heads in line with developments and changes in the education sector. Studies indicate that in-service training is based on the deficit model as it is meant to address perceived performance deficiencies among targeted trainees. This implies that in-service training is a form of continuous professional development meant to enhance the competencies of the incumbents to the level above the basic threshold of set standards (Pont et al 2008:124). An examination of the nature and form of in-service training clearly shows that this strategy befits both beginning and practising school heads. In terms of the appropriate instructional strategy, most participants cited workshops as the major approach to the provision of in-service training. According to participant HH, workshops are done on “... *several occasions and whenever there is something new which is introduced*” within the education sector. The respondent went further to say the following:

So it is better that way that you have one or two weeks training then you go and implement it so that you go back for the next in-service training, you put across your problems and they always help you with how you can solve those problems (HH).

Definitely workshops would do and also some fieldwork, going into schools studying various situations and then coming together and trying to come up with solutions. But the workshop would do. But maybe for some, even some refresher courses, in-service courses. They are part and parcel of workshops (HF).

The strategies which may be useful, I think workshops. Workshops can be arranged for a specific group of heads like say 15 heads, 20 heads maybe over the holidays (HB).

On the basis of the above, it is quite apparent that beginning school heads could immensely benefit from in-service training to enhance their skills alongside their more experienced peers.

5.4.9.4 Self-learning

Two participants identified self-learning as a strategy that could be used to facilitate the personal involvement of individuals in the study process. Studies carried out elsewhere have indicated that self-learning makes a significant contribution to the internalisation of concepts and principles underlying the management role of school heads (Bush 2008:42). This implies that individualised learning complements course-based learning that is done during the contact sessions. It was noted that the realisation of effective self-learning could only be achieved if study modules on school leadership were developed by school management experts and given as a package to beginning school heads together with such relevant material as a school management handbook, policy circulars, statutory instruments and the Education Act among other material. This view was proposed by participant SI3 who suggested that school heads were supposed to be provided with “... *relevant materials like policy circulars*” so that they could internalise the contents of these policies and be able to refer to them in the process of decision making thereby engaging in self-learning. The idea of personalised learning was also suggested by participant HG. His view was that “... *in this modern era of information*”, e-learning could be employed to ensure that novice school heads access e-learning modules on the internet within their work stations. Chong, Scott and Low (2003 in Bush 2008:46) intimate that the advent of information technology virtually makes it possible for individuals to engage in e-learning. In the case of the selected schools under study, e-learning as a strategy might be fraught with challenges as it was observed that there was a low uptake of internet facilities. Of the ten secondary schools that participated in this study, only three had internet facilities, the connectivity of which was said to be intermittent. Under these circumstances, the provision of hard copies of the material could prove the only viable option.

5.4.9.5 Cluster-based training

Cluster-based training was also identified as one of the strategies that could be used to prepare novice school heads for effective school leadership. The concept of clusters is based on the notion of communities of practice (CoP) that was outlined in sections 3.2.2

and 3.7. In this study, the cluster system typifies an example of CoP that can be used for the purpose of capacity building, particularly the management development of beginning school heads. Chikoko (2007:45) refers to the system as a grouping of schools within the same geographical locality in which members can share knowledge and ideas through a process of social interaction. In this study, several participants indicated that the cluster system provided beginning school heads with opportunities to network and interact with their experienced peers thereby exchanging knowledge and skills. According to participant HH, “... schools are grouped into clusters and at times we do cluster workshops whereby ... you go to this school, you see what is happening there, you give advice to that head, they come to your school, they also observe and give advice and so forth”. Another respondent also had the following to say about the cluster system:

They will have a workshop at cluster level where they will discuss on management of financial books, how to handle certain problems, how to communicate with teachers, on communication, they workshop on ICT like my colleague has said, workshops on general welfare of the school.

This implies that knowledge sharing is the major hallmark of CoP. It is quite apparent that the cluster system provides newly promoted incumbents with the diversity of experience from experienced peers. In addition, the novice heads obtain practical advice emanating from site-based observations of how certain tasks are undertaken within the real school context.

Participant HB, however, lamented that while the cluster system was a good idea, the system was fraught with certain operational challenges. The respondent stated that in certain instances, secondary schools “... are grouped with primary schools” within the same cluster, yet the management approaches underlying these schools were different. Under these circumstances, it was difficult for secondary heads and primary school heads to interact in a mutually beneficial manner because of the contextual differences within their school systems. Besides, it was also stated that the geographical distance between schools was the major problem constraining the effective implementation of the cluster system within a rural setting where transport was a major challenge. It was stated that

secondary schools in the same cluster could be as far apart as sixteen kilometres, a factor “... which makes it very difficult for us to arrange efficient workshops which are meant to be organized with very little resources” (HB). Notwithstanding these challenges, studies have shown that the cluster system is a viable strategy for the management development of novice school heads as it provides opportunities for group learning in which the less experienced benefit from their experienced peers (Bush 2008:46).

5.4.9.6 Mentoring and coaching

Participants highlighted the use of experienced and retired school heads in the provision of guidance and technical support to BSSHs. It was observed that experienced school heads could play the dual role of mentoring and coaching the newly promoted school heads. As indicated in section 3.6.5 and 3.6.6 mentoring and coaching are strategies that are widely used in the professional development of beginning school heads. Mentoring involves the process of assigning an experienced school head to take charge of the professional development of a beginning school head during the early period of the latter’s career. On the other hand, coaching involves the tutor and the protégé in which the former seeks to train the latter on certain specific skills until the protégé reaches the desirable level of competence. According to participant DSI2, beginning school heads were simply promoted to positions of headship without having been provided with proper tutelage under the guidance of experienced school heads. The respondent had the following to say:

And sometimes, you find that these beginning heads, sometimes they are just promoted from the post of acting. They are substantive deputy heads, yes, but they won’t be under a substantive head in most cases. So in other words, by virtue of being a substantive deputy head, you automatically become the acting head at the station and you don’t get the experience. So it’s necessary as a strategy that a promoted substantive deputy head be under a substantive head for some time, say two years so that he or she gains the experience (SI2).

This presents a strong case for the use of mentoring and coaching to ensure that the novice incumbents are able to develop the appropriate skills required for effective school

leadership. The literature study in sections 3.2.2 and 3.2.3 clearly indicates that the two strategies are based on the concept of situated learning, particularly the apprenticeship model which is characterised by on-the-job training and a strong emphasis on the integration of theory with practice.

5.4.9.7 Use of resource persons

Participants identified the use of resource persons as a critical strategy in the facilitation of the MDP. The following statements represent the views of the participants on the matter:

They have got a wealth of experience, especially the successful ones because every time we depend on them in terms of...we need their experience. So I think they can be used to staff develop the newly promoted heads and we can also make use of them in module writing and maybe even being resource persons for such programmes. (HG)

The Ministry can also invite resource persons at cluster level to induct the newly appointed heads on running of the schools. (STA1)

Literature on school management development cites facilitation as an important element of the entire management development process (Bush & Glover 2005:218). Resource persons play multiple roles in the implementation of the training programme. Firstly, they take part in the design of the programme curriculum and the selection of content. Secondly, resource persons are also responsible for developing instructional material such as modules and media as well as the identification of appropriate instructional approaches. This implies that resource persons are highly experienced people with a lot of expertise in school leadership who can provide support to newly promoted school heads through mentoring and coaching during work-based learning within real school contexts.

It is evident that the array of instructional strategies that were proposed by participants in this study is diverse to the extent that they provide facilitators with a variety of methodological options to effectively develop the requisite skills among BSSHs. An

examination of the components of the envisaged MDP clearly shows that elements of the content give prominence to two forms of knowledge. According to Pont et al (2008:131), certain elements emphasise propositional knowledge (knowing what) while others stress procedural skills (knowing how). This implies that the instructional strategies must be a blend of theoretical knowledge with experiential learning that is apprenticeship based, problem based and reflective of practical and real school contexts. It is also important that the design of content for the professional development of school leaders follow a certain sequence to ensure that the several institutions participating in the training of novice school heads build upon the efforts of each other.

5.5 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed and analysed the findings of the empirical study that was carried out to interrogate the perceptions of participants about the management development of BSSHs. The empirical study was guided by the research problem and sub-problems. These, in turn, assisted in the construction of interview schedules. Nine themes emerged from the study. In theme 1, participants were asked to enumerate the responsibilities of school heads. It was evident that the participants had an experiential-based understanding of the roles of school heads, which corroborated with the job description outlined in section 2.11. Theme 2 dealt with an examination of the perceptions of participants regarding the challenges that BSSHs encountered during the early years of school leadership. Challenges that were cited under this theme reflected findings in the literature study and school leadership literature in general. It is also worth noting that the challenges were implied to be the training needs of BSSHs that would provide information about the kind of training that they required. Theme 3 dealt with the role of tertiary institutions in preparing aspiring incumbents for school leadership while theme 4 focused on the extent to which work experience at the level of senior teacher could prepare individuals for school leadership roles. Theme 5 dealt with currently existing training programmes for BSSH while Theme 6 broadly looked at the perceptions of participants regarding the current training programme for BSSHs. It emerged that participants gave mixed perceptions in their responses to the three themes above. Theme 7 dealt with

participants' perceptions regarding the role of experienced or retired school heads in the professional development of novice school heads. Most participants concurred that school heads could play a meaningful role as resource persons in the training, mentoring and coaching of newly promoted school heads. Themes 8 and 9 focused on the perceived components of an envisaged MDP for novice school heads and the strategies that would be used for instructional delivery respectively. It was evident from the participants' submissions that the array of components cited in theme 8 represented the diverse skills that BSSHs would require in view of the challenges that had been cited in theme 2. In the same manner, the instructional strategies that were proposed were based on the need to inculcate both theoretical knowledge and practical skills grounded in real-world school contexts. The findings made in this study will help the researcher to synthesise the emerging thematic patterns and formulate a framework for the management development of BSSHs in the next chapter. The following chapter will also give an overview of the research study, draw conclusions and present recommendations.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter firstly seeks to provide a summary of each of the chapters in order to present an overview of the research study that was carried out on management development programmes (MDPs) for beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs). The chapter also synthesises the emerging patterns that emanated from the discussion and analysis of data that was undertaken in the previous chapter. The research findings that emerged from the empirical study will then help the researcher to draw conclusions and propose recommendations. Suggestions on possible areas for further research are also made.

6.2 SUMMARY OF FIRST FOUR CHAPTERS

The study was aimed at investigating the perceptions of stakeholders about an MDP for BSSHs. The study was undertaken within the parameters of the objectives that were set out in section 1.6. The objectives are outlined as follows:

1. To provide a conceptual framework of management and leadership in schools.
2. To provide an insight into the concept of management development of BSSHs.
3. To examine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the need for an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe.
4. To propose components of an MDP for BSSHs in Zimbabwe.

The specific objectives outlined above guided the researcher in constructing the chapters that constituted this study. In fact, the chapters were developed in a manner that sought to provide answers to the main research problem and the sub-problems from which the above-stated objectives were derived. The chapters provided an introduction to the research, the review of literature, the research methodology and the empirical study as outlined below:

6.2.1 Chapter 1

The chapter introduced the research topic and specifically outlined the research problem under investigation. It also presented the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the research questions, aims and objectives. The motivation of the study was further discussed while other aspects such as the research methodology, research design and the delimitation of the study were dealt with. A clarification of the key concepts was undertaken to ensure that the terms used would have contextual bearing to this study.

6.2.2 Chapter 2

The chapter basically provided an outline of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks underlying the notion of an MDP for BSSHs. The theoretical framework for this study was based on the Peter Principle which states that an employee within an organisation is capable of being promoted from a lower position to a position of management, which would require a set of skills different from those of the previous post. Upon the assumption of the new post, there is no guarantee that the newly promoted incumbent would perform the new job according to set expectations unless he or she is professionally developed for the new leadership role. The chapter also focused on the major management and leadership functions that are critical for the provision of effective school leadership. It gave an outline of the broadened responsibilities of the school head in view of the notion of school-based management and the reforms that have affected education systems the world over. An examination of the challenges that BSSHs encounter during the early years of headship was also undertaken. It was apparent that the beginning school heads certainly require training in order for them to manage schools in an effective and efficient manner. In the absence of a training intervention that could adequately prepare BSSHs, they would struggle to cope with the complex tasks associated with their profession during the first two years after appointment.

6.2.3 Chapter 3

This chapter provided an outline of the theoretical and conceptual framework of the concept of management development. The theoretical framework underlying the MDP for BSSHs was based on the social constructivist theory of learning, particularly Etienne Wenger's social learning theory and Levi Vygotsky's social development theory. The two theories contend that learning is a function of interaction within a social and cultural context in which participants acquire knowledge through collaboration and active participation. The two theories are mainly anchored in the concept of situated learning and the notion of CoP which emphasise the essence of interaction for the purpose of sharing knowledge and expertise. The chapter also dealt with the factors that influence the design of an MDP such as the ideological perceptions of the state, national standards and competence frameworks as well as training needs assessment (TNA). These factors were considered to be fundamental to the design and the selection of content for an MDP for BSSHs. A study of the relevant literature was also undertaken to examine international trends regarding the content of MDPs. The literature study revealed that the content was generally characterised by common topics. A review of literature was also undertaken to examine the instructional methodology that could be used in the professional development of school leaders. It was evident that the consideration of an array of management development strategies was necessary as it would provide facilitators with several options that could be used to effectively prepare BSSHs. The use of several strategies would also allow facilitators to blend theory with practice during the management development process. Management development programmes in such countries as South Africa, Kenya and the United Kingdom were reviewed in order to gain an understanding of school leadership development practices elsewhere. Information obtained from the literature study would enlighten the researcher on how a framework for an MDP for BSSHs could be developed in Zimbabwe.

6.2.4 Chapter 4

This chapter focused on the research methodology that was employed in this study. The study used the qualitative research design to examine the perceptions of stakeholders about MDPs for BSSHs. The case study, in particular, was used as the strategy to interrogate the above phenomenon. The sample was comprised of 28 participants who were chosen (although only 27 eventually took part), through purposive sampling, from 10 selected secondary schools and the district education office in Zaka District. Participants in the sample comprised three SIs, five beginning BSSHs, five practising school heads; five deputy heads and ten senior teachers. Data was collected from the participants using individual interviews and focus group interviews. Documents such as vacancy announcement circulars, the Civil Service Commission (CSC) training and development policy, policy circulars and relevant statutory instruments (SI) and the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) circulars were also reviewed. The use of multiple data collection instruments and sources including individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis helped the researcher to verify data through a process of triangulation. Issues of trustworthiness of data and the observation of research ethics were considered. Data collected was analysed using Creswell's six-step data analysis procedure (Creswell 2014:197) to construct meaning out of the participants' perceptions and provide answers to the research problem.

6.3 SUMMARY OF EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

The ensuing sections provide a summary of the research findings that emerged from the empirical study. The findings are presented in accordance with the themes that emerged from the data that was collected during the field study as outlined in section 5.3. It is also worth mentioning that the research findings seek to provide answers to two research questions that were formulated in section 1.6.1.

6.3.1 Responsibilities of secondary school heads

According to the findings of the empirical study in 5.3.1, the following were cited as the responsibilities of the secondary school head: accountability; day-to-day administration of the school; financial management; human resources management; asset management; implementation of policies; link between the school, the ministry and other stakeholders; marketing the school and instructional leadership. The findings concur with the duties and responsibilities of school heads that are enumerated in the Vacancy Announcement Number 32 of 2014 in section 2.11. Literature study findings in 3.4.2 indicate that the duties and responsibilities of school heads are generated from competence frameworks and performance standards that are set by the national education system. This implies that they can be used as the benchmarks that determine the kind of technical skills and professional competencies school heads must acquire. It is therefore very important to consider the prescribed duties of the school head when determining the content of the envisaged MDP. This is meant to ensure that the newly promoted incumbents are provided with the appropriate training that would improve their competencies to the level set by the national system.

6.3.2 Challenges beginning secondary school heads (BSSHs) face

According to the findings of the literature study in section 2.12, school heads encountered numerous challenges. It emerged that the difficulties encountered by BSSHs during the early period of school headship were largely due to the fact that they were simply thrown into positions of leadership without adequate preparation for their new leadership roles. Findings of the empirical study in 5.3.2 confirmed the literature study findings by identifying the following as the major challenges BSSHs have to face: lack of proper induction; instructional leadership; financial management; implementation of policies; asset management; Information and Communication Technology (ICT); overburdened with responsibilities; human resources management; community relations and documentation. An examination of these challenges clearly shows that they are numerous

to the extent that they are almost spread across the spectrum of responsibilities of school heads cited in section 2.11.

6.3.3 Work experience at the level of senior teacher as a form of preparation for school leadership

Findings of the empirical study in 5.1.3 indicate that work experience at the level of senior teacher was very essential as it exposed aspiring incumbents to the school management roles that school heads would be expected to perform. This implies that such experience could provide considerable professional grounding for the transition of senior teachers into positions of school leadership once they assumed such positions. It was, however, observed that the extent to which a senior teacher could be groomed into leadership was dependent upon the leadership style of the school head. It was stated that while some school heads were participatory in terms of their leadership disposition as to involve subordinates in administration through delegation, others were so autocratic that they hardly involved subordinates in the affairs of the school which would render it difficult for senior teachers to gain any meaningful leadership experience. According to Salahuddin (2012:51), the traditional hierarchy of leadership in which power was centralised in the school head, militated against the practice of delegating administrative duties to subordinates. Yet, it is quite apparent that delegating administrative tasks to senior teachers would provide them with an opportunity to learn by doing and help them to internalise certain skills that they would apply once they were promoted to positions of headship. Crow (2006:317) highlights that teachers conceptualise the role of the school head by gaining experience while observing their super-ordinates executing the tasks or performing the tasks that would have been delegated to them. There is therefore a need for practising school heads to embrace democratic leadership practices that would enable the active participation of senior teachers in the management of the school.

6.3.4 The extent to which tertiary and higher education institutions help to prepare incumbents for school leadership

According to the literature study findings in 3.8.1, tertiary and higher education institutions contribute to the professional development of school leaders by partnering with education departments in the design and implementation of MDPs. Findings gained from the empirical study in 5.3.4 also corroborate the above findings by identifying universities and teachers' colleges as the institutions that play a critical role in the development of education practitioners. It emerged that teacher training was considered to be fundamental as it provided candidates with the requisite professional grounding in pedagogy and theory of education. Findings also revealed the role played by universities in providing academic programmes in school leadership and other relevant short courses. It was, however, established that the teacher education curriculum did not include components of school leadership. In respect of universities, the findings indicated that the academic programmes were mainly based on theory as they failed to expose students to practice that is based on real-world school contexts. Furthermore, it was also observed that the academic programmes that universities offered were neither standardised nor aligned to meet the professional competencies and standards set by the MoPSE. There is a need for cooperation between the MoPSE and universities in the design and implementation of a practice- and skills-based MDP that addresses the real challenges facing school heads. Besides, it also emerged in the discussions that programmes across all institutions of higher learning were supposed to be standardised to ensure that the programmes conform to the professional development standards set by the MoPSE.

6.3.5 Current training programmes for BSSHs

The empirical study findings in 5.3.5 indicate that the current induction training for newly promoted school heads was not consistent as it was not based on a system structured in terms of its content and duration. It also emerged that the induction programme occurred at irregular intervals to the extent that some incumbents could not receive any form of training during their early years of headship. The inconsistencies characterising the

existing training programme could imply that it was not capable of applying the same set of skills required in school leadership to the different groups of newly promoted incumbents undertaking induction training at any given time. There is therefore a need to develop a systematic MDP for BSSHs.

6.3.6 Perceptions of participants on the need for training for BSSHs

Empirical study findings in section 5.4 affirm that BSSHs require training to effectively prepare them for school leadership in the first two years of their headship career. It was evident that the participants' experiences regarding the failure of the existing training programme to address the challenges of newly promoted school heads was the reason for the need for a comprehensive training programme. The absence of a systematic training programme for school heads gave the impression that newly promoted incumbents were simply thrust into positions of school leadership without adequate preparation and only left to learn on the basis of trial and error. Findings in the literature study indicate that the post of headship requires a different set of skills from those required in classroom practice hence there is a real need for newly promoted incumbents to be trained for their new responsibilities (Bush 2009:376). The findings also established that novice school heads encounter immense difficulties during the early years of their school leadership career to the extent that there is a real need for them to receive training in terms of the knowledge and skills required to perform their new roles effectively (Walker & Qian 2006:292; Mukhtarova 2013:82). It is evident, on the basis of these findings, that the professional development of novice school heads is necessary in order to avert the risk of promoting individuals from a position of competence to a position of incompetence.

6.3.7 Role of experienced/ retired school heads in the development of BSSHs

According to empirical study findings in section 5.4.7, experienced or retired secondary school heads could play an important role in the professional development of newly promoted secondary school heads. It emerged that long serving and retired incumbents had a wealth of experience in school leadership which could be tapped to provide

guidance and support to BSSHs. Findings revealed that they could be used as resource persons and consultants in the design and facilitation of MDPs for novice school heads. The strategy of using retired school heads to play the role of mentors and coaches in the professional development of school leaders is in keeping with practices in other countries such as South Africa and the United Kingdom (Bush, Kiggundu & Moorosi 2011:34). Literature study findings in section 3.2.3 refer to the apprentice model of training in which a novice develops the requisite skills through interaction with an experienced master. There is therefore a need for an MDP to be anchored in the philosophy of situated learning in which the less experienced individual realises experiential learning within the context of the environment and culture in which the skills would be used. The role of experienced mentors and coaches in providing support and guidance to the novice school head within the school site is therefore of fundamental importance if optimum learning is to be realised.

6.3.8 Components of an envisaged management development programme for BSSHs as perceived by stakeholders

Literature study findings in section 3.5 reveal that the content of MDPs is generally similar across programmes in several countries. It emerged that most programmes that were reviewed in the literature study contained common topics. It was, however, found that certain topics were specific to certain programmes depending on the ideology, values and national interests of a particular education system as was explained in section 3.4.1. According to the empirical study findings in section 5.4.8, the following content clusters were proposed: financial management, human resources management, general administration, asset management, policy issues, instructional leadership, community relations, ICT and documentation. The above content clusters bear certain topics that were found to be common across programmes in several countries, such as instructional leadership, financial management, human resources management and administration (Bush 2008:39; Naicker 2011:432). An analysis of the content of the MDP that was identified during the empirical study clearly shows some resonance with the responsibilities of school heads and the challenges encountered by novice school heads

cited in sections 2.11, 2.12, 3.4.2 and 3.4.3. The resonance attests to the fact that for any training programme to effectively address the performance needs of its target participants, selection of programme content must be done with consideration to the national performance standards and training needs assessment.

6.3.9 Strategies for delivery of instruction to BSSHs

According to the empirical study findings in section 5.4.9, several strategies that could be used for the professional development of BSSHs were identified. The following were the strategies that were proposed: Partnerships between MOESAC and tertiary institutions for contact sessions, induction training, self-learning, in-service training, cluster-based training, and mentoring and coaching. An examination of the array of strategies clearly shows that it is quite broad to the extent that it provides facilitators with a variety of methodological options to effectively develop the requisite skills among BSSHs. It also emerged that the use of a combination of strategies would make it possible for facilitators to blend theoretical knowledge with practice-based skills that are reflective of the realities characterising real school contexts during the management development process. The literature review in section 3.6 corroborates the above findings by confirming the same strategies as the ones that are widely used in MDPs for school leaders in several countries.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions made in this study were drawn from the literature study in chapters 2 and 3 and the findings of the empirical study that were presented in chapter 5. The main conclusions of the study are presented as follows:

6.4.1 Lack of a management development policy for newly promoted school heads

The education system in Zimbabwe does not have a management development policy that provides a framework for the professional development of newly promoted secondary school heads. Although there exists a Training and Development (TD) policy of the Civil Service Commission (CSC) which provides guidelines for the training of all civil servants, this policy does not adequately address the professional development needs of BSSHs. The absence of a formal policy that is specifically focused towards the training of newly promoted school heads could probably explain why the current induction training programme was found to be haphazard as evidenced by empirical findings in section 5.4.5.

6.4.2 Lack of a policy on standards and norms for school heads

The review of data indicated that the MoPSE did not have a policy on standards for school heads that should prescribe the key areas that constitute school headship and provide a comprehensive description of the standards, values and norms that define the role of the school head. Although it was observed that the duties and responsibilities of a school head were well stipulated as indicated in section 2.11, the generation of such a policy would provide a broader and in-depth outline of the performance standards that would be expected of school heads. The information provided in the policy about the standards of school heads would guide in the identification of the knowledge and skills that are required by school heads to perform effectively.

6.4.3 The current induction training programme

It emerged from the empirical study findings that the current programme had a number of shortcomings associated with it. Firstly, the induction training programme was not consistent in terms of its duration and content. Variations in the programme duration and content might imply that the training programme could not impart the same set of skills to

each cohort of participants. Secondly, it also emerged that there was a problem with the timing of the induction training as newly promoted incumbents, in some instances, serve for long periods of time without receiving induction training. It was also observed that since the current induction programme was prescribed by the TD policy, its content was uniform for all categories of civil servants, which implies that no due consideration was given to the training needs and challenges encountered by BSSHs specifically. Programme content contained generic topics that were mandatory for all civil servants, yet it is clear that novice school heads require specific training tailored to meet their needs.

6.4.4 Over-reliance on the workshop model for instructional delivery

Empirical study findings indicate that there was over-reliance on the workshop model within the current induction training. Newly promoted incumbents would be invited to a workshop whose duration could vary from three days to two weeks. Literature cited in section 3.6.4 asserts that the workshop model is not an effective approach for an MDP as it largely dwells on the delivery of theory without incorporating practice-based activities that would enable trainees to have a clear understanding of real-world school situations. Secondly, it was also observed that the workshop approach did not cater for the individual training needs of incumbents and their divergent levels of experience and background contexts. There is therefore a need to develop an MDP that is comprised of a variety of strategies so that they complement each other.

6.4.5 School induction

It emerged during the field study that there was no proper orientation that was done for newly promoted school heads within their new schools. It was indicated that a newly promoted incumbent was simply left to find his or her way to the new school armed with an appointment letter. There was no systematic plan that was put in place to ensure that the novice school head would be well received and oriented in terms of the school and the surrounding community's culture, values and expectations. The lack of a proper

school orientation plan involving the School Development Committee (SDC) seriously affected the capacity of the incumbent to be appropriately socialised to quickly fit in and stabilize within the new workplace.

6.5 RELEVANCE OF THE PETER PRINCIPLE TO THE RESEARCH STUDY

Before recommendations of this study can be proffered, it is important to undertake a short discussion of the relevance of the theoretical framework to this research study. The discussion will attempt to situate the theoretical framework within the context of empirical findings that were discussed in the review of literature and the field study that was done in chapters 2, 3 and 5 respectively. The theoretical framework for this study, as indicated in sections 1.4.1 and 2.2 was premised on the Peter Principle which states that an individual, within an organisation, is capable of being promoted from a lower position to a higher position of leadership. Promotion is usually done on the basis of previous performance and in most instances there is no guarantee that the newly promoted incumbent will perform to expectation since the new post might require a different set of skills from those of the previous position. According to the theory, there is a risk that an individual might be promoted from a position of competence to a position of incompetence if no interventions are made to prepare the incumbent for the position of leadership. Based on empirical findings from this study, it is apparent that beginning school heads are promoted from the ranks of classroom teachers and go on to encounter many challenges during the early years of their leadership career. These challenges emanate from the fact that the post of school leadership requires a completely different set of skills from those that are expected in the classroom. The performance challenges that beginning school heads encounter during the early years of school leadership attest to the need for an MDP to address the problem highlighted by the Peter Principle. The Peter Principle helps to identify a gap in the manner in which incumbents are promoted to the post of school head without receiving specific training to effectively prepare them to provide sound leadership in schools.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the empirical study findings and the conclusions drawn above, the following recommendations are suggested:

6.6.1 Development of a management development policy for newly promoted school heads

A major recommendation that could be made is for the government of Zimbabwe, through MoPSE, to develop a comprehensive management development policy that would set out the framework for the leadership preparation of school heads. The policy, which must derive from the broader national TD policy, should make it mandatory for all newly promoted school heads to undergo a comprehensive induction training programme during the first two years after appointment to the post of headship. The rationale for the introduction of such a policy that is particular to novice school heads stems from the fact that school management development requires specific training interventions that cannot be addressed by the “one size fits all” approach of the public service training programmes. The policy would set the framework for the procedures and practices that are fundamental to the provision of a systematic MDP for school heads. It would also provide the legal framework that would define the institutions that would be involved in the professional development of school heads as well as the nature of cooperation that would exist between MoPSE, higher and tertiary education institutions and schools. Furthermore, the policy would provide the legal basis upon which central government would fund the envisaged MDP.

6.6.2 Development of a policy on standards for school heads

The MoPSE needs to develop a policy on standards for school heads which provides guidelines on the norms, standards, values and performance competencies that are expected of school heads in Zimbabwe. The development of a policy on standards for school heads is fundamental to the leadership preparation of newly promoted school

heads because it provides the framework for the roles and responsibilities of school heads. The existence of a policy on standards for school leaders would help in the identification of the key areas of the knowledge, skills and attitudes that define the expected professional competencies of school heads. The identification of professional standards and expected performance competencies is essential as it guides the management development process in the formulation of training objectives, selection of appropriate content and instructional strategies that would be used in the programme. Findings in the literature study indicate that the development of policies on standards for school heads has become standard practice in countries such as South Africa and England where school MDPs have been constructed on the bases of these policies (*Government Gazette*, www.gov.za/sites/www.gov.za/files/39827_gon323.pdf; Department for Education 2015:4).

6.6.3 Partnership between MoPSE and tertiary education institutions in the design and implementation of a management development programme for BSSH

It is recommended that the government of Zimbabwe, through the MoPSE, enter into partnership with universities, teachers' training colleges and schools for the purpose of collaborating in the provision of opportunities for professional learning and leadership development of school leaders. The partnership between these parties must be premised on clearly defined terms of reference that outline the role of each stakeholder in the implementation of the school MDP as stated below:

6.6.3.1 The Government of Zimbabwe

As the custodian of the education system in Zimbabwe, the government needs to introduce a policy on the professional development of school leaders which will provide the legal framework for cooperation between MoPSE, higher education institutions and schools in this venture. Firstly, the role of the government would be to see to it that the professional development of school leaders is aligned with the national education policy

interests and that such training meets the set professional and competence levels that will result in the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning. This implies that the government should be instrumental in the development of a professional standards framework for school heads which will guide in the design of content for the MDP. Secondly, the government needs to develop the institutional framework for the implementation of the MDP. In this case, the researcher recommends that an Institute of Educational Management be established as a unit within the faculty of Education of a selected university that has a strong niche in the field of education. The mandate of the institute would be to coordinate the design and implementation of the envisaged MDP. Lastly, the government would be responsible for funding the implementation of the programme.

6.6.3.2 Universities

The universities would be expected to play a variety of roles in the envisaged partnership with MoPSE. The most important thing that universities need to do is to standardise the content of their academic programmes to ensure that the content is aligned with the quality and standards expectations of the education system in Zimbabwe. As mentioned earlier, institutions of higher learning also need to collaborate with the MoPSE in the establishment of an Institute of Educational Management (IEM) for the provision of technical expertise in school management development. The mandate of the institute could be to:

1. Harmonise the content of academic programmes offered by universities in order to ensure that the body of knowledge of these programmes is standardised across all institutions and that it is not only responsive to the expectations of the education system but it is also reflective of both school management theory and practice.
2. Design an MDP that would provide induction training to newly promoted secondary school heads during the first two years of their school leadership career. The induction programme would comprise of several components that

would constitute a professional development pathway for novice school heads as is shown in figure 6.2.

3. Develop a training schedule for an MDP of newly promoted school heads specifying the time, duration and nature of activity that would be undertaken during the entire span of the programme.
4. Undertake research and provide evidence-based guidance in the design and review of the school MDP in line with the educational policy agenda.
5. Initiate a “train the trainer” programme that would seek to develop experienced and retired school heads as well as Schools Inspectors into high quality tutors, mentors and coaches who would facilitate in the professional development of newly promoted school heads.
6. Develop basic learning modules on the proposed key topics of school management for the purpose of self-study by novice school heads.
7. Develop a comprehensive school management handbook that outlines the procedures, practices and policies that are often used in the day-to-day administration of the school. The handbook could be used as a reference manual by beginning school heads during the early years of school leadership and assist them in decision making.
8. Constantly monitor and evaluate the implementation of the school MDP and review it in line with current best practices and standards in education.

6.6.3.3 Teachers’ Colleges

Teachers’ colleges are already strategically placed to play a significant role in the envisaged partnership with the MoPSE and universities. This is because the institutions are directly responsible for the pedagogical and professional preparation of pre-service teachers. According to findings from the study, the teacher education curriculum being offered in these colleges must incorporate aspects of teacher leadership development so that incumbents are provided with the appropriate grounding in leadership in the early stages of their career. This would enable the professional development of newly promoted school heads to be built upon prior learning. It is also worth noting that teachers’ colleges

are associate colleges of universities, an arrangement which calls for the latter to provide oversight in the design and implementation of the teacher education curriculum. The arrangement gives an opportunity for the two institutions to design their teacher education curricula in such a way that the university curriculum builds upon that of the teachers' colleges, thereby creating a professional development ecosystem spanning across these institutions.

6.6.4 Identification of training needs of beginning school heads

Findings from the study have indicated that the current induction training was not informed by a training needs assessment based on the real performance challenges faced by BSSHs. Rather, training was merely prescribed by education authorities. The impression that one gets is that there was no meaningful consultation that was made to gather the views of school heads regarding the challenges they encounter during the early years of their school leadership career. It is recommended that training needs assessment (TNA) surveys be constantly undertaken to determine the training needs of the targeted participants. TNA would help to identify the performance discrepancies that would be the basis upon which the selection of content in the training programme would be undertaken. As indicated in the literature study in section 3.4.3, TNA are broad based as to encompass profession wide performance discrepancies at the level of the national education system, the school level and the individual level; hence it is imperative for a comprehensive TNA to precede the introduction of an MDP to ensure that the programme not only seeks to achieve acceptable national professional expectations, but that it also addresses the needs of the schools and those of the newly promoted incumbents.

6.6.5 The management development process for BSSHs

It is apparent that a standards framework and TNA are fundamental to the entire management development process as they provide information that helps in the formulation of training objectives, the selection of content and the instructional strategies (see sections 6.2.2 and 6.2.4). The diagram in figure 6.1 helps to illustrate a model of the

management development process particularly citing the role of the standards framework and the TNA in the entire process.

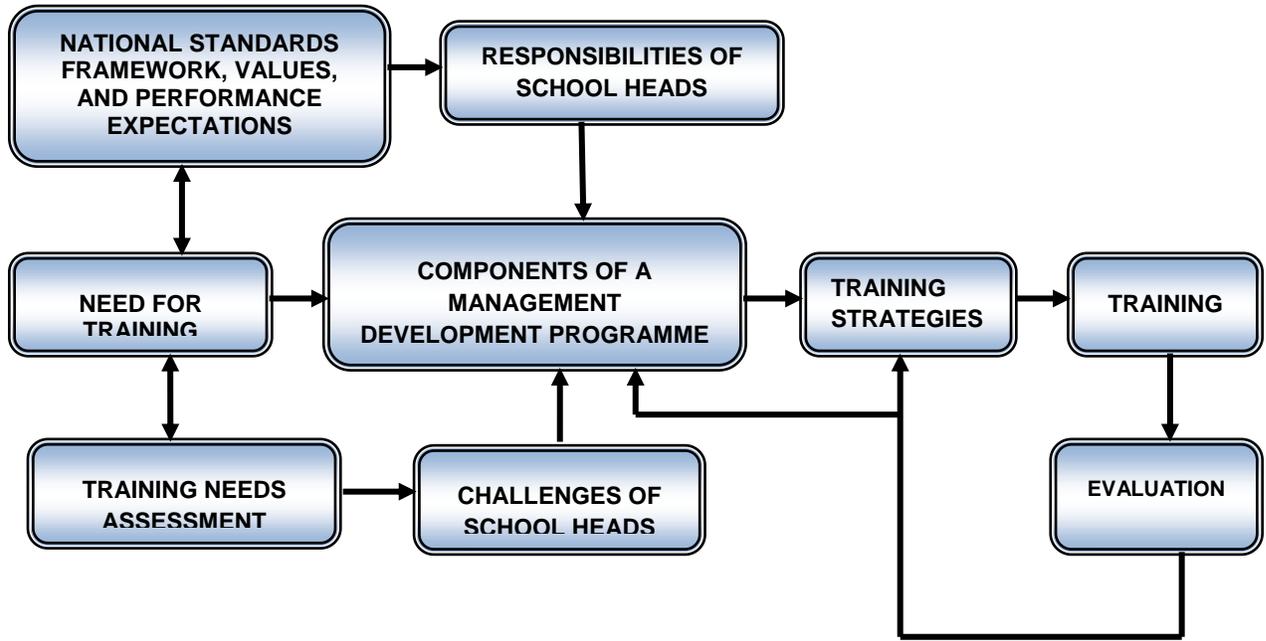


Figure 6.1: A model of the management development process for BSSH

As illustrated in the diagram above, the major feature of the model is the development of a national standards framework for school heads as indicated in section 3.4.2. The standards framework prescribes the professional qualities and the performance competencies expected of school heads. It is out of the standards framework that the responsibilities of school heads are identified as indicated in section 2.11. The identification of the responsibilities of school heads provides insight into the type of knowledge and skills that school heads should acquire in order to meet the competence expectations of the education system. It also acts as a guide in the selection of programme content to ensure that novice school heads are trained to the desired level. The TNA, as enunciated in section 3.4.3, constitutes the second feature of the model. This involves gathering the perceptions of targeted participants regarding the challenges that they encounter, as illustrated in sections 2.12 and 5.3.2 respectively. The identification of the challenges of school heads, coupled with an identification of

responsibilities of school heads specifies the need for training and provides the basis upon which the programme is designed in terms of its content and instructional strategies. The last feature of the model relates to the evaluation of the management development process, particularly regarding its capacity to effectively enhance the performance competencies of the targeted participants. In essence, evaluation provides a feedback loop that supplies critical data about the level of success and the need for review and modification of the programme content and strategies.

6.6.6 Components of an envisaged management development programme for BSSHs

One of the objectives of this study was to propose components of an MDP that could be offered for newly promoted secondary school heads. It is recommended that the MDP for BSSHs take the form of an induction programme spanning over the first two years during which the newly promoted incumbents would be on probation. The MDP needs to be comprehensive and all-encompassing to ensure that the personal, professional and organisational socialisation of newly promoted incumbents is achieved. The structure of the programme, in terms of its content and process, should be constructed in such a way that the management development process enables the new incumbents not only to transition from teachers to their new leadership role, but also to learn about the new work environment and adapt to its norms, values and culture. In addition, the school management learning process should also ensure that the participants are inculcated with the appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to perform their roles effectively and efficiently. In this regard, the following recommendations could be made in respect of the content and the methodology of the envisaged MDP.

6.6.6.1 Content

As indicated in section 5.4.8, it is recommended that the envisaged MDP needs to comprise of the following clusters of content: financial management, human resources management, general administration, asset management, policy issues, instructional

leadership, community relations, ICT and documentation. The array of content, mentioned above, enables coverage of the broad spectrum of technical, human and conceptual skills that school heads require in order to be proficient in their roles. It is very important for the content of the programme to be a mix of the theoretical knowledge and practical skills in order to ensure that the professional learning is done in real school contexts.

6.6.6.2 Strategies

Empirical findings in section 5.3.9 indicate that there are various strategies that could be used in the preparation of novice school heads. Based on the findings of this study, the following strategies are recommended: orientation workshop, contact sessions, school-based induction, self-learning, in-service training, cluster-based training, mentoring and coaching.

6.6.6.2a Orientation Workshop

The MDP for BSSHs needs to commence immediately after the confirmation of their elevation to the new posts. In this regard, it is recommended that the MoPSE should commence the MDP by convening a preliminary induction workshop whose mandate would be to introduce and welcome the newly promoted incumbents to the new role of school leadership by providing them with basic information about the education system's policies, values and expectations which will enable them to start work. Since this induction workshop would be a precursor to the MDP, this would provide education authorities with an opportunity to provide the incumbents with details of the MDP in terms of the programme's course outline, duration of courses and other onsite and cluster learning activities. The provision of a detailed outline of the two-year MDP would help the incumbents to be psychologically prepared for the training programme and also to budget their time with the programme in mind. It is also recommended that the newly promoted school heads be presented with a school head's manual which could provide them with essential information on policies and procedures for purposes of administrative decision

making. Such a manual would be a source of reference for the novice school heads during the early days of their career when they have to grapple with making decisions.

6.6.6.2b School-based induction

It is recommended that newly promoted school heads be inducted within their new schools so that they are properly socialised in terms of the values and culture of the school and its surrounding community. It was evident from the empirical findings that newly promoted school heads lacked appropriate induction within their new workstations to the extent that they endured feelings of isolation and anxiety during the early days of their leadership career. In order to ensure that BSSHs are properly acquainted with the new workplace, there is a need for the school to draw up and follow an orientation programme which would enable the new incumbent to be introduced to the School Development Committee (SDC), teaching staff, support staff as well as other community leaders. The newly promoted school head could also be taken on a tour of the school so that he or she is familiarized with the physical structure of the school plant. A formal meeting of the responsible authority, SDC and the school management team could then be held to provide the incumbent with an in-depth exposition of the school's culture, values and expectations. The chairperson of the SDC could coordinate the orientation programme in liaison with the District School Inspector (DSI) and a representative of the responsible authority of the school so as to ensure that the incoming school head is accorded a befitting reception and orientation that would enable them to settle well and begin work immediately.

6.6.6.2c Contact sessions

Contact sessions are a major strategy that could be recommended for use in the professional development of BSSHs. Under the proposed partnership outlined in section 6.6.3, the role of universities should be to provide expertise for the design and development of an MDP that is responsive not only to the training needs of novice school heads but also to the standard expectations of the MoPSE. This implies that the purpose

of the contact sessions would be to develop knowledge and understanding, among novice school heads, of the school system and the role of school heads in that context. In this regard, universities need to develop instructional material in line with the proposed content and organise the instructional process of the MDP. Furthermore, universities would also be expected to provide high quality tutors who would be responsible for instructional delivery during the contact sessions. It is also important to emphasize the need for contact sessions to be practice based so as to ensure the transfer of skills to the real school situation.

In respect of degree and diploma programmes in education, it is also recommended that the universities standardise these programmes in line with the expectations of the national education system. Although the academic programmes are not necessarily a part of the management development plan for novice school heads during the first two years of their leadership career, a degree qualification is a pre-requisite for the post of school head. It is therefore critical for the MoPSE and universities to ensure that the content of these degree programmes provides incumbents with the relevant professional grounding upon which the MDP will be founded.

6.6.6.2d Self-learning

Findings from the study, in section 5.4.3.9, indicate that individualized learning is a viable strategy that could be used in the professional development of the novice school heads. It is recommended that the proposed IEM develop self-learning modules that would be based on the proposed content. Given the fact that the majority of schools in Zimbabwe do not have internet connectivity, it would be ideal to produce hard copies of the modules for distribution to newly promoted school heads. Electronic versions of the modules could also be developed to enable those with internet facilities to access them. The modules would help newly promoted school heads to engage in learning within their workstations.

6.6.6.2e In-service training

In-service training could also be used as a mode of professional development for novice school heads. Although in-service training is widely used for practising school heads, it should be noted that beginning school heads could also immensely benefit from such training if consideration was given to the fact that they would also be in positions of school leadership in the same manner as their practising counterparts. As indicated in section 3.6.3, the purpose of in-service training is to provide opportunities for continuous professional development for school heads so that they are able to upgrade their skills in line with changes taking place within the school system, such as changes in the curriculum and the introduction of new management practices like the financial management system and the results-based management system. In this regard, it is recommended that novice school heads should also participate in in-service training workshops alongside their experienced peers. This would enable them to network and share knowledge, experiences and ideas.

6.6.6.2f Cluster-based training

It emerged during the study that cluster-based training was identified as one of the strategies that could be used to effectively prepare newly promoted school heads on school leadership. It is recommended that the proposed IEM develop a framework and systematic plan of activities that would provide specific guidelines on how clusters could contribute to the professional development of newly promoted school heads. The cluster system is based on the idea of CoP which provides less experienced members with opportunities to interact with their experienced peers to share knowledge, skills and experiences. This implies that cluster-based training must prioritise group learning through school-based demonstrations, observations and networking.

6.6.6.2g Mentoring

It is recommended that mentoring be used as one of the strategies that could be employed in the MDP. The strategy would help novice school heads to develop the knowledge and skills of school leadership under the tutelage of experienced mentors. In terms of this strategy, each newly promoted school head would be assigned a mentor who would constantly visit the former's school to provide onsite guidance and support at scheduled times during the two year training period. The strategy is associated with the philosophy of situated learning in which learning takes place within a context.

6.6.6.2h Coaching

Another method that could be recommended for the professional development of novice school heads is coaching. This approach could be used to develop specific knowledge and skills among newly promoted school heads. The approach would involve placing the less experienced incumbents under the supervision of experienced or retired school heads who would help the former to develop certain critical skills such as budgeting, policy interpretation and assets management, among others. Coaching is distinct from mentoring in that it is focused towards the development of key skills that are regarded as fundamental to the performance of the job. The mentor would be expected to take the trainee through the paces until a desired level of skills mastery is accomplished.

The combination of the content clusters and the instructional strategies that were outlined in the preceding sections provide the framework for a management development pathway for BSSHs as indicated in the diagram in figure 6.2.

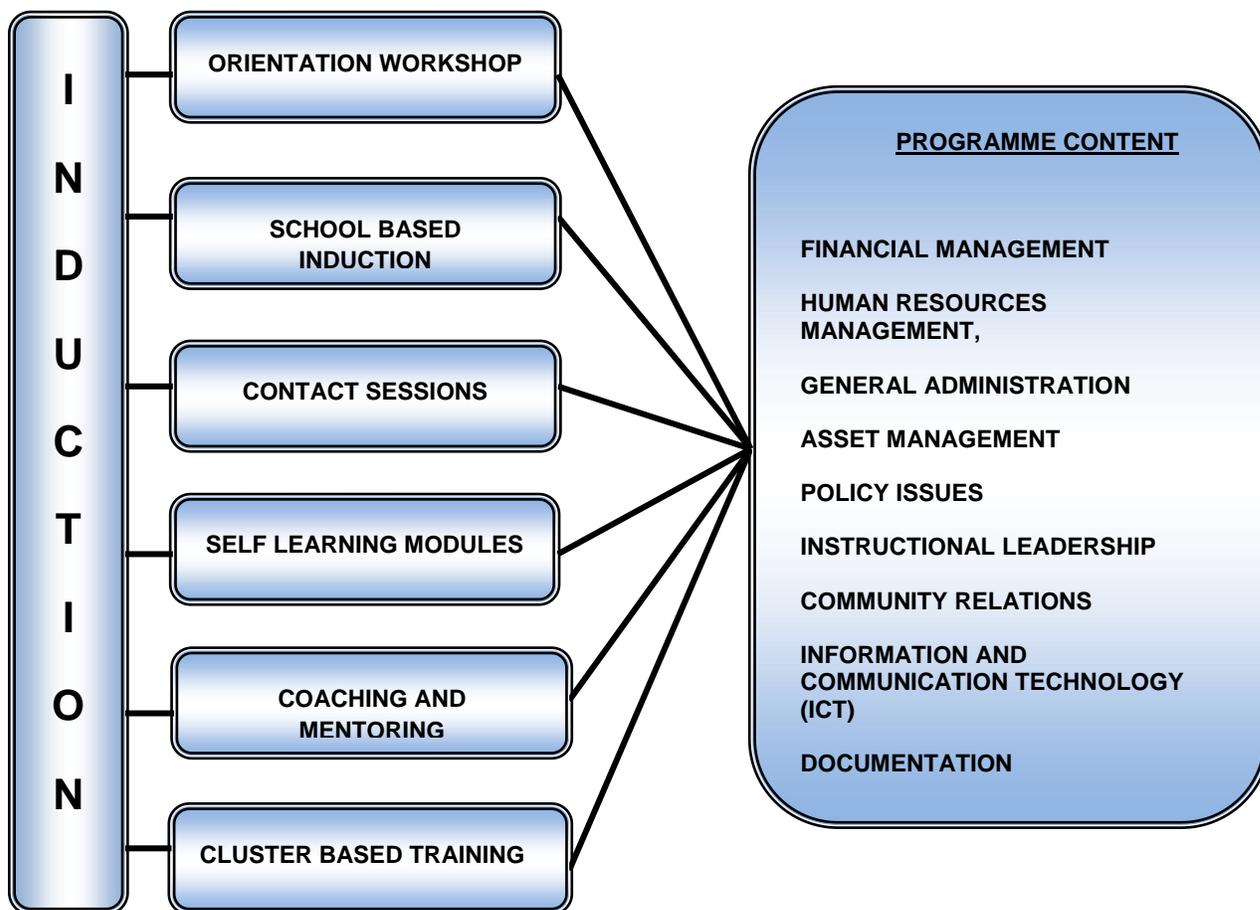


Figure 6.2: A pathway for a management development programme for BSSHs

It must be stated that the instructional activities depicted in the diagram do not necessarily occur following the given sequence, but in some instances occur concurrently with each other. For example, the MDP commences with an orientation workshop for all newly promoted school heads followed by school induction as the incumbents join their new schools to assume duty. Contact sessions, self-learning, coaching, mentoring and cluster-based training activities are then conducted across the spread of the two-year management development duration. The spread of the activities across the two-year period is meant to ensure that there is in-depth coverage of content and that delivery of instruction is done in a manner that blends theory with practice. While it has been recommended that contact sessions be held during the holidays so as to avoid disrupting

incumbents' work, the other activities could be conducted within school sites at designated periods in accordance with the management development plan.

6.6.7 Training of tutors, mentors and coaches

The high quality training of personnel that will be involved in the preparation of newly promoted school heads is fundamental for the effective transfer of knowledge and skills to the intended beneficiaries. It is recommended that the implementation of the envisaged MDP be preceded by an intensive training programme for tutors, mentors and coaches. Such training would provide them with an understanding of the knowledge and skills that newly promoted school heads require to become effective school leaders.

6.6.8 Development of self-learning modules

Findings from the study, in section 5.4.9.4, indicate that self-learning was considered to be a viable instructional strategy for the professional development of newly promoted school heads. This strategy is worthy recommending because it will afford BSSHs the opportunity for individualized learning during the time when contact sessions would not be held. Since contact sessions would mainly be held during the holidays, self-learning modules would ensure that incumbents continue to engage in the process of learning within their school sites. In this regard, the self-learning modules would enable the learner to develop knowledge and skills by integrating practice-based experience with reflections based on self-study. The modules could be developed under the auspices of the IEM. The content of the modules would be based on the curriculum of the MDP as proposed in section 5.4.8. Those entrusted with the responsibility of constructing the modules need to ensure that the content of the modules not only contains a blend of theory and practice, but that it is also reflective of the realities in schools.

6.6.9 Provision of a school head's manual for reference purposes during the early years of school leadership

The study established that school heads were often deployed to schools without being adequately prepared on how to execute their duties effectively. It was intimated that school heads were simply sent to schools without any form of material that could guide them in making decisions within their new work stations. It is recommended that the MoPSE collaborate with the IEM to develop a comprehensive school head's manual that outlines the procedures, practices and policies underlying the day-to-day administration of the school. The manual would act as a guide to newly promoted school heads on such matters as financial regulations; tender procedures; staff conditions of service; the functions of the SDC; the administration of examinations; education legislation and policy; staff and student discipline as well as asset management. The manual could also include specimen of forms that school heads use in the management of information within the school. It must be stated that the manual, being referred to in this discussion, is totally different from the modules previously discussed in section 6.6.6.2a as the former would mainly be a handbook for reference purposes in the implementation of procedures and policies. Nevertheless, it must be noted that the use of the manual by novice school heads would help them to internalise the knowledge and skills about policies and procedures through a process of experiential learning.

6.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings from the literature and empirical study unravelled certain aspects that could be considered for further research. These aspects were, however, not accorded optimum attention as the study was particularly focused on an MDP for novice school heads. The following areas are recommended for further study:

- How schools can prepare senior teachers for a career in school leadership.
- Mentoring and coaching as strategies for the effective preparation of novice school heads.

- How university academic programmes in school leadership can be reviewed to align with the standards of the education system in Zimbabwe.
- How the school cluster system can be effectively implemented for the professional development of school heads in Zimbabwe.

6.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research study employed the case study as a strategy to interrogate the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the components of an MDP for BSSHs. The study, whose sample consisted of 28 participants (27 actually took part in the end), was confined to the district education office and ten selected secondary schools within the district of Zaka. Based on the above, one major limitation that could have affected the study was the small size of the sample, which affected its capacity to generate research results that could be generalised to the broader population of BSSHs. Therefore, caution should be taken in generalising the results to other contexts. The other limitation that was also associated with the study had to do with the conduct of focus group discussions. Although efforts were made to ensure that each group would be made up of participants from different schools for the purpose of maintaining confidentiality, it must be noted that the participants were drawn from schools located within the same geographical location. It is possible that since participants were purposively selected from the same area, this could have affected their capacity to express their sentiments as they could feel their anonymity might be compromised. In spite of these limitations, the empirical findings emanating from the collected data were a reflection of the literature study findings to the extent that it can be stated that the research study was credible.

6.9 CONCLUSION

This final chapter provided a summary of the chapters and research findings. It also gave an outline of research conclusions and recommendations emanating from the literature and empirical study.

The findings of the study indicate that newly promoted secondary school heads encounter numerous challenges during the early years of their school leadership career, which impede their capacity to perform their leadership functions effectively and efficiently. The findings also established that beginning school heads require specific training to enable them to provide sound leadership that would result in the improvement of the quality of teaching and learning.

The thesis concludes that, given the complexity of the role of the school head, newly promoted incumbents require specific preparation in the professional and technical skills that are necessary for the job. The thesis further recommends that the MoPSE should develop a management development policy that sets out the framework and the professional development pathway for the preparation of newly promoted school heads. As illustrated in the model in figure 6.2, it is quite clear that the professional development of novice school heads should be done on the basis of a clearly defined management development pathway spanning over the duration of the first two years of the newly promoted incumbent's career.

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APPENDIX A: BIO DATA FORM FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS

Name: _____

Gender: _____

Age: _____

Highest Academic Qualifications: _____

Highest Professional Qualifications: _____

Further Qualifications in School Leadership: _____

Experience as Head (state no. of years) _____

Experience as Schools Inspector _____

APPENDIX B: BIO DATA FORM FOR PRACTISING SCHOOL HEADS

Name: _____

Gender: _____

Age: _____

Highest Academic Qualifications: _____

Highest Professional Qualifications: _____

Further Qualifications in School _____

Leadership: _____

Experience as Head (state no. of years) _____

APPENDIX C: BIO DATA FORM FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS

Name: _____

Gender: _____

Age: _____

Highest Academic Qualifications: _____

Highest Professional Qualifications: _____

Further Qualifications in School Leadership: _____

Experience as Senior Teacher: _____

APPENDIX D: BIO DATA FORM FOR DEPUTY HEADS

Name: _____

Gender: _____

Age: _____

Highest Academic Qualifications: _____

Highest Professional Qualifications: _____

Further Qualifications in School

Leadership: _____

Experience as Deputy Head (state no. of years): _____

No. of years spent as Senior teacher: _____

APPENDIX E: BIO DATA FORM FOR SENIOR TEACHERS

Name: _____

Gender: _____

Age: _____

Highest Academic Qualifications: _____

Highest Professional Qualifications: _____

Further Qualifications in School _____

Leadership: _____

Experience as Senior Teacher: _____

APPENDIX F: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL INSPECTORS

1. What do you understand to be the major responsibilities of secondary school heads?
 - In the light of these responsibilities, what would you perceive to be the major challenges that are encountered by beginning secondary school heads?
2. Do you think teacher training and the experience gained prior to promotion equips beginning school heads with the necessary skills that are required in school leadership?
3. Do beginning secondary school heads receive any form of training after their appointment?
 - What kind of training do they receive?
 - What is the duration of such training?
 - In your view, is the training provided comprehensive as to effectively prepare beginning secondary school heads for their new roles?
4. Do beginning secondary school heads require specific comprehensive training to effectively prepare them for their new leadership role?
 - Give reasons.
5. What are the components that may constitute a management development programme for beginning secondary school heads?
6. What strategies can be used to deliver the programme?
7. How can beginning secondary school heads be further supported to ensure that they are effectively prepared for their new role?
 - In what way can experienced school heads/retired school heads play a role in the management development of beginning school heads?
8. Do you have any comments you might want to make regarding what we have been discussing?

I want to thank you sincerely for participating in this study? Thank you.

APPENDIX G: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PRACTISING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS

1. How many years had you completed as a Senior Teacher before promotion?
 - Did you find your teaching experience as a Senior Teacher relevant to the position of school leadership?
 - Do you think there is a connection between teacher training and the skills that are required in school leadership?
2. Based on your experience, what do you understand to be the major responsibilities of secondary school heads?
 - In the light of these responsibilities, what do you perceive to be the major challenges that you have encountered in your new role as a beginning school head?
3. Did you participate in any training programme to orient you to the new post?
 - How long was the training programme?
 - What elements did it cover?
 - In your view, was the training programme comprehensive as to cover your training needs as a beginning secondary school head?
4. Do beginning school heads require specific comprehensive training and support to effectively prepare them for the new role of school leadership?
5. What are the components that may constitute such a training programme for beginning secondary school heads?
6. What strategies can be used to deliver the programme?
7. Do you see experienced school heads/retired school heads playing a role in the management development of beginning school heads?
8. Do you have any comments you might want to make regarding what we have been discussing?

I want to thank you sincerely for participating in this study? Thank you.

APPENDIX H: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS

1. When were you promoted to the post of headship?
 - How many years had you completed as a Senior Teacher before promotion?
 - Did you find your teaching experience as a Senior Teacher relevant to the position of school leadership?
 - Do you think there is a connection between teacher training and the skills that are required in school leadership?
2. What do you understand to be the major responsibilities of secondary school heads?
 - In view of these responsibilities, what are the major challenges that you have encountered so far in your new role as a school head?
3. Have you participated in any training programme to orient you to the new post?
 - How long was the training programme?
 - What elements did it cover?
 - In your view, was the training programme comprehensive as to cover your training needs as a beginning secondary school head?
4. As a beginning school head, do you think you require specific training to effectively prepare you for the new role of school leadership?
 - Give reasons.
5. What are the components that may constitute such a preparation programme for beginning secondary school heads?
6. What strategies can be used to deliver the programme?
7. What role do you think experienced school heads/retired school heads can play in providing support to beginning secondary school heads?
8. Do you have any comments you might want to make regarding what we have been discussing?

I want to thank you sincerely for participating in this study? Thank you.

APPENDIX I: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DEPUTY HEADS

1. What do you consider to be the major responsibilities of secondary school heads?
2. In the light of these responsibilities, what would you consider to be the major challenges that secondary school heads encounter in their new role after appointment?
3. Do you think teacher training and the experience gained before promotion to headship is helpful in equipping beginning school heads with the necessary skills that are required in school leadership?
 - As a deputy head, do you think you are currently obtaining the relevant experience under the guidance of your head which will groom you into a competent school leader?
4. How do you perceive the current form of training that is provided to beginning secondary school heads after their appointment?
 - In your understanding, what kind of training do they receive?
 - What is the duration of such training?
 - In your view, is the training provided comprehensive as to effectively prepare beginning secondary school heads for their new roles?
5. If you were promoted to the post of headship, what kind of training and support do you think you must receive to effectively prepare you for the new role?
 - What are the components that may constitute a training programme for beginning secondary school heads?
 - What strategies can be used to deliver the programme?
6. How can beginning secondary school heads be further supported to ensure that they are effectively prepared for their new role?
 - Do you see experienced school heads/retired school heads playing a role in the management development of beginning secondary school heads?
7. Do you have any comments you might want to make regarding what we have been discussing?

I want to thank you sincerely for participating in this study? Thank you.

APPENDIX J: FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SENIOR TEACHERS

1. What do you understand to be the major responsibilities of secondary school heads?
 - In view of these responsibilities, what would you say are the major challenges faced by beginning secondary school heads?
2. Do you think teacher training and the experience gained before promotion to headship is helpful in equipping beginning school heads with the necessary skills that are required in school leadership?
3. How do you perceive the current form of training that is provided to beginning secondary school heads after their appointment?
 - In your understanding, what kind of training do they receive?
 - What is the duration of such training?
 - In your view, is the training provided comprehensive as to effectively prepare beginning secondary school heads for their new roles?
4. If you were promoted to the post of headship, what kind of training and support do you think you must receive to effectively prepare you for the new role?
 - What are the components that may constitute a training programme for beginning secondary school heads?
 - What strategies can be used to deliver the programme?
5. How can beginning secondary school heads be further supported to ensure that they are effectively prepared for their new role?
 - Do you see experienced school heads/retired school heads playing a role in the management development of beginning secondary school heads?
6. Do you have any comments you might want to make regarding what we have been discussing?

I want to thank you sincerely for participating in this study? Thank you.

APPENDIX K: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS GUIDE

The following documents are relevant and will be viewed:

1. Vacancy Announcement Circulars
 - What responsibilities of School Heads are stated in the circulars?
2. Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education/ Civil Service Commission Policy Circulars
 - What are the policy circulars that are sent to the schools?
 - What skills do these policy circulars require in terms of implementation?
3. The Civil Service Commission Training and Development policy
 - What are the major skills that the policy prioritises for school heads' training?
 - What form of training is provided to inculcate the skills mentioned in the policy?
 - What is the duration of such training?
 - What were the major skills that were targeted in the training?
 - Does the training that is provided cover the major elements of the School head's responsibilities?

APPENDIX L: LETTER REQUESTING AN ADULT TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW

Dear _____

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study I, Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa am conducting as part of my research as a doctoral student entitled: **Perceptions of stakeholders on management development programmes for beginning secondary school heads in Zimbabwe** at the University of South Africa. Permission for the study has been given by the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic.

I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The challenges facing beginning secondary school heads in the execution of their new role in education is substantial and well documented. This study seeks to identify the components of a management development programme that could initiate them into their roles during the probationary period of the first two years after appointment. In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve the preparation of beginning secondary school heads for their new leadership role in schools.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately 40 minutes in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to

confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or to clarify any points. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for 5 years in my locked office.

The benefits of this study are that it will provide insight into the components of management development programmes for beginning secondary school heads and contribute to ways through which newly appointed secondary school heads can be effectively prepared for their new roles. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for your participation in the research.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa on 0772 816 112 or email kumudzingwa@gmail.com. The findings are accessible for five years.

If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at Great Zimbabwe University, off old Great Zimbabwe Road, Masvingo or by e-mail at kumudzingwa@gmail.com. I look forward to speaking to you and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. If you accept my invitation to participate, I will request you to sign the consent form.

Yours sincerely

Researcher's name (print)

Researcher's signature

Date: _____

APPENDIX M: CONSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study in education. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, to receive satisfactory answers to my questions, and add any additional details I wanted. I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous. I was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty by advising the researcher. With full knowledge of all foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant's Name (Please print): _____

Participant Signature: _____

Researcher Name: (Please print) _____

Researcher Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX N: PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Date: _____

Title: Perceptions of stakeholders on management development programmes for beginning secondary school heads in Zimbabwe

DEAR PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANT

My name is Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa and I am doing research under the supervision of E. J. Van Niekerk, a Professor in the Department of Educational Leadership and Management towards a PhD in Education Management at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled: **Perceptions of stakeholders on management development programmes for beginning secondary school heads in Zimbabwe.**

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

The study is expected to collect important information that could provide insight into the components of an envisaged management development programme that could effectively initiate beginning secondary school heads into their new roles during the first two years of probation after initial appointment.

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

You are invited to participate in this study because the District Education office and your school have been purposively selected to participate in this study. By virtue of being the School Inspector/ School head/ Deputy Head/ Senior Teacher at the identified research sites, you are being requested to participate in this study. I obtained your details from the District Education Office after I had been granted the permission to conduct research.

WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

The study involves the conduct of semi-structured interviews with three School Inspectors and 10 School Heads. Three focus group discussions (two focus groups comprising of five senior teachers each and the other group comprising of 5 Deputy Heads) will also be conducted for this category of participants drawn from the five selected schools. With your

permission, an audio recorder will be used to record the interviews for the purpose of post interview transcription. The duration of your participation in the semi-structured interview/focus group discussion will be approximately 40 minutes. The questions that will be asked during the interviews/focus group discussions will largely dwell on the challenges faced by beginning school heads, their training needs and the components that constitute a management development programme for beginning secondary school heads.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS THE STUDY?

Your participation in this study will help to provide insight into the components of a management development programme that could effectively initiate beginning secondary school heads into their new roles during the probationary period of the first two years after initial appointment.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

There are no risks associated with this study. The researcher will ensure that the views and concerns of participants are considered and respected.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

You have the right to insist that your name will not be recorded anywhere and that no one, apart from the researcher and identified members of the research team, will know

about your involvement in this research. Your answers will be given a code number or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way in the data.

A report of the research study may be submitted for publication but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Focus group discussions will entail that several participants assemble to engage in a discussion. While every effort will be made by the researcher to ensure that you will not be connected to that which you share during the focus group, I cannot guarantee that other participants in the focus group will treat information confidentially. I shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason I advise you not to disclose personally sensitive information in the focus group.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard for future research or academic purposes. Electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Hard copies will be shredded and electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software programme.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There will not be any payment for participating in this research. The researcher will however provide refreshments to participants in focus groups. Participants who incur travel costs as they travel to venues of focus group discussions will be reimbursed their fares.

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL?

The study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/ RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa on +263 772 816 112 or email kumudzingwa@gmail.com . The findings are accessible for five years.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact my supervisor, Professor E. J. Van Niekerk, on the following contact details:

Department of Educational Leadership and Management

College of Education

UNISA

Telephone: +27 12 429 6992.

Email address: Vniekej@unisa.ac.za

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

Thank you.

APPENDIX O: CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY (Return slip)

I, _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of the _____

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant Name & Surname (please print)

Participant Signature

Date

Researcher's Name & Surname (please print)

Researcher's signature

Date

APPENDIX P: FOCUS GROUP CONSENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I _____ grant consent that the information I share during the focus group may be used by Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa for research purposes. I am aware that the group discussions will be digitally recorded and grant consent for these recordings, provided that my privacy will be protected. I undertake not to divulge any information that is shared in the group discussions to any person outside the group in order to maintain confidentiality.

Participant's Name (Please print): _____

Participant Signature: _____

Researcher's Name: (Please print): _____

Researcher's Signature: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX Q: PERMISSION LETTER FROM MoPSE TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

*All communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Primary and Secondary
Education
Telephone: 732006
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax:794505*



Reference: C/426/3 Masvingo
Ministry of Primary and
Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
HARARE

16 June 2017

Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa
Great Zimbabwe University
P.O Box 1235
Masvingo

**Re: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE:
ZAKA DISTRICT: ATTACHED SCHOOLS:**

Reference is made to your application to carry out research at the above mentioned schools in Masvingo Province on the research title:

**"PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS ON MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT
PROGRAMMES FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS: A CASE
STUDY IN THE ZAKA DISTRICT ZIMBABWE"**

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director, Masvingo Province, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the school.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.

Dr S.J Utete-Masango
SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
cc: PED – Masvingo Province

APPENDIX R: PERMISSION LETTER FROM MoPSE, MASVINGO PROVINCE

ALL communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 263585/264331
Fax: 039-263261



Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P. O Box 89
Masvingo

05 July 2017

Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa
Great Zimbabwe University
Private Bag 1235
Masvingo

**RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE:
ZAKA DISTRICT: ATTACHED SCHOOLS.**

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the above mentioned school in Zaka District on the research title:

"PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS ON MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS: A CASE STUDY IN THE ZAKA DISTRICT ZIMBABWE."

Please be advised that the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education has granted permission to carry out your research.

You are also advised to liaise with the District Education Officer who is responsible for the schools which are part of the sample for your research.

pp Mike
Z. M. Chitiga

Provincial Education Director
MASVINGO PROVINCE



APPENDIX S: PERMISSION LETTER FROM MoPSE, ZAKA DISTRICT

All communications should be addressed to
"The District Education Officer,
Telephone: 0342381 and 0342652
Telegraph
Address: "EDUCATION"
Fax: 039263261



ZIMBABWE

Ministry of Primary and Secondary
Education
P.O. Box 239
Jerera
Zimbabwe

2 November 2017

bspzzaka@gmail.com

**RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AT ZAKA,
CHINORUMBA, ST JOSEPH, CHINYARADZA, CHITONHORA, ZIVAVOSE, ST
ANTHONY'S , CHIMWEBWE, DZORO AND RUDHANDA HIGH SCHOOLS:
ZAKA DISTRICT: MASVINGO PROVINCE**

The above matter refers.

Please be advised that Kudzayiishe Mudzingwa has been granted permission by the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education to carry out a research titled;

"PERCEPTIONS OF STAKEHOLDERS ON MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES FOR BEGINNING SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS: A CASE STUDY IN THE ZAKA DISTRICT ZIMBABWE"

Please help him in any way possible.

BShambamveva

Shambamveva B

A/ District Schools Inspector

Zaka



APPENDIX T: RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE FORM



UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2017/07/12

Dear Mr Mudzingwa,

Decision: Ethics Approval from
2017/07/12 to 2022/07/12

Ref#: **2017/07/12/50812696/19/MC**

Name: Mr K Mudzingwa

Student#: 50812696

Researcher:

Name: Mr K Mudzingwa

Email: kumudzingwa@gmail.com

Telephone#: +26339266689

Supervisor:

Name: Prof EJ van Niekerk

Email: Vniekej@unisa.ac.za

Telephone#: 0124296992

Title of research:

Perceptions of stakeholders on management development programmes for beginning secondary school heads: a case study in the Zaka district of Zimbabwe

Qualification: PhD in Education Management

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2017/07/12 to 2022/07/12.

The low risk application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2017/07/12 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:



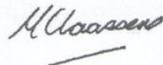
University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date 2022/07/12. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number **2017/07/12/50812696/19/MC** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.

Kind regards,



Dr M Claassens

CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC

mcdtc@netactive.co.za



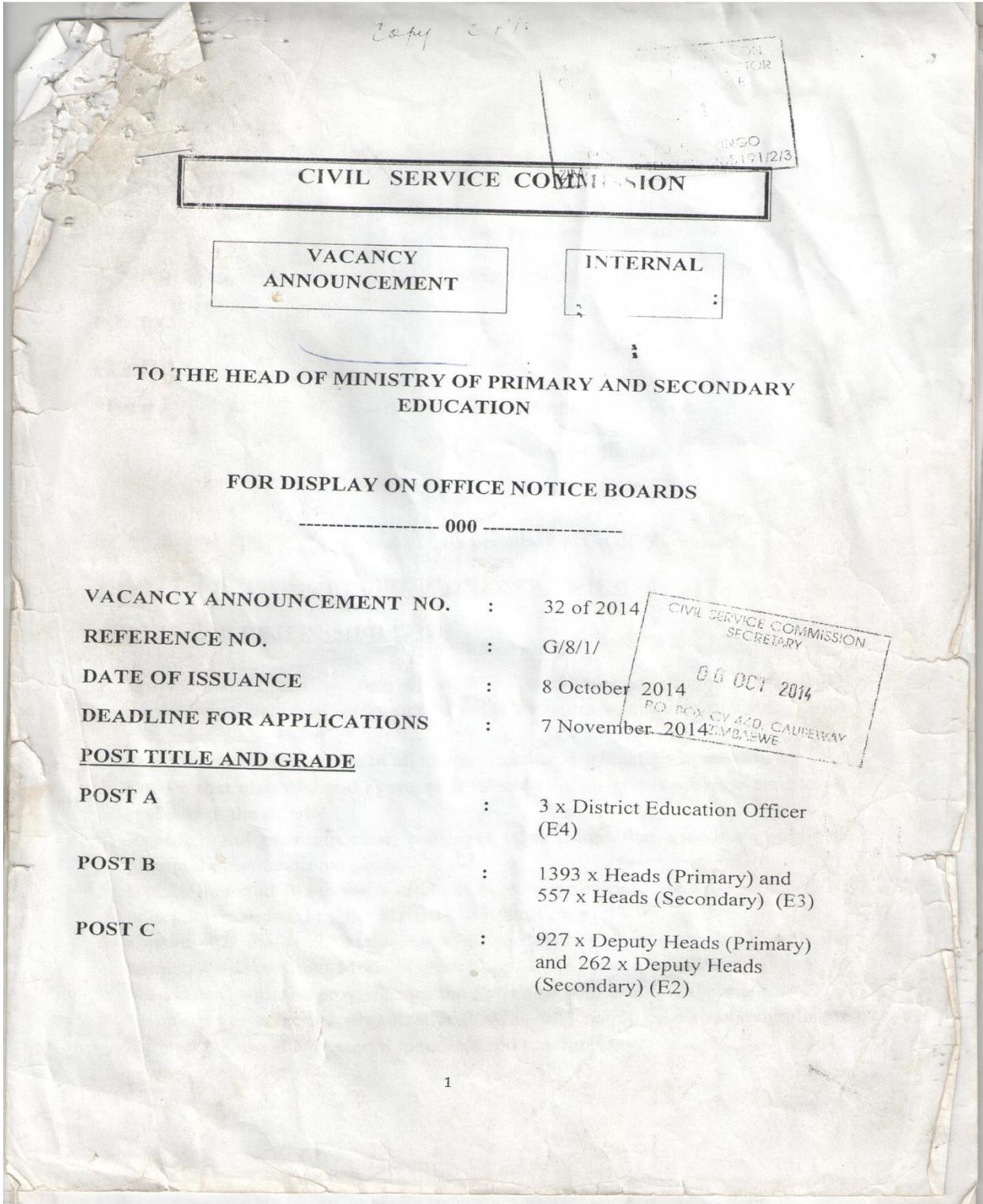
Prof V McKay

EXECUTIVE DEAN

Approved - decision template – updated 16 Feb 2017

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

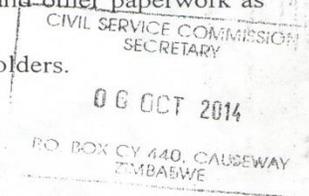
APPENDIX U: VACANCY ANNOUNCEMENT CIRCULAR NO. 32 OF 2014



POST B: HEAD (PRIMARY AND SECONDARY)

DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES

1. Assume ultimate responsibility for the overall management and operation of the school in accordance with law, administrative code, and School policies and regulations.
2. Ensure correct interpretation and implementation of curriculum and syllabuses
3. Develop, refine and propagate the vision, mission and goals of the school;
4. Determine standards and take appropriate steps to measure and maintain reasonable performance and professional growth of subordinates;
5. Maintain personal contact with all school staff members, fostering good public relations, promoting high morale, and identifying personnel problems as early as possible.
6. Develop and implement procedures for tracking student progress and intervening early when concerns are identified;
7. Conduct frequent classroom observations to analyze instruction and supervise staff to ensure continuous improvement in teaching and learning;
8. Prepare annual budget proposal for submission to the SDA with the assistance of the SDA Treasurer;
9. Align the use of time, people, money, and materials to school's instructional priorities;
10. Encourage meaningful alumni, parent, and past parent participation in events that aid and support the goals of the school;
11. Manage fundraising efforts by articulating the goals for which funds are being raised;
12. Monitor cultural trends in the school—correcting negative trends and inspiring positive cultural growth;
13. Maintain accurate personnel records by overseeing procedures and practices resulting in consistent and meaningful records being kept;
14. Serve as an ex-officio member of the SDA;
15. Exercise authority over the behavior and conduct of pupils, professional and non-professional employees, visitors, and any other persons using the school.
16. Prepare or supervise the creation of reports, records, and other paperwork as required by stakeholders;
17. Develop the school calendar in partnership with stakeholders.



18. Discuss child's individual development and progress and assisting parents in developing observational skills and solicit parent observations;
19. Meet with Education Specialists to discuss special needs of children;
20. Maintain excellent relationships with parents, teachers, support staff, students, SDA, and District Offices.
21. Keep authorities fully informed of critical needs as they affect educational operations.
22. Establish a collegial environment that honors and encourages students and staff's continuous learning;

COMPETENCIES AND SKILLS

- Must be a holder of a Certificate/Diploma/Post Graduate Diploma in Education and a University degree. Please note that applicants for 'A' Level schools should be holders of a degree with a relevant teaching subject.
- Possession of a relevant Masters degree will be an added advantage.
- At least 2 years experience as a Deputy Head.
- Knowledge of Public Service Regulations and Procedures.
- Ability to carry out research work, analyze data and compile reports.
- Well-developed communication and analytical skills
- Management and Supervisory skills.

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION
SECRETARY

B. B. OCT 2011