

**EXPLORING ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN
SELECTED TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN ESWATINI**

by

NTOMBIFUTHI PRUDENCE MHLONGO

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for
the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION

in the subject

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

in the

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROF. M. DICHABA

31 January 2023

DECLARATION

Name: NTOMBIFUTHI PRUDENCE MHLONGO

Student number: 53320301

Degree: DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION

The exact wording of the title of the thesis as appearing on the copies submitted for examination:

EXPLORING ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN
SELECTED TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN ESWATINI

I declare that this thesis is my original work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originally checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements of originality.

I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at UNISA for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.



SIGNATURE

31 January 2023

DATE

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

- Almighty God for guidance and strength
- My late grandmother Beauty Ziyane for always believing in me
- My late father Sipho Mhlongo for instilling the value of education in me early in life.
- My mother Girly Mhlongo for her unconditional love, prayers and moral support
- I am thankful to my son Mandanda for his resilience while I spent most of my time on this work
- I am appreciative to my sisters and brothers for the support they demonstrated through this journey.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- First of all, I thank the Almighty God for guidance and strength throughout the journey
- My sincere appreciation to the late Dr Truelove Mkhwanazi for the valuable support and guidance from the inception of the study until the end of her life journey. Heavens could not wait. I will forever be grateful for the support, inspiration, guidance, patience, and dedication to your work even during ill health. Indeed, this has been a challenging experience in my academic journey. May your soul rest in eternal peace.
- My profound thanks to my supervisor Professor Mpho Dichaba for bringing together all the broken pieces, encouragement, commitment, trust and having confidence in me. My special thanks Prof for bringing back hope, and holding my hand until the completion of this study. I will forever be grateful.
- My special thanks to spiritual parents Pastor Z. Malaza and Pastor N. Malaza and Gospel Powerhouse International family for their prayers and encouragement.
- I am grateful to my son for his patience, understanding and encouragement throughout the study.
- I appreciate the Ministry of Education and Training of Eswatini for permitting the collection of data in the Colleges.
- I am thankful to UNISA student bursary programme for the financial support. Without the funds, the research would have not been possible.
- I am also grateful to the principals, vice principals, heads of departments, senior lecturers, lecturers and students for their participation in the study and the data they provided.
- Special thanks to my work colleagues for their understanding while I was doing this study.
- Special thanks to my colleagues Dr Stefani Chabwera, Ms Monica Nkwanyane and Dr Mlungisi Dlamini for their advice, support and encouragement.
- I am thankful Dr Siphon Maseko Language specialist for editing my work
- Lastly, my sincere appreciation to all those who contributed directly or indirectly towards the completing of this work.

ABSTRACT

This study explored and gained an in-depth understanding of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) from the perspectives of principals, vice principals, heads of departments (HODs), lecturers and students. The researcher examined how leaders of these colleges influence the culture of teaching and learning in the TTCs, the challenges they faced and proposed strategies that can be used to enhance academic leadership of teaching and learning.

Through the use of a qualitative approach located in an interpretive paradigm, this multiple case design-based study involved participants from two government TTCs in Eswatini. Individual interviews, focus group interviews, and document analysis were utilised for collecting data. While the individual interviews involved the principals, vice principals, and HODs, the focus group interviews involved lecturers and students.

The thematic analysis revealed supervising and monitoring teaching and learning, provision of teaching and learning resources as well as setting the vision, giving direction and administrative roles as the four key academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals and HODs in the TTCs. These roles were shared among the college leaders. These leaders faced numerous challenges which included staff attitudes; unethical conduct; insufficient resources including funds, material, and human resources; bureaucracy; lack of autonomy; absence of formal preparation and induction programme for newly appointed college leaders; and unclear policies guiding academic leadership of teaching and learning.

It is recommended that the TTCs should induct newly appointed college leaders through a programme that focuses largely on leadership and management. Also, the TTCs should be afforded some autonomy which would allow them to control the procurement of resources like teaching and learning materials, control funds as well as recommend staff for recruitment.

KEYWORDS

Academic leadership, principals, vice principals, heads of departments, lecturers, students, teaching and learning, teacher training colleges, Eswatini

SIBUTSETELO

Lolucwaningo luhlolisile futsi lwafola kuvisisa lokujulile ngebuholi betemfundvo lephakeme macondzana nekufundzisa nekufundza Emakolishi Ekucesha Bothishela AseSwatini (e-TTC) lakhetsiwe ngekwemibono yabothishelanhloko, emasekela abothishelanhloko, tinhloko tematiko (ema-HOD), bafundzisi kanye netitjudeni. Lolucwaningo lwachubeka futsi lwahlola kutsi labaholi bemakolishi bawufaka kanjani umtselela esikweni lekufundzisa nekufundza kuma-TTC, tinsayeya lababukana nato kanye namasu lahlongotwako lokutfukisa buholi betemfundvo bekufundzisa nekufundza.

Lolucwaningo lwasebentisa indlela yebungako letfolakala kumcondvo kudayagramu lehumushekako. Lona bekungumklamo welucwaningo lolumkhakhaminyenti lolugcile emakolishi lamabili ahulumende ekucesha bothishela Eswatini. Kute kugcogcwe imininingwane (idatha) kwasetjentswa tingcoco tebantfu ngamunye, tingcoco temacembu lokugcilwe kuto kanye nekuhlaliywa kwemibhalo kwasetjentswa. Tingcoco tebantfu ngamunye tachutjwa kubothishelanhloko, kumasekela abothishelanhloko lamabili kanye nema-HOD lamane, ngesikhatsi kuchutjwa tingcoco nemacembu lamabili lekugcilwe kuwo nebafundzisi labasitfupha kanye netitjudeni letisitfupha letivela ekolishi ngalinye lokwenta-ke tingcoco temacembu lamane lokugcilwe kuwo.

Ngekuhlaliywa kwengcikitsi, lolucwaningo lwaveta kuvisisa lokutsi akufananane mayelana netindzima letidlalwa baholi betemfundvo lephakeme ekufundziseni nasekufundzeni. Lokukhulu lokwatfolakala kwakhombisa kutsi kugadza nekwelusa kufundzisa nekufundza, kuniketa tinsitakufundza nekufundzisa, kuhlela umbonochanti kanye nekukhomba indlela kanye nekuba nendzima yekulawula kwatsatfwa njengetintfo letibalulekile letine tetindzima letidlalwa buholi betemfundvo lephakeme tabothishelanhloko, emasekela abothishelanhloko kanye nema-HOD kuma-TTC.

Letindzima letidlalwako tabelwa baholi bemakolishi. Labaholi bahlangabetana netinsayeya letinengi kakhulu, njengetimongcondvo tebasebenti (bothishela), kungatiphatsi ngendlela lefanele, tinsitakufundza letingeneli kufaka ekhatsi timali,

imethiriyeli kanye nemtfombolusito lobantfu, kuphatfwa kwelihhovisi, kungakhoni kutimela, kungabi khona kulungiselela lokuhlelekile kanye netinhlelo tekungeniswa kwebaholi bemakolishi labasandza kucashwa kanye netinchubomgomo letingacaci letikhomba indlela baholi betemfundvo lephakeme betekufundzisa nekufundza.

Kunconywa kutsi ema-TTC abe neluhlelo lokungenisa nekufundzisa baholi basemakolishi lasandza kucashwa. Loluhlelo lokungeniswa nekufundziswa kufanele lugcile kakhulu ebuholini nasekuphatseni. Kusungulwa kwekutimela lokutsite nako kuyanconywa kute kuvunyelwe lulawulo lwetinsitakufundza njengekutsengwa kwetintfo tekufundzisa nekufundza, kulawulwa kwetimali kanye nekucashwa kwebasebenti lokufanele kwentiwe ngekhatsi kuma-TTC.

EMAGAMA LABALULEKE KAKHULU:

Buholi betemfundvo lephakeme, bothishelanhloko, emasekela abothishelanhloko, tinhloko tematiko, bafundzisi, titjudeni, kufundzisa nekufundza, emakolishi ekucecesha bothishela, Eswatini

ISIFINQO

Lolu cwaningo luhlolisise futhi lwazuza ukuqonda okujulile ngobuholi bezemfundo maqondana nokufundisa nokufunda emaKolishi Okuqeqesha Othisha ase-Eswatini (KOO) akhethiwe ngokwemibono yothishanhloko, amasekela-thishanhloko, izinhloko zeminyango (ababuye baziwe ngama-HOD), abafundisi nabafundi. Ucwaningo luphinde lwahlola ukuthi laba baholi bamakolishi banethonya kanjani esikweni lokufundisa nokufunda kuma-KOO, izinselelo ababhekana nazo kanye namasu ahlangozwayo okuthuthukisa ubuholi bezemfundo bokufundisa nokufunda.

Ucwaningo lwamukele indlela yekhwalthethivu etholakala kumqondo wokutolika. Lona bekuwumklamo wocwaningo oluningi olugxile emakolishi amabili kahulumeni okuqeqesha othisha e-Eswatini. Izingxoxo zomuntu ngamunye, izingxoxo zamaqembu okugxilwe kuzo kanye nokuhlaziywa kwemibhalo kwasetshenziswa ukuze kuqoqwe idatha. Inhlolokhono yomuntu ngamunye yenziwe nothishanhloko ababili, amasekela-thishanhloko amabili kanye nama-HOD amane, kwathi izinhlokokhono ezimbili zamaqembu agxilile zaqashwa nabafundisi abayisithupha kanye nabafundi abayisithupha bekolishi ngalinye benza isamba senhlolokhono yamaqembu amane.

Ngokuhlaziywa kwetimu, ucwaningo lwembula ukuqonda okufanayo ngezindima zobuholi bezemfundo ekufundiseni nasekufundeni. Okutholakele okukhulu kubonise ukuthi ukwengamela nokuqapha ukufundisa nokufunda, ukuhlinzeka ngezinsiza zokufundisa nokufunda, ukubeka umbono kanye nokunikeza isiqondiso kanye nokuba neqhaza lokuphatha kubhekwa njengezindima ezine ezibalulekile zobuholi kwezemfundo kothishanhloko, osekela-thishanhloko kanye nama-HOD kuma-KOO. Lezi zindima zabelwana phakathi kwabaholi bekolishi. Laba baholi babhekene nezinselelo eziningi, njengezimo zengqondo zabasebenzi, ukuziphatha okungalungile, izinsiza ezinganele ezihlanganisa izimali, izinto ezibonakalayo kanye nezinsiza zabantu, ukuphathwa kwehhovisi, ukuntuleka kokuzimela, ukungabi khona kokulungiselela okusemthethweni kanye nezinhlelo zokungeniswa kwabaholi bamakolishi abasanda kuqashwa kanye nezinqubomgomo ezingacacile eziqondisa ubuholi bezemfundo. ukufundisa nokufunda.

Kutuswa ukuthi ama-KOO abe nohlelo lokujwayezwa kwabaholi abasanda kuqashwa basemakolishi. Uhlelo lokungeniswa kufanele lugxile kakhulu ebuholini nasekuphatheni. Ukusungulwa kokunye ukuzimela kuyatuswa ukuze kuvunyelwe ukulawula izinsiza ezifana nokuthengwa kwezinto zokufundisa nokufunda, ukulawulwa kwezimali kanye nokuqashwa kwabasebenzi okufanele kwenziwe ngaphakathi kuyi- KOO.

AMAGAMA ABALULEKILE

Ubuholi bezemfundo, othishanhloko, abasekeli bothishanhloko, izinhloko zeminyango, abafundisi, abafundi, ukufundisa nokufunda, amakolishi okuqeqesha othisha, Eswatini

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

TTCs	Teacher Training Colleges
AL	Academic Leadership
BAI	Board of Affiliated Institutions
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
ESHEC	Eswatini Higher Education Council
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HOD	Head Of Department
LfL	Leadership for Learning
METF	Ministry of Education and Training Financial report
MoET	Ministry of Education and Training
NDS	National Development Strategy
NETIP	National Education and Training Improvement Plan
NTTC	Ngwane Teacher Training College
ODL	Open and Distance Learning
PTD	Primary Teachers' Diploma
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SCOT	Swaziland College of Technology
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SL	Senior Lecturers
SRC	Student Representative Council
STD	Secondary Teachers' Diploma
TSC	Teaching Service Commission
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNCESCR	United Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights
UNESWA	University of Eswatini
UNISA	University of South Africa
UNISWA	University of Swaziland
WPC	William Pitcher College

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	I
DEDICATION	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
ABSTRACT	IV
KEYWORDS	V
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	X
LIST OF FIGURES	XIX
LIST OF APPENDICES	XX
LIST OF TABLES	XXI
CHAPTER 1	1
ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Historical background to the study	3
1.3 The study context.....	5
1.4 The concept of teacher education and teacher training	6
1.5 Statement of the problem.....	7
1.6 Rationale of the study	10
1.7 Motivation of the study	10
1.8 Significance of the study	12
1.9 Research questions	12
1.10 Aims and objectives	13
1.11 Preliminary literature review	14
1.11.1 Academic leadership	14
1.11.2 Academic leaders	14
1.11.3 Academic leadership role.....	15
1.11.4 Teaching and learning in Higher Education	16
1.11.5 Higher Education	16
1.12 Theoretical framework.....	17
1.13 Research design and methodology.....	17
1.13.1 Research paradigm	18
1.13.2 Research approach	18

1.13.3 Research strategy.....	18
1.13.4 Selection of setting and participants	19
1.13.4.1 Selection of setting	19
1.11.4.1 Selection of participants	20
1.13.5 Data collection	21
1.11.5.1 Semi-structured interviews	21
1.11.5.2 Focus group interviews.....	22
1.11.5.3 Document analysis	23
1.13.6 Data analysis and interpretation	23
1.13.7 Trustworthiness and credibility.....	24
1.11.7.1 Credibility.....	24
1.11.7.2 Dependability.....	24
1.13.8 Ethical considerations	25
1.13.9 Limitations and delimitations of the study	27
1.11.9.1 Limitations	27
1.11.9.2 Delimitations	27
1.14 Scope of the study	28
1.15 Chapter outline.....	28
1.16 Chapter summary.....	29
CHAPTER 2.....	30
LITERATURE REVIEW	30
2.1 Introduction	30
2.2 Definition of academic leadership	30
2.2.1 Academic leadership as a person	31
2.2.2 Academic leadership as a process.....	32
2.2.3 Academic leadership as a position.....	33
2.2.4 Academic leadership as a role	34
2.3 Academic leadership in teaching and learning.....	35
2.4 Characteristics of academic leadership.....	36
2.4.1 Autonomy and academic freedom	37
2.4.2 Collegiality	39
2.4.3 Academic values.....	40

2.4.4 Complexity	41
2.4.5 Multifaceted	43
2.5 Academic leadership in practice.....	45
2.5.1 Academic leaders	45
2.5.2 Role of academic leaders	46
2.6 Academic leadership roles in teaching and learning	48
2.6.1 Setting direction	48
2.6.2 Provide enabling work environment.....	49
2.6.2.1 Working collaboratively.....	49
2.6.2.2 Staff and students' involvement-.....	49
Moreover,	50
2.6.2.3 Administrative support.....	50
2.6.3 Professional development.....	50
2.6.4 Building community of scholars	51
2.6.5 Influence institutional culture.....	51
2.7 Academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals and Heads of departments	52
2.7.1 Academic leadership role of principals	52
2.7.2 Academic leadership roles of vice principals	55
2.7.3 Academic leadership role of Heads of Departments	56
2.8 Perspectives on academic leadership.....	59
2.8.1 Lecturers' perspectives on leadership	59
2.8.2 Students' perspectives on leadership	61
2.9 Teaching and learning in Higher Education	62
2.10 Challenges facing academic leadership.....	66
2.10.1 Role overload.....	66
2.10.2 Lack of preparation for the role	67
2.10.3 Institutional culture	68
2.10.4 Students profile.....	70
2.10.5 Plurality of mission	71
2.10.6 Information Technology	71
2.10.7 Reduced funding.....	72

2.10.8 Shortage of personnel	73
2.11 Strategies to mitigate challenges facing academic leadership	74
2.11.1 Academic leadership development	74
2.11.2 Advocacy for teaching and learning in HE	75
2.11.3 Embrace technology	76
2.11.4 Collaboration.....	76
2.11.4 Shared or distributed leadership	77
2.11.5 Transformational leadership	77
2.12 Relevance of academic leadership to teacher training colleges.....	78
2.13 Chapter summary.....	79
CHAPTER 3.....	81
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	81
3.1 Introduction	81
3.2 Origins of Leadership for Learning.....	82
3.3 Defining Leadership for Learning	85
3.4 Leadership for Learning theory	86
3.4.1 Purpose	87
3.4.2 Human agency.....	87
3.4.3 Context	87
3.5 Five principles of Leadership for Learning	88
3.5.1 Focus on learning	88
3.5.2 Conditions for learning.....	90
3.5.3 Dialogue.....	91
3.5.4 Shared leadership.....	92
3.5.5 Shared accountability	93
3.6 Linking leadership and learning	93
3.7 Connecting Leadership for Learning to academic leadership	95
3.8 Justification for choosing Leadership for Learning	96
3.9 Chapter summary.....	97
CHAPTER 4.....	98
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	98
4.1 Introduction	98

4.2 Interpretive research paradigm	98
4.2.1 Ontology	99
4.2.2 Epistemology	100
4.3 Research Approach	100
4.4 Methodology	103
4.4.1 Population, site selection and sampling	103
4.4.1.1 <i>Population</i>	103
4.4.1.2 <i>Site selection</i>	103
4.4.1.3 <i>Sampling</i>	104
Table 4.1: Population and sample size	104
4.5 Data collection procedures and instruments	106
4.5.1 Individual interviews	106
4.5.2 Focus group interviews	109
4.5.3 Document analysis	111
4.6 Data analysis and interpretation	113
4.6.1 Data familiarisation	114
4.6.2 Code generation	114
4.6.3 Theme searching	115
4.6.4 Theme revision	116
4.6.5 Theme definition	116
4.6.6 Reporting	116
4.7 Data trustworthiness	117
4.7.1 Credibility	117
4.7.2 Dependability	118
4.7.3 Confirmability	119
4.7.4 Transferability	119
4.7.5 Reflexivity	120
4.8 Ethical issues	122
4.8.1 Ethical clearance	122
4.8.2 Access and permission	123
4.8.3 Informed consent and voluntary participation	123
4.8.4 Protection of confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy	124

4.8.5 Responsibilities to human participants.....	125
4.9 Limitations of the study	125
4.10 Chapter summary.....	126
CHAPTER 5.....	127
DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS	127
5.1 Introduction	127
5.2 Characteristics of the participants	127
5.3 Data analysis process	131
5.4 Findings from the interviews	132
5.4 Theme 1: Academic leadership roles of college leaders	132
5.4.1 Academic leadership roles from college leaders' perspective	133
5.4.1.1 Supervising and monitoring teaching and learning	134
5.4.1.2 Providing teaching and learning resources	138
5.4.1.3 Defining and communicating the vision	139
5.4.1.4 Motivating the staff.....	140
5.4.1.5 Meeting staff needs	141
5.4.1.6 Administrative role	141
5.4.1.7 Managing teaching and learning time	142
5.4.2 Academic leadership roles from lecturers' perspective	142
5.4.2.1 Supervising and monitoring teaching and learning	142
5.4.2.2 Providing teaching and learning resources	143
5.4.2.3 Defining and communicating the vision	145
5.4.2.4 Motivating the staff.....	146
5.4.2.5 Meeting staff needs	146
5.4.2.6 Coordination role	148
5.4.3.7 Administration role	149
5.4.3 Academic leadership roles from students' perspective	149
5.4.3.1 Supervising and monitoring teaching and learning	149
5.4.3.2 Providing teaching and learning resources	151
5.4.3.3 Defining the vision	152
5.4.3.4 Public relations	153
5.4.3.5 Decision-making	153

5.4.3.6 Administration role	154
5.4.3.7 Ensuring conduct	154
5.6 Theme 2: Creating the culture of teaching and learning.....	155
5.6.1 Providing teaching and learning resources	156
5.6.2 Professional development.....	156
5.6.3 Participatory decision-making	158
5.6.4 Monitoring teaching and learning	161
5.7 Theme 3: Challenges facing academic leadership.....	163
5.7.1 Negative attitudes	164
5.7.2 Unethical conduct	165
5.7.3 Insufficient resources.....	167
5.7.3.1 <i>Financial resources</i>	167
5.7.3.2 <i>Material resources</i>	169
5.7.3.3 <i>Human resources</i>	170
5.7.4 Bureaucracy.....	173
5.7.5 Lack of autonomy	175
5.7.6 Lack of prior preparation for leadership role	176
5.7.7 Unclear policies guiding academic leadership	178
5.8 Theme 5: Strategies for enhancing academic leadership of teaching and learning	179
5.8.1 Professional development.....	180
5.8.2 Establishing autonomy.....	188
5.8.3 Timely provision of resources	190
5.8.4 Developing staff morale	191
5.9 Document analysis.....	191
5.9.1 <i>Almanacs</i>	192
5.9.2 <i>Strategic plans</i>	193
5.10 Interpretation of findings.....	194
5.11 Chapter summary.....	200
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	202
6.1 Introduction	202
6.2 Summary of findings	202

6.2.1 Theme 1: Academic leadership roles of college leaders.....	202
6.2.2 Theme 2: Creating the culture of teaching and learning	203
6.2.3 Theme 3: Challenges facing academic leadership	204
6.2.4 Theme 4: Strategies for enhancing academic leadership of teaching and learning.....	207
Summary	209
6.3 Contribution of the study	210
6.4 What the study has achieved	212
6.5 Suggestions for future research	213
6.6 Limitations of the study	214
6.7 Implication for policy and practice	215
6.8 Recommendations	216
6.9 Conclusion	218
LIST OF REFERENCES	219
APPENDICES.....	252
Appendix A: Ethical clearance letter	252
Appendix B: Request Letter to Director of Education	255
Appendix C: Letter of Permission to collect data from the Director of Education	256
Appendix D: Request letter to college principals.....	257
Appendix E: Informed Consent forms	259
Appendix F: Invitation letter to participants for individual interviews	260
Appendix G: Interview schedule for college leaders	260
Appendix H: Invitation letter to participants for focus group interviews	263
Appendix I : Focus group interview schedule for lecturers	264
Appendix J: Focus group interview schedule for students	266
Appendix K: Document analysis check list.....	268
Appendix L: Turnitin report.....	269
Appendix M: Editing declaration.....	270
Appendix N:Sample of transcript used to illustrate data analysis	271

LIST OF FIGURES

- Figure 3.1: Leadership for learning framework
- Figure 5.1 Themes identified from the data
- Figure 6.1 Summary of challenges facing academic leadership in teaching and learning
- Figure 6.2 Conceptual framework of academic leadership of teaching and learning

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A	Ethical clearance certificate
Appendix B	Request letter to Director of Education
Appendix C	Letter of permission to collect data from the Director of Education
Appendix D	Request letter to college principals
Appendix E	Informed consent forms
Appendix F	Invitation letter to participants for individual interviews
Appendix G	Interview schedule for college leaders
Appendix H	Invitation letter to participants for focus group interviews
Appendix I	Focus group interview schedule for lecturers
Appendix J	Focus group interview schedule for students
Appendix K	Document analysis checklist
Appendix L	Turn-it-in report
Appendix M	Editing declaration
Appendix N	Sample of a transcript to illustrate data analysis

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1	Population and sample size
Table 5.1	Characteristics of college leaders
Table 5.2	Characteristics of college teachers
Table 5.3	Characteristics of college students
Table 5.4	Illustration of how data were analysed
Table 5.5	Summary of findings for objective 2
Table 5.6	Summary of challenges and how were addressed
Table 5.7	Summary of findings for objective 4

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Higher Education (HE) is commonly regarded as playing an important role in accelerating the socioeconomic development of any country (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018; Floyd, 2016). However, in recent years, this essential sector has faced multiple challenges, among them, having to adopt advanced technologies meant to blend in-person and online learning, increased student applications, reduced funding by states, increased employer demands and students' needs (Nguyen, 2015). To improve teaching and learning amid the emerging challenges, HE should acquaint and/or develop their leadership accordingly (Hofmeyer, Sheinggold, Klopper & Warland, 2015).

Of the different types of leadership, there is a perception that leaders in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) need to focus on academic leadership (Durie & Beshir, 2016; Cetin & Kinik, 2015; Nguyen, 2015). In an attempt to understand academic leadership, Joyce and O'Boyle (2013) claim that academic leadership in HE encompasses core functions of teaching and learning, research and scholarship. Taken together, these have a broader focus on academic values and identity.

Some authors have posited that traditionally, HE has rather remained focused on research and neglected teaching and learning (Quinlan, 2014; Kelly, 2010a). This has been questioned largely because the bias has led to their failure to meet the competencies and skills required by employers and students (Dirkse van Schalkwyk, Davis, & Pellissier, 2013; Zvavahera, 2013). As a result of the aforementioned bias, there have been minimal changes in teaching and learning reported in HE (Debowski & Darwin, 2009). To address these concerns, HE academic leadership is beginning to focus on teaching and learning (Bolden, Gosling, O'Brien, Peters, Ryan & Haslam, 2012). This presents a research gap.

Saroyan, Getahum and Gebre (2011) claim that academic leadership of HEIs has overlooked teaching and learning in favour of research partly because it is highly prized and rewarded, and boosts the competitiveness of institutions and countries

(Quinlan (2014; Healey, Jordan, Pell and Short, 2010). Whatever the case, there is a need for leaders in HEIs to find a balance between research, teaching and learning, and its importance is stressed by Quinlan 2014. Quinlan emphasizes that ‘if academics are expected to gain qualifications for teaching and learning, why not expect academic leaders to be prepared to lead learning and teaching initiatives (Quinlan, 2014:34)’?

Scholars have shown a growing interest and focus on the academic leadership of HE in teaching and learning (Bolden et al, 2012). The increased attention to this type of leadership can be explained by its significance (Nguyen, 2015) and the fact that primarily, teaching and learning ought to be prioritised as the foremost priorities of HE (Quinlan, 2014). That notwithstanding, academic leadership is under-researched and therefore not clearly defined and/or understood (Nguyen & Barry, 2015).

While researchers neglect HE’s core business of teaching and learning, by contrast, most HEIs appoint multiple academic leaders in this area (Karadag, 2017). For example, the area falls under executive leaders such as chancellors, vice chancellors, provosts, deans as well as Heads of Departments (HODs) or department chairs (McInnis, Ramsden & Maconachie, 2012; Karadag, 2017). Subsequently, they carry the academic leadership function. While in the case of Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs), the principal, vice principal and heads of departments (HODs) carry the academic leadership roles.

This researcher observed that HE in Eswatini has not given much attention to academic leadership in teaching and learning, particularly in the colleges of teacher education which, according to Mahlalela (2017), are the most important institutions in education service delivery in the country. This presents a knowledge gap. Therefore, this study seeks to explore insights on how college principals, vice principals as well as HODs, understand and experience their academic leadership roles and what practices they engage in to improve teaching and learning in two government TTCs of Eswatini.

1.2 Historical background to the study

The history of TTCs in Eswatini dates to the colonial era. The first to be established was the Nazarene TTC in 1936, followed by the Swaziland College of Technology (SCOT) which was established in 1946 and thereafter the William Pitcher College (WPC) in 1962 (Ministry of Education, 1978). With an increase in the population, coupled with higher enrolment rates in schools, the country needed more teachers. Therefore, another college, the Ngwane Teacher Training College (NTTC) was built in 1981 and focused on training primary school teachers (Mahlalela, 2017). To respond to an increase in the demand for HE, the then University of Swaziland (UNISWA) was inaugurated in 1982 after a break up with the University of Botswana and Swaziland (UNESWA, 2019).

Since their establishment, government TTCs colleges in Eswatini have rarely improved teacher training programmes despite their upgrade from offering certificate teaching programmes to focussing on diploma teaching programmes. In fact, the institutions have offered the latter for more than three decades with specialities in primary and secondary teachers. To date, NTTC offers an Early Childhood Teacher Education programme and Primary Teachers Diploma (PTD), WPC offers a PTD programme plus Secondary Teachers Diploma (STD), and SCOT offers the STD programme in technical and vocational subjects.

In Eswatini, government TTCs have enjoyed the benefits of being sole providers of teacher education for more than five decades. However, in recent years, various stakeholders including the government, students and society are putting pressure on the leadership of the TTCs. For example, recent policies of government stress that TTCs should be relevant and produce quality teachers. Also, society demands increased access and quality education and training while students demand access to TTCs (Ministry of Education and Training, 2011; 2014; 2018a). Coupled with the aforesaid challenges are dwindling financial resources offered by the government which add another layer of difficulty to the operation of the government TTCs and these obstacles blur the possibility of quality education and training.

Education that is relevant and of better quality has remained a priority issue on the agenda of the Ministry of Education and Training in Eswatini (Ministry of Education

and Training (MoET), 2011, 2018a). This is evidenced by the fact that in the past and currently, MoET policy and related local and international policy documents, which Eswatini is a signatory to, have emphasized. The policy documents include among others, the National Education and Training Improvement Plan (NETIP), National Development Strategy (NDS) Vision 2020, and the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG 4). All the above-listed policy documents underscore issues of access, quality and relevance in education as well as the important role that HE plays in the economic development of the country.

In response to the quests to achieve the abovementioned policies, several proposals have been made which were largely aimed at improving the quality of TTCs. In particular, the MoET has gone to the extent of proposing the transformation of colleges, the introduction of competency-based education, infrastructure development, and the introduction of degree programmes (MoET, 2011, 2018a).

There have been attempts to implement these proposals however, progress by the TTCs to achieve the policy goals has been hindered by numerous challenges. For instance, in recent years, the HE sector in Eswatini has witnessed a proliferation of private TTCs, increased demand for enrolment, underfunding of postgraduate students, dwindling and uncertain scholarships, and reduced government allocation of capital projects for government TTCs (Mahlalela, 2017). Adding to the challenges is the increased demand for quality in HE by the newly established Eswatini Higher Education Council (ESHEC). Taken together, these challenges add weight to the workload of especially leaders of the TTCs.

The ESHEC is mandated to promote and control the quality and standards of education and training in the country's HE. As expected, it has imposed quality requirements on HE including the TTCs understudy and that further creates pressure on the leadership of these institutions. The reduced amount of student scholarship that is offered by the government has led to self-funding among students studying in TTCs. Institutions of HE are now faced with the challenge of maximising student learning experiences for the value of students' money in a highly competitive environment.

Unlike most HEIs, the Eswatini TTCs mainly focus on the function of teaching and learning. This is despite all emerging momentous forces, including the focus on

research, and this researcher has observed that in particular, the focus of government TTCs has been on traditional teaching and learning. Interestingly, the education policy of 2011 and 2018 reinforces transformation of the teaching and learning from traditional approaches to learner-centred approaches, integration of technology, competency-based education as well as relevant quality education and training. Adding to that, the public has criticised the poor quality of graduates from TTCs (Mahlalela, 2017). All these challenges bring interest to the academic leadership of teaching and learning in TTCs. This view is supported by Bashir and Khalil (2017:176), Durie & Beshir (2016), Black (2015), and Cetin and Kinik (2015) who claim that such challenges have led to a perception that HE needs to focus on academic leadership, a phenomenon that is not clearly understood (Nguyen & Barry, 2015).

Ruben, De Lisi & Gigliotti (2018) and Otara (2015) claim that leadership contribute to the success, mediocre, or failure of any organisation. As mentioned earlier, mostly, it is the executive management in HE that carry the role of academic leadership. Similarly, in Eswatini TTCs, senior managers including principals, vice principals, and HODs assume academic leadership responsibilities hence the study focused on them.

This researcher observed that leaders of the TTCs in Eswatini assume their academic leadership roles without having acquired any formal preparation yet they are appointed in these positions permanently. Also, the policy documents of colleges do not clearly articulate the academic leadership roles of college leaders heading teaching and learning, which is the key function of the colleges. Therefore, this shows a need for studies that can contribute knowledge on how academic leadership involved the teaching and learning in colleges execute their roles and responsibilities.

1.3 The study context

The context of this study is based on two Eswatini Government Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs). The Collin English Oxford dictionary describes a teacher training college as an HEI that specialises in teacher education and training. Eswatini has two main types of teacher training colleges namely, government public and private colleges. Of the teacher training colleges in Eswatini, three are controlled by the government through the Ministry of Education and Training and one of these is also a Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET). All the government-funded

teacher training colleges are affiliated with the University of Eswatini (UNESWA) for accreditation and quality control of their teaching programmes. On the other hand, the country hosts several private colleges which are independent and registered for-profit purposes.

Staff members who participated in this study were chosen from two of the government TTCs. The institutions have an organisational structure made up of a principal, a vice principal, six Heads of Departments (Languages, Practical Arts, Education, Applied Science, Social Studies and Sciences), subject Senior Lecturers (SL), lecturers, and students.

All formal leadership positions and academic staff in Eswatini's TTCs are recruited and appointed by the Ministry of Education and Training through Teaching Service Commission (TSC). All positions are on a permanent basis. The positions of the principal and vice principal are advertised externally and appointments are based on previous leadership experience but not expertise or educational background in leadership. Incumbent principals recommend internal personnel for HOD positions for promotions based on work experience and they are appointed without prior formal leadership preparation. With this background, it is imperative to gain insight into the perspectives and experiences of the leaders in their leadership responsibility in the two teacher training institutions.

1.4 The concept of teacher education and teacher training

Teacher education refers to policies and procedures designed to equip aspiring teachers with the knowledge, skills, attitude, and behaviours for performing their tasks in the classroom school and wide community (Samsujjaman, 2017). Usually, teacher education has three stages, namely;

- a) Initial teacher education also known as pre-service education - This is a course offered before entering the school classroom.
- b) Induction or mentoring – means providing support during the first few years of school.
- c) Continuous professional development (CPD) - in some instances, it is called in-service training. It refers to a programme offered to teachers who are already

in the teaching practice (Samsujjaman, 2017). In the context of Eswatini, this is offered by the in-service department (INSET) under MoET.

This study focused on TTCs that offered pre-service teacher education. According to Yeigh and Lynch (2017), pre-service teacher education developed from teacher training programmes that began in the early 19th century as on-job training programmes. During that time, pre-service training focused on teaching skills but did not include pedagogic concepts. Then, in the late 19th and 20th-century, teacher education was professionalised leading to teacher training colleges (Yeigh & Lynch, 2017).

While some countries offer teacher-education degrees through traditional universities (Namamba & Rao,2017; Avalos, 2011), in other countries including Eswatini, TTCs also offer teacher-education degrees to graduates of grade 12 (Okpe & Onjewu, 2016) ECCDE, primary, secondary schools as well as technical schools (Katitia, 2015). Commonly, TTCs offers certificates, diploma, and degrees.

Teacher-training institutions such as TTCs are an important component of education because they produce school teachers (Katitia, 2015) and therefore contribute to improved quality of education. In addition to offering basic courses on teacher education, some offer teaching research, teaching practice, supervision, and Continuous Professional Development (CPD) (Samsujjaman, 2017). In the context of Eswatini TTCs, the focus is mainly on teaching and learning as well as teaching practice while research is also an important component of the curriculum. While the TTCs are excluded from the CPD of teachers, there is a separate department within MoET that conducts CPD and is called the In-service Training (INSET) department.

1.5 Statement of the problem

A leader can lead an institution to changes that can be regarded as successful or unsuccessful (Fahamirad, 2016). In the case of leaders in institutions of higher learning, their leadership faces numerous challenges such as global competitiveness, increased demand for access to education, advancing technology, and increased

demand for quality assurance and reduced state funding (Nguyen, 2015). Coupled with these, they are expected to meet the demands, needs and expectations of diverse stakeholders such as students, communities, employers, and staff members (Siddique, Aslam, Khan & Fatima, 2011).

Whatever the case, leaders in HEIs need to find new ways to survive the emerging environment (Durie & Beshir, 2016; Cetin & Kinik, 2015). Among the suggested survival strategies is the need for HEIs to further develop the skills of academics in managerial positions (Hamifari & Ebrahimi, 2016) and support them (Floyd, 2016). Additionally, HEIs recognise the need to effect changes in teaching and learning as well as assessment practices as well as procedures and policies (Jones, 2014). Riffat and Umaira, (2016) argue that effecting these among other changes underscores a new kind of leadership called academic leadership. It is intriguing that despite being agents of change and mentors, responsible for guiding faculty and staff through team building and professional development, there is rarely formal training that is offered to academic leadership (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018).

Authors have shown a direct link between academic leadership and teaching and learning. So far, substantial research argues that academic leadership influence student learning outcomes (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018; Dima & Ghinea, 2016; Nguyen & Berry, 2015) and is important in staff motivation, job satisfaction, and commitment (Gedminiene & Kaminskiene, 2016; Fitzgerald, 2015; Siddique et al, 2011). Academic leadership improves student learning largely by raising the performances of teachers and staff (Fahamirad, 2016). Certainly, academic leadership contributes essentially to the enhancement of student learning and consequently, the improvement of quality teaching and learning in an educational system (Dima & Ghinea, 2016).

While there is a growing body of knowledge in academic leadership, it remains under-explored (Branson, Franken & Penny, 2016; Nguyen, 2015; Nguyen & Barry, 2015; Otara, 2014; Joyce & O'Boyle, 2013). Fitzgerald (2015) contends that much of the research has not prioritised teaching and learning, which are core functions of HE. Middlehurst (2012) recommends that there is a need to study the impact of leadership on the core functions of HEIs that are changing.

Like the rest of the world, leaders of HE in Eswatini assume leadership positions without prior leadership training. They are appointed based on academic qualifications, work experience, and expertise in their teaching discipline. This researcher observed that normally, a newly appointed leader would assume a position without orientation or mentorship to it, making it difficult to understand the culture and procedures of the institutions. With all these considerations, one wonders how leaders conceptualise and cope with their academic leadership responsibility.

Karadag (2017) argues that increasing quality in HE seems to depend on leaders in key positions discharging their roles effectively. Also, McInnis et al (2012) emphasize the importance of the impact that executive leadership has on academic leadership involved in teaching and learning. Likewise, this study seeks to gain an in-depth understanding of the academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals, and HODs in teaching and learning in two government TTCs of Eswatini. The study intended to understand the roles by assessing the perspectives of selected college leaders, lecturers, and students. Richards (2011) advocates for the involvement of students in academic leadership research given that they are core beneficiaries of HE. In other words, it seems important to solicit the views of students regarding leadership in the TTCs. Subsequently, the study sought the views of the students regarding academic leadership by the college leaders.

The search for literature on academic leadership in teaching and learning in HE in Eswatini did not produce any study. This is a clear indication that researchers have not given much attention to academic leadership development in the country's TTCs which are the most important institutions in the education service delivery of Eswatini (Mahlalela, 2017). As a result, this presents a gap in knowledge with regards to how academic leadership in teaching and learning is understood and practiced in TTCs.

Moreover, it is unclear as to the particular level or position at which academic leadership has impact on teaching and learning (Bradley, Grice & Paulsen, 2017), hence this study explored the academic leadership role by college leaders in various positions namely principals, vice principals, and HODs. Therefore, the present study sought to explore and gain in-depth understanding of academic leadership in teaching and learning based on views and experiences of principals, vice principals and HODs

as well as from the perspectives of lecturers and students in two government TTCs in Eswatini.

1.6 Rationale of the study

The ever changing environment in HE challenges the status quo whose focus is on research. HEIs have a tendency of rewarding research more than it does for teaching and learning. As a researcher, I believe that teaching and learning is a scholarly activity that is equally important to research and therefore deserves more attention. While students benefit from research, I believe that teaching and learning are the core business of HEIs because it directly benefits the students.

Additionally, I believe that academic leadership has a significant influence on the effectiveness of teaching and learning in HE. I contest the assumption that research translates to the ability to teach at HE. Those teaching in HE needs preparation just like teachers are prepared for teaching. Likewise, those in leadership need to be trained and developed continuously for them to be effective in their jobs. Leaders, especially those in academic positions of HE need to clearly understand their roles so they would be effective. Therefore, this study was intended to explore the academic leadership concept. This was done by examining the roles and experiences of academic leaders regarding leadership in teaching and learning in selected TTCs. The study further suggested how academic leadership can be improved to subsequently make a positive impact on teaching and learning in the TTCs.

1.7 Motivation of the study

Apart from being interested in understanding how academic leadership impacted teaching and learning, the researcher of this study was motivated by several factors. They desired to contribute knowledge that would improve the quality of education that was offered in the participant TTCs. She believes that the leaders had key roles in the TTCs and if they were to be clarified, the colleges would improve effectiveness and subsequently contribute to quality and relevant education and training in TTCs.

As a researcher, I had the desire to create awareness of academic leadership in teaching and learning, clarify academic leadership roles and identify academic leadership development gaps in TTCs so that relevant support would be provided.

The study was therefore motivated by the experience that this research gained while working as a lecturer and as a member of the senior management team in one of the government TTCs. The researcher experienced several challenges while in leadership. Adding to that, she observed, while attending senior management meetings, that on numerous occasions, concerns were raised on administrative issues like absenteeism of staff and staff not committed to their work. Adding to that, the researcher observed that in most meetings involving senior management, the focus was on administrative issues rather than academic issues, yet the researcher believes teaching and learning is the core business of the TTCs under study. Then, one wonders how leaders can bring focus and influence to teaching and learning in TTCs.

Furthermore, the researcher observed that the role of college leaders, particularly principals, vice principals, and HODs lacked clarity, and precision and was dynamic. The academic leadership role of principals, vice principals and HODs were not clearly articulated in the policy documents of the colleges. What lacked clarity concerned the Scheme of service and leadership training before the resumption of leadership positions. Additionally, the dynamic context of HE affected TTCs, leading to expanded administrative duties due to increased accountability and limited financial resources from the government. Hence, there is a need to draw the attention of leaders of colleges to focus on academic leadership as opposed to administrative leadership.

Comparatively, as a member of the senior management team, the researcher observed that the policy on teaching and learning is unclear and pays little attention to leadership, management, and supervision of teaching and learning in Eswatini TTCs. The leaders are more concerned about administrative duties.

On another note, this researcher noted that in government TTCs, the curriculum was static and had programmes that existed dating back to the early 80's yet there had been so many changes that had taken place in the country, continent and the rest of the world. Matters concerning teaching and learning in most of the TTCs were left entirely to the teaching staff and students. This invariably undermined the role of

leadership in teaching and learning. More so, there was little support provided to capacitate newly appointed leaders, yet the world is in the era of lifelong learning. Türkkahraman (2012) asserts that education is a prerequisite for development because it improves and strengthens developmental capacities of individuals, groups, institutions, and countries, hence a need to explore the understanding of academic leadership in teaching and learning in TTCs.

1.8 Significance of the study

Understanding the roles of academic leadership in teaching and learning can lead to focus on what is important in Eswatini's TTCs, how it should be coordinated and organised, and bring clarity on who is responsible for it. In this regard, this study was intended to be of value to principals, vice principals, and HODs in TTCs because it would guide them in their academic leadership roles in teaching and learning. It was anticipated that the findings would provide feedback and create awareness on best practices for enhancing teaching and learning and subsequently, transfer good practices to lecturer and teacher trainees.

The findings of this study would likely provide information to aspiring college leaders on how to be better prepared for academic leadership. If future leaders are to be better prepared, leadership practices would improve and subsequently, they would maximize the learning experiences of students. The study examined challenges and strategies that could be adopted to improve academic leadership concerned with teaching and learning. It was anticipated that the findings would make recommendations that would inform policies in HE concerning the academic development of leadership and related recruitment. The perspectives and experiences shared on academic leadership in teaching and learning from the TTCs would likely contribute to knowledge on academic leadership in teaching and learning in HE as well as in the identification of areas needing further research.

1.9 Research questions

The main research question was: How is academic leadership concerning teaching and learning understood and practised in selected TTCs of Eswatini?

The sub-questions of this inquiry were:

1. What are the perspectives of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two selected TTCs regarding the academic leadership role of college leaders in teaching and learning?
2. How do college leaders of the two TTCs create a culture of teaching and learning?
3. Which challenges do the leaders of the selected colleges experience regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning?
4. What strategies are necessary to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning at the two selected TTCs?

1.10 Aims and Objectives

Aim

The present study seeks to explore and gain an in-depth understanding of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in selected TTCs in Eswatini.

Objectives

The specific objectives of this inquiry are to:

1. Study the perspectives of principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two selected TTCs regarding the academic leadership role of college leaders in teaching and learning.
2. Solicit experiences and practices of college leaders of the two TTCs on how they create the culture of teaching and learning.
3. Examine the challenges facing these leaders regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning.
4. Find out the necessary strategies to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning at the two TTCs.

1.11 Preliminary literature review

This section presents a brief review of key concepts in the study. The study was based on the premise of academic leadership in HE. Within academic leadership, the researcher looked into the aspect of what academic leadership is, who academic leaders are, academic leadership roles, what teaching and learning in HE is, and an overview of HE. Lastly, the context of the study was described briefly.

1.11.1 Academic leadership

While academic leadership refers to leadership in an academic setting or educational institution (Karadag, 2017; Saroyan, Getahum & Gebre, 2011), the term has other definitions from different scholars. Joyce and O'Boyle (2013) academic leadership incorporates the core functions of teaching and learning, research and scholarship with a broader focus on academic values and identity. Siddique et al. (2011) describe it based on the leadership roles of an academic leader: research leadership, educational leadership, and administration leadership. Bradley et al., (2017) are of the view that academic leadership involves carrying out the institutional strategic vision while supporting the development of intellectual authority and a shared identity that fosters collegiality. For this study, academic leadership was conceptualised as the role of formally appointed leaders in their academic functions as opposed to an administrative function in supporting teaching and learning.

1.11.2 Academic leaders

Scholars have diverse opinions regarding who academic leaders are. Universities in North-American recognise two major categories of leaders namely administrative leaders and collegial leaders (Gurung, 2014). Administrative leaders include a chancellor or a president who leads with Associate or vice chancellors and Provosts or Vice presidents below them, and these are in charge of running a university. Collegial leaders are department chairs who are appointed for a limited time, they are appointed from faculty members and are voted for. Collegial leadership assume administrative responsibilities for that particular assigned period (Gurung, 2014).

Some American and Australian literature describe academic leaders as those in formal positions. For instance, Pate and Angell (2013) describe academic leaders as any

person with a supervisory capacity. In the United Kingdom, Bolden et al. (2012) and Evans (2017) describe academic leaders as informal leaders such as mentors and supervisors who play a supportive development role or empowerment. Bolden et al. (2012) suggest that leadership can be formal (from those holding managerial positions) or informal (faculty members who influence the core functions of universities). Bryman (2007) adds that HE leadership is at the department and institutional level. The current study focused on formal leaders that is, those appointed in leadership positions at the departmental level (HODs) and institutional level (principals and vice principals).

1.11.3 Academic leadership role

Views on academic leadership roles vary. Broadly, Bush (2015) claims that academic leaders are responsible for the evolution and growth of institutions of education. In the current globally competitive arena, academic leaders are the key centre of the whole process of HE. They have to create a vision, support the strategies, and act as catalysts for developing and retaining the workforce to move the organization forward (Bush, 2015). Successful leaders are expected to engage with staff and other stakeholders to produce higher levels of commitment towards achieving the goals of the organization which, in turn, are linked to the vision (Bush, 2015).

At the level of an institution of higher education, academic leaders are also responsible for ensuring a culture of higher levels of ethical values (Singh & Purohit, 2011). Given the critical role played by leadership in the success, mediocrity, or failure of an organization (Gigliotti & Ruben, 2017) as well as the unique features of HE leadership, induction of leaders in the sector becomes even paramount not only for the organization and the people the leaders serve but also to the individual to prevent being replaced. However, academic leadership roles are not succinct; they are broadly defined without clearly articulating the role of each leadership position in the organisational hierarchy. This presents a literature gap, thus this study sought to understand the academic leadership roles of leaders in TTCs.

1.11.4 Teaching and Learning in Higher Education

Teaching and learning is one of the core functions of HEIs (Joyce & O'Boyle, 2013). However, less priority is given to teaching and learning since mostly, the promotion criteria in HE is based on research. The changing HE context demands focus on teaching and learning due to the demand for skilled labour and qualified staff, diverse students accessing HE as well as students paying for themselves.

Higher Education is changed by factors including increased enrolments, internationalisation of education, and wider prior experiences of students (Fry, Ketteridge, Marshall, 2009). These influence modes of study and delivery hence there is an increased scrutiny regarding quality and standards. The expectation is to prepare students for the world of work (Fry et al, 2009). With the advancement in technology, HE has adopted many new strategies of teaching and learning, some are dubbed e-learning while others are referred to as blended learning, whatever the case, they are all referred to as technology-enhanced learning (Kirkwood & Price, 2013).

Scott & Scott, (2011) posit that some institutions of HE use poor methods or inadequately prepare staff to teach effectively. This is caused by the fact that in such cases, much emphasis, focus and resources are allocated towards preparing scholars for research. Teaching in HE depends on how the teachers have been taught (Scott & Scott, 2011). Subsequently, excellence in teaching and learning in HE is rarely rewarded as a scholarly activity than its research counterpart.

1.11.5 Higher Education

The Encyclopaedia Britannica defines Higher Education (HE) as any of various types of education given in post-secondary institutions of learning and usually afforded at the end of a course of study, a named degree, diploma, or certificate of higher studies. Higher educational institutions (HEIs) include not only universities and colleges but also various professional schools that provide preparation in such fields as law, theology, medicine, business, music, and art. HE also includes teacher-training schools, junior colleges, and institutes of technology (Sparks, 2017). This study focuses on teacher training colleges.

Higher education institutions - most prominently universities have three functions in total. Apart from education, these functions are research and contribution towards to development of society (Kirkwood & Price, 2013). The study focused on the function of education and is referred to as teaching and learning in this study.

1.12 Theoretical framework

The study employed the Leadership for Learning (LfL) theory. LfL seeks to link leadership and learning. The concept of leadership for learning integrates instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and shared leadership. Instructional leadership put teaching and learning at the centre (Erszlu & Saklan, 2016) while shared leadership concerns the sharing or distribution of leadership. Given that this study focused on leadership by principals, vice principals and HODs, it was based on shared leadership. Lastly, the transformational leadership element links with academic leadership.

Historically, academic leadership was developed based on transformational leadership (Ramsden, 1998). Ramsden argues that academic leadership is about what the leader does in the context of academia. Hence the study examines the academic leadership roles of college leaders and how they influence teaching and learning. Ramsden continues to stress the importance of perceptions of colleagues in the context (Ramsden, 1998). Furthermore, Ramsden links academic leadership to teaching and learning (Ramsden, 1998).

Likewise, this study seeks to explore leadership roles which are linked to instructional leadership while shared leadership is the leadership by principals, vice principals and HODs. Lastly, the transformational leadership aspect is academic leadership. Therefore, LfL enables the exploration of academic leadership by college leaders in teaching and learning.

1.13 Research design and methodology

This section presents a brief discussion of the research philosophy driving this study and the approach that this study adopts. It also highlights the research design that was selected for answering the research questions. This section further summarises the sampling procedure and the instruments that were utilised for the study.

1.13.1 Research paradigm

This study employed the interpretivist paradigm. A paradigm is a belief system that guides the way things are done or the philosophical motivation for undertaking a study (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). The main endeavour in the context of an interpretivist paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience. The interpretivist paradigm begins with individuals and sets out to understand their interpretations of the world around them (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). This study, therefore, used the interpretivist paradigm to gain an in-depth understanding of academic leadership in teaching and learning from the perspectives and experiences of participants that were leaders and those that were led or affected by the leadership in the two colleges under study.

1.13.2 Research approach

This study, in line with its research philosophy, utilised a qualitative approach to address the research questions. Qualitative research approaches are well suited to investigate the meanings, interpretations, social and cultural norms and perceptions that impact learning, educational practice and educational outcomes (deVaus, 2001). Qualitative research also allows researchers to explore issues from the perspectives of the individuals directly involved (Crano & Brewer, 2002). This study explored and got deeper insights into how the principals, vice principals and HODs in two TTCs understood and experienced their academic leadership role in teaching and learning. The study further investigated how lecturers and students viewed academic leadership by leaders of the colleges.

1.13.3 Research strategy

The research strategy for this study is the qualitative case study. According to Creswell (2014), a case study design refers to all the strategies used to make a study in a systematic, coherent and logical manner. It is an exploratory kind of inquiry that provides an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon of interest in its natural life context. A case study is mostly used to explore a phenomenon in-depth and in its natural context hence it is a naturalistic design (Crowe, Creswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery & Sheikh, 2011). Therefore, the case study allowed the researcher to effectively

address the research problem. The research strategy also contributed to the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data.

Additionally, a case study is an intensive study of an individual unit of interest (Stewart, 2014). The unit of study is academic leadership from the experiences of college leaders, lecturers and students in two TTCs in Eswatini. According to Stewart (2014), what constitutes the unit or case is at the discretion of the researcher. A case study research may have single or multiple sites (Stewart, 2014). The present study was a multiple-site case study since two teacher training colleges were investigated. The sites selected in this case enabled the researcher to fully examine the issues, problems and concerns faced in the phenomenon under study.

1.13.4 Selection of setting and participants

1.13.4.1 Selection of setting

Eswatini has two main types of TTCs namely; government-funded also referred to as public as well as private colleges. There are three government teacher training colleges, although one of the colleges is a TVET that comprises a teacher training element through the Faculty of Education. On the other hand, several private teacher training colleges exist. The researcher chose two government TTCs due to the following reasons: they are both government colleges; have similar governance; have similar organisational structure; offer similar programmes, both are affiliated to the same institution; they are mainly focusing on teacher training. The two selected colleges had been operating for more than three decades. These two colleges had a fundamental role in education service delivery of producing teachers for Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD), primary and secondary level and completely supported by the government. The selected colleges had a direct bearing on quality teaching and learning that affect the school system in Eswatini (Mahlalela, 2017).

One of the colleges was the largest producer of primary teachers and ECCD teachers with an enrolment of approximately 1200 students while the other was the only government college producing secondary teachers. The latter also produced primary school teachers with an enrolment of approximately 550.

1.11.4.1 Selection of participants

Non-probability purposive sampling procedures were employed when selecting participants for the study. According to Saunders (2012), non-probability sampling is based on the researcher's judgement regarding those the population's characteristics that are important concerning data required to address the research aim. Creswell, (2007) describes purposive sampling as non-probability sampling based on a conscious decision by the researcher where he/she selects individuals or institutions that would provide the information enquired in the research.

The sample size was 34 participants. Seventeen participants were selected from each college comprising the principal, vice principal, three HODs, six lecturers and four students. When conducting a qualitative case study, the sample size should be sufficient to provide maximum insight into what is being studied (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010).

To ensure that rich information was collected from the participants, a purposeful criterion sampling strategy was employed. Criterion sampling is a strategy selected by researchers to identify information-rich cases for investigation based on set criteria (Emmel, 2013). In this study, the most important criteria were leadership, and teaching and learning. The researcher was interested in participants who had direct contact or involvement in leadership. For instance, the following criteria were: for college leaders who occupied a leadership position. For HODs, experience and gender were factored into selecting the participants. Students ought to have been in their final year of study, and members of the Student Representative Council (SRC) were preferred. SRC was in direct contact with the administration and HODs.

Saunders (2012) asserts that when conducting qualitative research, part of the process requires that the researcher be granted access. This researcher sought permission to conduct this research in the selected colleges in writing to the Director of the Ministry of Education and Training, four weeks before data collection. Once granted the researcher the researcher used the Director's consent to gain entry to the principals of the two colleges. Further, they requested permission to collect data from

the principals of the colleges in writing. The permission from the Director of Education was utilised to gain entry and collect data from the selected participants.

1.13.5 Data collection

The data were collected from November 2020 to January 2021. During this phase, the researcher used individual semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis to answer the research questions. The purpose of collecting data through the aforementioned three different instruments is called 'data triangulation' and is intended to contrast the data and 'validate' it to establish if it yields similar findings. The weaknesses of each of these instruments can be strengthened by using a combined approach to a given problem. Triangulation involves cross-checking data using multiple data sources or multiple data-collection procedures (Anney, 2014). Triangulation, in this researcher's estimation, enabled her to understand the academic leadership roles of the college leaders from different perspectives, how they influenced the culture of teaching and learning and lastly the challenges facing leadership and strategies to enhance leadership of teaching and learning.

1.11.5.1 Semi-structured interviews

The data were collected using individual semi-structured interviews from the principals, vice principals and HODs of the two colleges. Marvasti (2004), recommends that semi-structured interviews guide the interview. Semi-structured interviews are more relaxed and conversational styles of interviewing that facilitate in-depth understanding and reciprocity of exchange (Harper & Thompson, 2012).

The researcher chose semi-structured interviews because they allowed her to probe more details regarding the issue that was being investigated at hand. Also, the researcher was particularly interested in eliciting the in-depth views of the college leaders. Apart from college leaders' background information, open-ended questions were utilised to elicit information from research participants.

To gain access to the participants, the researcher initiated contact, negotiated and got entrance through permission sought from the Director of education then the principals

of the colleges. According to Bengry (2018), access can be obtained through institutional gatekeepers. In this study, college principals were gatekeepers.

The participants comprised two principals; two vice principals and six HODs. The researcher informed the participants about the research and further sought consent from the identified participants in writing. Bengry (2018) asserts that participants must be informed about the study and provide consent.

The interviews were conducted during working hours in the respective college's offices, where participants felt comfortable. Each interview session lasted between forty-five minutes and one hour. The interviews were audio-recorded upon getting consent from the participants. In total, ten (10) participants were interviewed from both colleges on different dates and times preferred by the participants.

1.11.5.2 Focus group interviews

After completing the interviews, two focus group interviews were held in each college, making a total of four focus group interviews. One of the groups comprised both senior lecturers and lecturers. The other group of participants was made up of students who were registered in the colleges. Morgan and Hoffman (2018) claim that focus groups allow group integration to produce qualitative data. This method has several advantages: it complements individual interviews; provides insights into what participants think and why they think the way they do; reveals a variety of different perspectives and experiences of participants (Morgan & Hoffman, 2018). Morgan and Hoffman (2018) further suggest 5 to 10 people for a focus group. Each session had a minimum of five participants who were selected. The focus group was one hour to 1.5 hours. Throughout the interview sessions, the researcher was a moderator.

The researcher chose focus groups as one of her methods for the collection of data because group discussions taking place in settings participants are familiar with would help them to explore the issue of academic leadership comprehensively. For this study, the focus group was utilized to complement the individual interview and investigate the extent of both consensus and diversity among the groups. The interview guide comprised questions on participants' understanding of academic

leadership roles, their perceptions of academic leadership in their colleges and suggestions to enhance academic leadership.

Focus groups are very valuable in this situation where the researcher had only a limited amount of time to gather data from the two settings. Focus groups are also seen by many researchers as creating a safe environment for the sharing of experiences and for facilitating participation in research (Robinson,2019).. Using the focus group after the interview further enhanced the validity and reliability of the data collected from individual interviews.

1.11.5.3 Document analysis

The study utilized document analysis. Document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning to the topic being studied (O’Leary, 2014). Bowen (2008) supports that document analysis applies to case study research.

Two official college official documents were utilized, these are strategic plans and the college almanac or calendar of activities. Nieuwenhuis (2016) claims that official documents are primary sources of data. The study used these documents on strategic plans as well as calendar activities to seek convergence and corroborate findings.

1.13.6 Data analysis and interpretation

The thematic analysis approach, as recommended by Braun and Clarke (2013), was employed in the analysis of data generated in this study. After the collection of data by recording, each recording was played back several times and transcribed. The transcribed data were read over and over to get the researcher familiar with the data.

The researcher looked for themes that emerged in order to find relationships among concepts. After the researcher got familiar with the information constituting data, she created codes and subsequently created themes out of the codes. The researcher refined the themes until she was satisfied that they represented the opinions of the research participants. A summary of the themes was presented as recommended by

Braun and Clarke (2013) where “thick descriptions” were presented using verbatim quotations from the participants.

1.13.7 Trustworthiness and credibility

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) outline four measures of trustworthiness in qualitative research namely credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. Apart from these four, Lincon and Guba (1985) mention reflexivity. Hence, the following procedures were employed to ensure trustworthiness.

1.11.7.1 Credibility

To ensure internal consistency, three methods of data collection: individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis were used. The questions asked during the individual interviews and in the focus group interviews covered the objectives of the study. Furthermore, the researcher used member checking to eliminate bias when analysing and interpreting the results.

1.11.7.2 Dependability

If the findings of the study are to be dependable, they must be consistent and accurate (Anney, 2014). For this study, dependability was ensured by using an audit trail by providing detailed descriptions of all procedures, how data were collected, recorded and analysed and any changes were recorded and justified. The researcher also kept notes during data collection, for reflective thoughts and decisions being made. Also, they coded the data twice to see if the findings were consistent.

1.11.7.3 Confirmability

Research studies are judged by how their findings and conclusions achieve the aim and are not the result of the researcher’s prior assumptions and preconceptions. When reporting and interpreting the findings of this study, the researcher cited the participants’ verbatim quotes to support each theme. Also, the discussions were based on literature and theoretical framework. Lastly, the researcher checked if all the findings answered all the research questions.

1.11.7.4 Transferability

Transferability replaces the notion of external validity. For this study, the researcher had no interest to generalise rather to explore and gain in-depth data on academic leadership. Furthermore, they made sure the context of the study was so well described that findings were specific to the context of the colleges and other contexts with similar attributes. To further ensure transferability, the researcher provided thick descriptions of research processes including methods, data collection processes of the study, including sampling methods. The researcher also described all the participants of the study.

1.11.7.5 Reflexivity

According to Lincon and Guba (1985), reflexivity is a process of critical self-reflection about oneself as a researcher which eliminates biases, preferences and preconceptions. The researcher is familiar with the TTCs because she has work experience as a senior lecturer in one of the colleges under study. There was, therefore, the possibility of making participants uncomfortable. The practitioner-researcher position is valuable in developing practice insights also it may bring assumptions and biases which have ethical implications (Reid, Brown, Smith, Cope & Jameson, 2018). As a result, to ensure the authenticity of the results, the researcher remained objective and unbiased. This was achieved through having a debriefing session before collecting the data. She explained that the data would only be utilised for the study and that she would be collecting the data as a researcher but not as a staffer of the college. Additionally, to avoid diluting findings, while on the field, the researcher took notes strictly reflecting the participants' opinions. Also, thoughts and actions associated with the research process were recorded. All the interviews and focus group sessions were audio-recorded to ensure accurate capture of participants' responses. Lastly, the researcher maintained an open, truthful and honest interaction with participants.

1.13.8 Ethical considerations

When conducting research that involves humans as subjects, Babbie (2011) emphasises the importance of ethics. In this research, ethical issues were considered and addressed and they involved: securing an *Ethical clearance* from the Ethics committee at the University of South Africa (UNISA). To secure it, the researcher

submitted an ethical clearance research form for approval to the UNISA Ethics Committee explaining the purpose of the study and procedures to be followed when collecting data. After going through it, ethical clearance was obtained from the committee.

Permission and Access - To gain access to the participants, permission was sought from the Director of Education in the Ministry of Education and Training of Eswatini, including the principals of the two colleges where data were collected, and subsequently the research participants were consulted. A request letter was written to the Director (Appendix B). A letter of permission was obtained from the Director of Education (Appendix C). The permission letter was utilised to gain access to the two colleges.

Informed consent - The researcher considered the ethical norm of voluntary participation and no harm to participants. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, why it was important, the potential risks as well as benefits as suggested by Toepoel (2017). Consent forms (Appendix E) were filled out by participants before interviews and focus group interviews respectively. Brooks, Reiele and Maguiere (2015) suggest that voluntary participation is crucial in research. So participants that were not willing were excluded from the study. The data were collected during the participants' convenient time and location that had been mutually agreed on. Participants were given the liberty to withdraw from participating in the study at any time as advised by (Thomas & Hodges, 2013).

Protection of identity - confidentiality, anonymity and privacy should be ensured (Toepoel, 2017). The researcher assured participants of confidentiality and guaranteed anonymity. For confidentiality, the participants were verbally assured that personal information would not be disclosed to the public and nobody would access the data apart from the researcher. Anonymity was ensured and the researcher would not reveal the identity of participants. Pseudonyms were used for colleges. Selected participants were coded for purposes of anonymity. Lastly, for privacy, the participants were allowed to choose how much information they wanted to reveal.

1.13.9 Limitations and delimitations of the study

1.11.9.1 Limitations

At the time of the research, the researcher was an employee in one of the colleges under investigation. This might filter the results and might intimidate some of the participants. As a researcher, she had to be conscious of the dual role of being a researcher and college officer. She followed the research plan and instruments outlined. I was conscious of protocols. To reduce coercion, especially with students, she contacted them prior and invite them to participate in the study. The researcher asked them to complete the consent forms detailing the purpose of the research and its importance. She guaranteed anonymity and gave the liberty to participants to choose to participate or not to participate in the study.

Triangulation was used to reduce bias. Simon (2012) suggests it concerns documenting what a person thinks and feels to control subjectivity. Hence this researcher kept a journal and recorded her thoughts and feelings.

Another limitation was the use of only two colleges. This limits generalisability. The researcher argues that the study was not designed to generalise but to explore and get an in-depth understanding of academic leadership of teaching and teaching in two colleges with similar functions. Therefore, the findings illuminate issues which can improve professional practice and expand provide research opportunities.

1.11.9.2 Delimitations

The study focused on exploring the academic leadership role of college leaders concerning teaching and learning in two government TTCs in Eswatini. It further examined the perspectives of lecturers and students regarding the academic leadership roles in teaching and learning in the two colleges. It also investigated the challenges facing academic leadership as well as how these challenges are addressed.

1.14 Scope of the study

This study was conducted to explore academic leadership of teaching and learning in two government TTCs in Eswatini. It was a multiple-site case study of two government teacher training colleges.

1.15 Chapter outline

The study was organised into six chapters, described as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction and overview of the study

This chapter provided background information about the origin of the topic being researched. Also, the problem statement leading to the rationale for the study, together with the objectives of the study, preliminary literature, theoretical framework as well as highlights of research design and methodology were included.

Chapter 2: A review of the literature

Literature was synthesized and critiqued to substantiate the ideas discussed in this chapter as well as previous related studies.

Chapter 3: Theoretical framework

This chapter presents the theoretical framework of the study. The chapter also highlights previously done similar studies on the topic being studied. The different theories, influencing the main ideas (theoretical framework) of this study, were discussed in line with the academic leadership in teaching and learning.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

This chapter provides a detailed description of philosophy, research design, and process of data collection, with their justifications. The special focus was on case study research. The chapter further describes the setting and participants selection, sample size, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, and how the credibility and trustworthiness of the instruments and data were ensured.

Chapter 5: Analysis of the data

This chapter reports on the findings of the research process and the analysis of the data, as well as the meaning attached to the analysed data.

Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions, and recommendations

Chapter 6 presents a summary of the research findings, conclusions and recommendations.

1.16 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the orientation of this study which began with the introduction and was followed by then the historical background of the context of the study. Bearing in mind the significant role played by HE in economic development and the role of academic leadership, the background highlighted a brief history of the government's TTCs which is of central focus in the study. The study identified a research gap in academic leadership in teaching and learning. The study sought to explore and gain an in-depth understanding of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in selected TTCs. The purpose is further clarified by the sub-research question and objectives. The chapter further stated the preliminary literature, theory and research design and methodology to achieve the objectives. It was then concluded with a brief description of the next chapters of the study. The next chapter presents detailed literature on the main concepts, namely; academic leadership, academic leaders, higher education, academic leadership role, teaching and learning in higher education as the context of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a detailed literature review related to the study. According to Faryadi (2018), a literature review is a summary of the critical appraisal of related studies by scholars that support a problem statement. *Review* means revisiting existing knowledge to find answers, and *view* new knowledge or the latest findings related to the topic. Literature strengthens claims being made in the study and gives a chance to create new knowledge in support of other researchers or to disapprove of some of their findings (Faryadi, 2018).

The present study seeks to explore and gain in-depth insights into how college leaders (principals, vice principals, Heads of Departments) understood and experienced their academic leadership role, and what practices they engaged in to improve teaching and learning in selected Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs) in Eswatini. The study also covered perspectives of lecturers and students, regarding academic leadership by these college leaders of the selected TTCs. Therefore, this chapter discusses the concept of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in the Higher Education (HE) context.

The chapter begins by defining academic leadership, followed by literature on academic leadership roles concerning teaching and learning and teaching and learning in HE. Other aspects covered include; academic leadership challenges in HE as well as strategies to mitigate challenges facing academic leadership. Along with the discussions, the chapter identifies research gaps. Lastly, the chapter provides a general description of the context of the study concerning leadership and teaching and learning.

2.2 Definition of academic leadership

Academic leadership is a differently conceptualised phenomenon. The term academic leadership was first coined by Ramsden in 1994 (Nguyen, 2015; Siddique, Aslam, Khan & Fatima, 2011). Ramsden defines academic leadership concerning the functions of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) such as leadership in teaching,

research, goal setting and vision, communication and inspiring others. Since then, various definitions of academic leadership have emerged. Broadly, academic leadership is leadership in an academic setting or educational institution (Karadag, 2017; Saroyan, Getahum & Gebre, 2011). In this case, academic institutions include all institutions that provide some form of academic instruction. These include schools, professional training institutions, and tertiary institutions (Sorayan et al., 2011). Academic leadership literature is predominant in Higher Education (HE). The present study focuses on academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Teacher Training Colleges (TTCs), which is in the HE context, subsequently, academic leadership from the HE context is reviewed.

Higher Education (HE) is evolving from static and traditional behaviour due to international, national and internal environmental changes (Iordache-Platis, 2017). Such changes include among others, technological advancement, globalisation, and internationalisation education as well as reduced state funding. These changes bring forth a especial focus on academic leadership in HE (Siddique, et al, 2011). In the changing academic environment, a variety of definitions of the academic leadership construct are offered. Available literature suggests several ways of understanding academic leadership as a *person, position, role and as process*.

2.2.1 Academic leadership as a person

As a person, academic leadership focuses on the identities or traits, attributes, and abilities or capabilities of the leader (Pani, 2017; Drugus & Landoy, 2014; Pate & Angell, 2013; Saroyan et al, 2011). Several scholars define academic leadership as a person. For instance, as traits or identities - Pate and Angell (2013: 4) disclose that important traits in academic leadership include communication skills, sound decision-making, work ethics like delegation, teamwork/collaboration, flexibility, role-modelling, recognition of achievement, motivation, support for staff development and caring.

Still on traits, Hamidifar and Ebrahimi (2016) affirm that academic leadership entails traits such as credibility, inspiration, possessing knowledge, skills, abilities, and

experience to lead others, adaptability to change, selflessness, openness, support, fairness, valuing others and provide developmental opportunities.

Building on the above definition, Saroyan et al (2011) describe academic leadership as professionals who are pioneers in their discipline and recognised by peers as being leaders. Similarly, Berg and Jarbur (2014) view academic leadership as attributes such as inspiring others, role-modelling, being decisive, visionary, futuristic, handling finances and enabling others to succeed. The latter two definitions imply that academic leadership pertains to people who influence the institution and might not necessarily hold a formal position.

Defining academic leadership as traits suggests that academic leadership simply means characteristics possessed by individuals. This definition provides a base for discussing academic leadership. Traits seen in the individual could be dependent on a context and perhaps how they relate to the people observing the trait. Furthermore, Drugus and Landoy (2014) view leadership in terms of capabilities. They highlight that leaders are capable of guiding students; creating a vision that they communicate to them; they are self-confident and in turn, inspire confidence; they have enough experience; more competent; they find the leadership activity interesting and challenging.

In the field of education, students preparing for real-life need a model they can follow. A member of the teaching staff displaying leadership qualities can be one (Drugus & Landoy, 2014). This definition encompasses the elements of competencies identified with leaders. This researcher has observed that in a majority of adverts for an academic leadership position, requirements for such positions include some of the competencies listed above. However, defining academic leadership by capabilities may not translate into effective leadership. Therefore, viewing academic leadership as a person is insufficient.

2.2.2 Academic leadership as a process

Some scholars define academic leadership as a process that entails various mechanisms and interactions in a group or a team, a system or an organisation. For instance, Bolden, Gosling, O'Brien, Ryan and Haslma (2012) describe academic

leadership as a process through which academic values and identities are constructed, promoted and maintained. Similarly, Saroyan et al (2011) assert that academic leadership is shared by people at all levels and is distributed in nature. This implies that academic leadership is a practice that involves how people relate to the institution and perhaps how they view themselves. Likewise, Bradley, Grice and Paulsen (2017:100) define 'academic leadership as a distributed practice of carrying out the institutions' strategic vision while supporting the development of intellectual authority and a shared identity that fosters collegiality'.

Certainly, viewing academic leadership as a process suggests that academic leadership is not confined to officers in leadership positions but it is a shared responsibility. Furthermore, academics look at leadership as the construction of their identity as well as the development and maintaining values. As a shared and distributed practice, academic leadership stresses that everyone has an important role to play in academic leadership practice. However, such processes are not clear and precise; thus a gap remains in what this academic leadership entails.

2.2.3 Academic leadership as a position

Detsky (2011) views academic leadership as a position. Similarly, Pate and Angell (2013) define academic leadership as any position with supervisory capacity. As a position, academic leadership calls for the formal structures and hierarchy (Hendrickson, Lane, Harris, Richard & Dorman 2013) and this implies employing an appropriate candidate (Gurung, 2014). Typically in HE, academic leaders are department chairs or heads of departments (HODS), deans, chancellors, vice-chancellors, provost and presidents (Nguyen, 2015), who hold positions for a specified term of office, usually three years (Gurung, 2014). In universities, the academic leadership positions are customarily given to senior professors. While in the Eswatini TTCs, these leaders are principals, vice-principals, and HODs who are appointed on a permanent basis based on their teaching qualification and experience.

Views are varied within the notion of academic leadership as a position. For instance, Kelly (2010a) argues that leadership is not limited to people in certain positions. Hence leadership is not positional power but the power of influence. Kelly (2010a) further argues that all people have influence, suggesting that leadership is a shared activity

amongst academics, that is, they have an impact on others. The only difference is that positional leaders have more influence because of access to information due to functions they are engaged in (Kelly, 2010a). To support this argument, McInnis, Ramsden and Maconachie (2012) contend that leadership in HE is not a title or a position. All academics should recognise and understand they are role models for their student population and understand the impact of their behaviours and actions (McInnis et al, 2012). Being a role model suggests that a person has an influence. Evans (2017) concurs that in HE setting academic leadership is usually associated with formal senior managerial posts, but people in non-managerial posts can undertake academic leadership.

Additionally, academic leadership refers to those in leadership positions in HE throughout the organisational hierarchy to department and programmes (Wiley, 2014:39). Wiley (2014) further describes academic leadership as institutional (vice-chancellor), intermediary leadership positions through a hierarchy to a local level of individual departments and programmes and subjects level (programme director) in teaching and learning and research. Wiley's definition brings forth the function or role of an academic leader. Hence, the next subsection describes academic leadership as a role.

2.2.4 Academic leadership as a role

Some scholars view academic leadership as a role. These scholars have varied opinions regarding academic leadership as a role. For instance, Joyce and O'Boyle (2013) allude that academic leadership incorporates the core academic functions of teaching and learning, research and scholarship together with a broader focus on academic values and identity. In short, Joyce and O'Boyle view academic leadership as a role or function of a leader. Likewise, Siddique et al. (2011) describe academic leadership based on the roles of the leader. They define the academic leadership roles as research, education and administration. Notably, these roles are too broad, that is they are highly ambiguous, more especially because they do not translate to the day-to-day duties such as teaching and learning.

On another note, academic leadership roles are context-dependent. For instance, in the American and Australian setting academic leadership denotes formal leadership and management roles within HE such as deans, HODs, and graduate school directors, while in the United Kingdom (UK) it is informal, such as mentoring and role modelling (Evans, 2015). In the UK, academic leadership is not people in academic leadership roles (Bolden et al., 2012) and is associated with professors (Evan, 2015). Interestingly, in the UK, academic leadership is viewed as both a person and a role, hence the emphasis on professors and the influence they have in the institution. Evans (2015) examined the academic leadership role of university professors, they perceived their role as associated with administrative roles, supporting and mentoring others.

Ayee (2014) points out that academic leadership in Africa is perceived to be professors or leadership positions that include vice chancellor/president, pro-vice-chancellor/vice president, college provost, academic deans, and HODs /department chairs. Ayee further claims that academic leadership in Africa is underexplored; hence the roles of academic leaders remain uncertain. Worth noting is that in the African context, academic leadership is associated with the position and the role related to that particular position. Ultimately, the definitions that emphasize academic leadership as a role performed by leaders in formal positions within academic institutions suit the current study.

Literature broadly defines academic leadership without particular attention to teaching and learning. Contrary to that, Joyce and O'Boyle (2013) claim that teaching and learning is a core function of any higher education institution. Therefore, this presents a research gap. In that regard, the current study focuses on academic leadership specifically, concerning teaching and learning function. Therefore, literature on academic leadership in teaching and learning is presented in the next section.

2.3 Academic leadership in teaching and learning

About teaching and learning, academic leadership is described as a 'continuous act of all constituents of an academic institution to accomplish its mission and to provide the best educational experience for students' (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010:74).

Undoubtedly, this explanation recognises all those involved in teaching and learning, whether in a leadership position or not, as well as how they influence student learning.

On a similar note, Saroyan et al (2011) describe academic leadership as anything a faculty member or an administrative leader or even a professional support person does to improve student teaching. While Saroyan et al (2011) and Pelonis and Gialamas (2010) share the same sentiment regarding academic leadership, the definition by Saroyan et al is silent on student learning, it mainly focuses on the teaching function of an academic institution. These two definitions suit the present study, with the exception that the current study focuses on formally appointed leaders.

From the above definitions, it is evident that academic leadership is highly regarded in HE, yet it is a differently conceptualised construct. However, it is generally accepted that academic leadership is predominant in HE. Also, it is widely believed that academic leadership relates to those in leadership positions. In conclusion, there is no agreed definition of academic leadership. The current study examines the academic leadership roles of college leaders (principals, vice-principals, and HODs) in teaching and learning in the TTCs, and it further examines how lecturers and students view the academic leadership of these college leaders.

All the above definitions for academic leadership suffice for the study. For this study, academic leadership was conceptualised as anything college leaders do to enhance and improve teaching and learning. Literature is silent on academic leadership in teacher training colleges, thus a need to explore academic leadership TTCs is imperative. The next subtopic describes the characteristics of academic leadership to further understand the academic leadership concept.

2.4 Characteristics of academic leadership

Literature reveals that academic leadership has its distinct characteristics when compared with leadership that exists in the corporate sector. The distinct features include autonomy, collegiality, complexity and multifaceted (Dima & Ghinea, 2016; Miller, Mamiseishvili & Lee, 2016). On another note, Anthony and Antony (2017) argue that academic leadership is not different from traditional leadership. Traditionally,

leadership is a process designed to influence a group of people to achieve a common goal (Northhouse, 2016:6). This means leadership is action-oriented, not traits or characteristics of those assuming leadership. According to Northhouse (2016), leadership is *interactive*- the leader affects and is affected by leaders; *influence*- how leaders affect followers; *groups*- contexts in which leadership takes place and lastly a *common goal*- mutual purpose. Certainly, academic leadership entails how leaders (principals, vice-principals and HODs) influence (interact) with lecturers and students in TTCs (groups) for teaching and learning (common goal). Subsequently, the study examined the perspectives of both the leaders and those led.

Anthony and Antony (2017) contend that the difference between leadership in general and academic leadership is the context - that is, the academic environment, the culture, the paradigm, and the way it evolves makes it unique and special. This suggests that academic leadership in HE is unique and not static, also it is influenced by internal and external factors and academic beliefs and values. This study focused on TTCs which are part of HE hence, this chapter further presents characteristics of academic leadership in HE, linking it with teaching and learning.

2.4.1 Autonomy and academic freedom

Higher Education academic staff value autonomy and academic freedom (Pityana, 2010). Guruz (2011) refers to autonomy as an institutional authority while academic freedom is a privilege accorded to academics in pursuit of their work. Similarly, Kori (2016) defines academic freedom as the absence of interference in the pursuit of academic work. Autonomy is context-dependent signifying that it is internally controlled by individual institutional policies.

Kori (2016) further claims that internationally, academic freedom is embedded in the right to education. This is evident in the United Nations Nations Committee on Economic Social and Cultural Rights (UNCESCR) which describes education as a human right and encompasses academic freedom. To further affirm this, in South Africa for instance, academic freedom is a constitutional right (Kori, 2016), meaning academics have a right to work without interference. It could not be established how that right is exercised in South African HE institutions.

The Eswatini Higher Education Act of 2013 allows academic freedom. According to this act, Higher Education encompasses all post-secondary institutions. Such institutions include both private and public colleges and universities. However, the government TTCs under study is governed by Government procedures like General Orders of 1985 which do not allow for academic freedom and autonomy. The government TTCs are fully controlled by the government and are guided by government procedures. This could affect the work environment in the TTCs and how leadership is executed in the TTCs.

Ren and Li (2013) further affirm that academic freedom with autonomy in HE is of central value. Fostering a climate that balances support with maintenance of autonomy seems to have particular importance for academics (Joyce & O'Boyle, 2013). This proposes that academic leadership needs to focus on instilling academic values and identities, and scholarship, rather than directing and controlling academics. However, Kori (2016) cautions that academic autonomy needs to be exercised with a sense of responsibility and accountability so that it leads to academic excellence. While academics prefer leadership with minimal supervision, there is a need to establish a balance between the institution's mission and academics' interests. Establishing the balance requires that the leader understand the nature of HE leadership.

To emphasize the need for autonomy, particularly, in teaching and learning, a study by Bellibas, Ozaslan, Gumus & Gumus (2016), revealed that HODs complained about interference of administration regarding the content of courses, hence a need for autonomy in curricular issues was expressed. This suggests a demand for autonomy and academic freedom by the HODs in their decision on the content to be taught.

In the case of Eswatini TTCs, usually, principals and vice principals, are not directly involved in teaching and learning. However, HODs are in direct contact with the lecturers and students, yet they (HODs) have little power to make and implement decisions that relate to teaching and learning. For instance, course content/ syllabus reviews are led by HODs since they are done in the respective departments. These reviews are externally approved by the Board of Affiliated (BAI) at the University of Eswatini (UNESWA), which is the board responsible for approving programmes and moderating examinations. These higher-level meetings are often attended only by

principals and vice principals. The HODs perform both teaching and leadership functions, yet their opinions do not matter when it comes to making final decisions like in the case of syllabus development and reviews.

In addition, this researcher has observed that in the TTCs, teaching is entirely left to the individual lecturers. Little or no induction or orientation exists for newly appointed lecturers, yet most are recruited directly from schools. This further necessitates the investigation of leadership for teaching and learning in the TTCs.

2.4.2 Collegiality

Collegiality encompasses consensual decision-making, shared commitment through collaboration as well as working respectfully with others (Kligyte & Barrie, 2014). This makes HE 'special' (Macfarlane, 2016:32). Collegiality means that academic leadership is characterised by shared values, vision, common cause (Otara, 2015), and collaboration (Hamidifar & Ebrahimi, 2016). Joyce & O'Boyle, (2013) claim that academic leadership is collegial- with mutual support from staff, consensus decision-making, and debate and discussion with peers as opposed to the bureaucratic controlling environment or managerialism.

Bess (1988) in Macfarlane (2016) presents three types of collegiality; namely structural, cultural and behavioural. *Structural collegiality* is about shared governance and implies inclusivity, open, democratic and transparent decision-making. *Cultural collegiality* focuses on shared values like academic freedom at an individual or department. *Behavioural collegiality* concerns relationships between academics internally and externally based on mutual respect (Macfarlane, 2016).

Academics want to be involved in decision-making suggesting participatory leadership. Leadership in HE is shared among colleagues and how colleagues relate or interact are critical aspects of academic leadership. While academics value collegiality, the researcher observed that some HEIs are highly hierarchical, that is, the senior management (chancellors, vice-chancellors, dean) have the power and authority to make key decisions for HE institutions which eventually influence the direction of the institution. While middle management (HODs and Deans) according to Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE), (2014) seem to

have little power, yet they are in direct contact with teaching and learning. This proposes that collegiality is bound to conflict with hierarchy because it would be cumbersome for HODs, for instance, to meet the expectations of their colleagues and students while implementing the institution-wide decision.

There seems to be a link between collegiality and academic leadership in teaching and learning. For instance, Palaniandy (2017) claims that collegiality enhances professional growth and development, job satisfaction and professional commitment as well as instructional quality and student performance. Palaniandy (2017) further advocates that HE leaders should promote collegial practices for instructional support. Similarly, Shah (2012) emphasises that in the era of change, collegiality is eminent because it leads to teacher professional development and consequently higher-quality instruction. Shah (2012) goes on to stress that it helps teachers cope with emerging teaching and learning challenges.

2.4.3 Academic values

Academic leadership emphasises academic values and identities. Academics highly respect academic values, particularly research. Normally, HEIs have three key functions that compete; namely research, teaching and community service. Quinlan (2014) claims that teaching and learning in HE receives less attention than research, consequently, a need for the study exist. McInnis et al (2012) argue that the prominence of research in HE is due to promotion and appointments in HE that are based on research but not on teaching. These values have implications for leadership recruitment, thus most leaders in HE are professors. Most academic leaders, particularly in universities are professors because they are appointed based on academic credentials rather than managerial skills and experiences (Geschwind, Aarrevaara, Berg & Lind, 2019).

From observation, commonly, in universities, the professorship is research-based as opposed to teaching and learning. While this is true for most universities including those of Eswatini like UNESWA, where TTCs are affiliated, the arrangement in TTCs differs. According to Government general orders of 1985 Article 108, the appointments are based on seniority. Meaning, a person who has served for more years in a certain department gets promoted to a vacant leadership position. In the TTCs, the promotion

of HODs is based on seniority and has the advantage that the person has more experience in teaching and learning. However, being a senior staff member may not directly translate into leadership competency. Since promotion by seniority is a government policy practised by TTCs, it could jeopardise leadership development efforts, particularly in the absence of a clear policy supporting leadership development when assuming a leadership position in the TTCs.

While there is growing interest regarding teaching as a scholarly activity in HE, Scott and Scott (2011) observe preparation for teaching at HE is limited. The tendency in HE is to prepare scholars for research. Most postgraduate degrees are research-based. Consequently, teaching in HE depends on how the teachers have been taught (Scott & Scott, 2011), and this puts them at a disadvantage in preparedness to perform their teaching.

For effective teaching, one must understand how students learn and see their needs (Cendon, 2018). Currently, how teachers in HE teach is informed by the experience that they had with their teachers when they were students, for this reason, they repeat old teaching schemes (Solis, 2015). Academic teaching practice depends on the thoughts and beliefs of the teaching staff about teaching and student learning as well as the teaching context (Nguyen, 2016).

Regarding teaching and learning, Dima & Ghinea (2017) contends that academic leadership contributes essentially to the improvement of quality teaching and learning by influencing values, which are stimulated by leadership. In addition, leaders have an influence on staff which in turn has a direct influence on students (Leithwood & Levin, 2010). This indicates that academic leadership has an influence on teaching and learning, although the direction of influence is unclear. Therefore, a huge gap exists in how academic leadership influences teaching and learning.

2.4.4 Complexity

Academic leadership is complex. Ruben and Gigliotti (2017) claim that academic leadership is bureaucratic, hierarchical, multiple purposes, with various internal and external stakeholders who influence and are influenced by conflicting needs; decentralised decision-making and dependency on a variety of resources. Commonly,

HE institutions are governed and managed by rules and procedures which influence decision-making, including those of teaching and learning. These decisions are made at several levels, that is, institutional, faculty, and departmental level depending on the size of the institution.

To further explain the complexity of academic leadership, Anthony and Antony (2017) aver that academic leadership reflects a bit of institutional and departmental leadership. Institutional leadership includes senior executive roles such as vice-chancellor, presidents, and vice presidents (Black, 2015). While departmental leadership refers to HODs or departmental chairs and assistants (Hoekstra & Newton, 2017). On the other hand, Branson, Franken and Penney (2015) view departmental leadership as middle leadership, suggesting simultaneous accountability to the leader and satisfying subordinates' needs. Branson et al (2015) further assert that middle leadership is highly complex due to leadership structures, hierarchies and relations. Considering that institutional leaders make key decisions, and have more power and authority, institutional and departmental leadership roles are bound to overlap leading to role conflicts. Essentially, leadership roles in HE lack clarity.

Higher Education organisational structures are composed of sub-units. The organisational structure refers to how responsibilities and spheres of authority are divided among academic and administrative units and how coordination is realised among them (Kovats, 2018). Usually, in HEIs the organisational structures are bureaucratic. Bureaucratic systems are characterised by highly formalised rules and procedures, top-down planning and decision-making, and less consultation (Zziwa, 2014). Normally, HEIs have statutes, rules, and regulations that guide decision-making.

The size of HEI contributes to the complexity of HE leadership. As mentioned in the above paragraph, structurally HEIs are hierarchical and bureaucratic. Usually, small-scale institutions have a central bureaucracy, while the large scale has a decentralised bureaucracy, hence decisions are made at different levels. In larger institutions leadership, especially decision-making is often delegated to department or faculty heads, hence distributed amongst the subunits.

Certainly, hierarchy comes with authority, responsibility, and accountability (Zziwa, 2014). Hierarchies in HE have formal positions such as HODs, deans, and vice-chancellors with huge responsibilities whose roles, are usually not clarified. In most instances, such leadership is transitional and professorial particularly in universities, for this reason, the leaders assume the formal positions for a few years about three years (Gurung, 2014), depending on the individual institutional policy.

Academic leaders at all levels somewhat impact teaching and learning in HE. This claim is reinforced by Lăzăroiu (2013) who alleges that academic leadership, both from the top and throughout the organisation, is a central component in striving towards academic success in HE. For teaching and learning to occur, the environment must be conducive. According to Day, Gu and Sammons (2016) leadership builds an environment that supports teaching and learning.

Leaders shape work culture or institutional culture (Nica, 2013). Institutional culture is the norms, beliefs, values, and behaviours of the people (Keczer, 2014:107). Work culture determines the productivity of HE and it should be in line with the mission and vision of the institution (Bhore, 2013:68). Therefore, this study examined how college leaders influence the culture of teaching and learning in the TTCs.

Academic leaders influence the culture of students learning (Fahimirad, Idris & Kotamjani, 2016). To clarify how these leaders shape teaching and learning, Pelonis and Gialamas (2010) point out that leaders must understand how students and faculty personnel in the institution think and behave. That is, they need to listen and understand their needs and concerns. Thus this study sought the views of lecturers and staff pertaining to how college leaders influence teaching and learning.

2.4.5 Multifaceted

The diversity of stakeholders is another factor adding weight to HEIs leadership. In HEIs stakeholders are diverse and have different demands. HEIs have multiple stakeholders internally (staff and students) and externally (employers, civil society) whose needs should be satisfied. Academic leaders need to understand the roles of various groups and constituents (Morris, 2015). Students are the clients and raw

material for teaching and learning (Keczer, 2014) as well as direct beneficiaries of HE, so it is essential that HEIs focus on teaching and learning.

As mentioned earlier, lecturers demand autonomy. Satisfying their needs does not always serve their true interest (Keczer, 2014), thus finding a balance between institutional interest and staff interest may be challenging to leaders. Frequently, there is no prior preparation for such important positions (Berg & Jarbur, 2014). This indicates a need for academic leadership development.

Although Eswatini TTCs' leadership positions are assumed on permanent bases, they have similar trends of leaders assuming positions without prior training, yet they work in a complex and dynamic environment which, according to Mainardes, Alves and Raposo (2011) are highly competitive.

Adding to the complexity of Eswatini TTCs, there is substantial government interference in daily operations because the TTCs are governed by government rules and procedures. With this high demand for accountability and adherence to rules and procedures, often, college leaders tend to focus on management and administrative duties such as planning, organising, directing, coordinating, controlling, evaluating (Ibrahim, 2017) and so forth. One wonders how the leadership of teaching and learning is conceptualised and executed in the TTCs. Henceforth, there this study explores the leadership in the TTCs.

Moreover, HEIs operate within a legal framework that has effects on how they function, subsequently influencing leadership roles. In Eswatini's TTCs, the HE Act of 2013 article 6 extends the autonomy of HE. Contrary to this, the TTCs are affiliated with the UNESWA, which is also a regulatory body. They are also regulated by the Eswatini Higher Education Council. Lastly, these government institutions are regarded as government departments hence guided and controlled by government rules and procedures. Such legal frameworks influence how leadership is performed in the TTCs. The researcher observed that most of the time leaders focus on compliance with such regulations at the expense of leadership in teaching and learning.

McInnis et al. (2012) suggest the following principles for action for leaders to facilitate leadership in learning and teaching:

- Shape the strategic vision- ensure everyone including students and staff, both support and academic, understand it.
- Inspire and enable excellence- promote excellence in student learning outcomes and learning experience. Leaders should create conditions that enable staff to strive for teaching excellence.
- Devolve leadership of learning and teaching- engage staff and students with vision and its implementation and also encourage ownership. Also, create leaders for teaching and learning.
- Reward, recognise and develop teaching- explicitly reward teaching and outstanding teaching in particular as a core component of academic work.
- Involve students- increasing involvement of students enhance engagement and acknowledges students as partners and change agents in the learning experience

In conclusion, the literature asserts that academic leadership of teaching and learning in HE has distinctive features. The context in which academic leadership occurs varies, thus I further explore the academic leadership concept in practice

2.5 Academic leadership in practice

The study focuses on the understanding of leaders operating in leadership roles who draw upon their managerial authority to support their academic leadership activity. Positional leaders are charged with the responsibility of providing leadership as well as the fact that positional leadership remains popular in the academic community (Nguyen, 2015). The special focus is on the academic leadership role as opposed to the administrative leadership role. Hence this subsection presents a literature perspective on the academic leadership roles; beginning with identifying who academic leaders are, and academic leadership roles in general; lastly, the academic leadership role of principals, vice-principals and HODs.

2.5.1 Academic leaders

The literature presents varied views on what an academic leader is. For instance, Bush (2015) simply defines academic leaders as people who are responsible for the growth and evolution of all HEIs. Bush (2015) goes on to state that in the current globally competitive arena academic leaders are the kingpins of the whole process of HE.

Undoubtedly an academic leader is someone capable of working in a dynamic environment.

Generally, the literature describes academic leaders on the bases of their expected role. Academic leaders have to create the vision, support the strategies, and act as the catalysts for developing and retaining the workforce to move the organization towards the envisioned goals (Bolden, Grice & Paulsen, 2017; Hogan, 2018). Academic leaders are expected to engage with staff and other stakeholders to produce very high levels of commitment to achieving the goals of the organization which, in turn, are linked to the vision (Bush, 2015).

Furthermore, academic leaders are also responsible for ensuring the culture and a climate of high values and ethics in the institution (Singh & Purohit, 2011). They should motivate, inspire, direct, and lead faculty members towards the achievement of the shared objective (Siddique et al, 2011). Additionally, academic leaders need to act dynamically, handle multiple tasks and deal with varied people (Gigliotti & Ruben, 2017), surely, this requires a deeper understanding of what academic leaders' roles entails.

On the other hand, an academic leader is someone in a position to identify the need to change, allocate resources to actively manage and facilitate change, motivate during change and finally deliver change within HE, both at the institutional and the departmental /college level (Anthony & Antony, 2017). This definition suffices for the current study because it focuses on those in position. In this case, the academic leaders are the principals, vice principals and HODs.

2.5.2 Role of academic leaders

Diverse opinions regarding the role of academic leaders exist. Generally, academic leaders are responsible for setting institutional /departmental direction (Bush, 2015; Mukan, Havrylyuk & Stolyarchuk, 2015; Singh & Purohit, 2011), building a community of scholars, and empowering others (Bellibas, Ozaslan, Gumus, & Gumus, 2016). Academic leaders' roles include respecting existing values, sharing new values, supporting collegiality, supporting interests of academics, involvement in the life of the department/institution, influencing behaviours and attitudes towards performance,

valuing and capitalising human resources, matching responsibilities with adequate competencies, stimulate competition responsibility and performance (Dima & Ghinea, 2016).

Additionally, the role of academic leaders is to prevent and remove dissatisfiers that affect the autonomy of staff (Anthony & Antony, 2017). Such dissatisfiers include factors that are external to the job such as remuneration, working conditions, and management policies to mention a few. Other roles include staff development, scholarship, strategic planning and management, quality assurance and management, collaboration and partnership (So, 2016). Fahimirad, Idris and Kotamjani (2016) reveal that the role of academic leaders includes: setting direction, decision-making, ensuring collaboration, and compliance with policies; continuous improvement, creating research culture, managing quality assurance, managing alumni and external stakeholder engagement; managing staff appointments, budgets, external research, teaching and learning environment, student issues and managing teaching and research involvement, publishing profile and developing self. In short, academic leaders are expected to perform administrative (human and material resource management, strategic planning, and leadership functions (envisioning the institution, managing change, and influencing institutional culture).

With the changing HE environment, Koen and Bitzer (2010) observe that the role of academic leaders is expanding as never before. Similarly, Nica (2013) argues that leadership roles are changing to meet the demands of accelerated technological growth. These technological advancements are bringing change to the ways teaching and learning occur. There is a paradigm shift from the traditional chalk and blackboard, and lecture methods to blended learning approaches that integrate information technology (Radler & Bocianu, 2017). This change inevitably infers that academic leaders have to be abreast with technology. Consequently, academic leaders are now expected to power research, attract funding, manage investments, engage with policymakers, and media and train personnel (Clavien & Deiss, 2015).

Currently, there is role ambiguity in academic leadership. Besides their academic leadership role, seemingly, academic leaders are now expected to be entrepreneurial. All these changes denote a dire need for leadership development. Unquestionably,

academic leader needs to understand their role and the context they operate in. Thus this study sought to examine the academic leadership roles of principals, vice-principals and HODs in teaching and learning.

2.6 Academic leadership roles in teaching and learning

Concerning teaching and learning, Saroyan et al (2011) claim that academic leaders, should have a vision of teaching, build a community that shares information and experiences about teaching, as well as use of more student-centred pedagogies. Likewise, So (2016) contends that the role of academic leadership in teaching ranges from curriculum, evaluation and deployment leadership to quality assurance and management; development, delivery and review of quality assurance of teaching programmes; professional development; teaching and learning and professional development. Lastly, leadership promotes a collaborative culture to facilitate cooperation with other departments or schools (So, 2016). The literature revealed the following roles from diverse sources:

2.6.1 Setting direction

Setting direction means determining goals that create direction (Bellibas et al, 2016). To develop a comprehensive vision of the academic institution, a leader needs to understand the external environment (local social, economic and demographic trends) (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010). In teaching and learning, this is equivalent to situational analysis or needs assessments. The situational analysis informs the curriculum so that the HEI develop relevant courses and programmes.

From the perspective of the leadership of teaching and learning in HE, the leaders share the vision with lecturers and students to facilitate ownership and common understanding (Fahamirad et al., 2016). According to Kavar (2012), a shared understanding of the organisation's vision motivates the staff. However, Kavar (2012) points out that effective communication is the key to achieving a shared goal. Heads of institutions or departments need to have a clear vision of their institutions or department and that vision has to be shared with those involved in implementation so that it is realised. This infers that leaders need to be abreast of global trends in HE and they should have communication skills.

Apart from goal setting, Kwar (2012) claims that leaders shape institutions by setting instructions to be followed, including enrolments and pedagogy which are factors responsible for student learning. As academic leaders facilitate the mission of the institution, they need to have extensive knowledge and the ability to teach, although they are often appointed based on success in research (Detsky, 2011) rather than success in teaching. This undeniably stresses the importance of support for teaching and learning and academic leadership development.

2.6.2 Provide an enabling work environment

The environment should be conducive so that staff and students can perform at their best (Bhore, 2013). It is the role of leaders to create an enabling environment for flourishing academics in their teaching role (Herman et al, 2018). Good conditions in the organisation positively affect the performance of teachers (Kwar, 2012). Maintaining a healthy work environment greatly impacts followers' commitment to collaborative work; the level of confidence, and sense of ownership abilities to develop into the best possible teachers who can maximise student learning (Billot, West, Khong, Skorobohacz, Roxa, Murray & Gayle, 2013).

Enabling the working environment includes *working collaboratively; students and faculty involvement in departmental decision-making* (Saroyan et al, 2011); *academic freedom and administrative support* (Coates, Dobson, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2010).

2.6.2.1 Working collaboratively- A good work environment promotes dialogue, negotiation, productive relationships and interactions, and clearly defined roles responsibilities and timelines (Billot et al, 2013). According to Laksov and Tomson (2016), leaders have to create relationships amongst themselves, and then these relationships expand between teaching staff and students. This creates learning opportunities for learning as well as capacity building in teaching and learning (Laksov & Tomson, 2016).

2.6.2.2 Staff and students' involvement- Leaders develop organisations to strengthen the structures to facilitate the work of teachers. Thus, an academic leader needs to understand the dynamics of the institutions and respect the roles of the various groups and constituents. As previously mentioned, academic staff want to be involved in

decision-making and they desire autonomy. Moreover, leaders need to understand and find ways of focusing on teaching and learning, which according to Joyce & O'Boyle (2013) is a core business in HEIs, without causing tensions among teaching staff. Thus there is a need to investigate how leaders foster teaching and learning.

2.6.2.3 Administrative support- Leaders are expected to provide resources that will support teaching and learning. Leaders should ensure teaching resources infrastructure and technology are in place (Scott & Scott, 2011). Also, leaders should enhance financial resources, to bring students to reach their full potential (Bhore, 2013:68). They should manage quality teaching by creating organised teamwork, and providing support staff (Naneed & Mohsin, 2018). In some instances, structural issues like bureaucracy and hierarchy hinder leaders from providing resources that support teaching and learning.

2.6.3 Professional development

After envisioning the institution, the staff must be empowered to realise the overall vision. Academic leaders should develop skilled manpower (Durie & Beshir, 2016). So leaders need to identify and support learning (Kawar, 2012). Professional development motivates the teaching staff towards the capacity to achieve the vision of the institutions (Phillips, Bassell, Fillmore & Stephenson, 2018). Empowering others includes motivating staff towards continuous improvement of performance (Bellibas et al, 2016). This suggests that a leader should be able to provide professional development support to the teaching staff.

The success of student learning depends highly on the motivation of teachers and administrators (Kawar, 2012). Academic leaders are also responsible for motivating the staff by supporting them and meeting their needs (Mukan, Havrylyuk & Stolyarchuk, 2015). It is important for staff to be motivated and satisfied with their needs to carry their teaching job (Coates, Dobson, Edwards, Friedman, Goedegebuure & Meek, 2009). Thus leaders need to have the ability to motivate, model practice and influence subordinates to perform (Aslam, Suleman, Zulfiqar, Shafaat & Sadiq, 2014).

2.6.4 Building a community of scholars

Building a community of scholars means collaboratively developing potential among staff (Bellibas et al., 2016). Successful leaders are expected to engage with staff and other stakeholders to produce higher levels of commitment to achieving the goals of the organization which, in turn, are linked to the vision (Bush, 2015). Leaders must initiate and manage effective relationships with local institutions, community organisations, government, business and civic organisations (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010). Building relationships between staff and leaders as strong professional communities and collective work on improving instruction raise achievement (Fahamirad, Idris & Kotamjani, 2016).

2.6.5 Influence institutional culture

At the institutional level, academic leaders are responsible for ensuring a culture of high values and ethics in the institution (Singh & Purohit, 2011). Institutional culture is the norms, beliefs values, and behaviours of the people (Keczer, 2014). Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper, and Warland (2015) reveal that formal leaders influence workplace culture because they have control over opportunities for leadership development in teaching and incentives.

Also, leaders create a culture of learning (Anthony & Antony, 2017). Establishing a culture of excellence inspires trust in their leadership and energises faculty staff and students (Bashman, 2012). Leaders have to create a sustainable culture that supports faculty growth and development to bring students to rich their full potential (Bhore, 2013). Certainly, continuous learning of staff and leaders is inevitable.

Leaders influence institutional or departmental policies that may or may not favour teaching and learning. For instance, Ramsden (2007) in Scott and Scott (2011) claims that leadership promotes quality teaching. To attain this goal, academic leaders need to put policies and plans for improving quality teaching and learning initiatives. For instance, reward structures should encompass the value of teaching and learning, also recognise research on teaching and learning, and formal and informal professional development (Ramsden, 2007 in Scott & Scott, 2011).

Academic leaders should give priority to academic excellence in both research and teaching (Anthony & Antony, 2017). Students need to learn cutting-edge knowledge from academics that stimulates excellent career opportunities (Bhore, 2013), yet academics supporting learners are poorly recognised for that effort (Debowski & Darwin, 2009). Commonly, research is rewarded in HE while teaching and learning excellence are not recognised, yet both are equally important. However, in the TTCs there is no clear policy to recognise teaching and research.

Academic leaders need to inspire and guide teaching staff to reach their full potential (Phillips et al, 2018). Academic leaders should be prominent role models and oversee the continuous improvement of teaching (Darwin, 2009). Berg and Jarbur (2014) concur that the attributes of leaders include inspiring others and role modelling. Moreover, leaders are capable of role-modelling thus guiding students and inspiring confidence to students (Drugus & Landoy, 2014).

Despite the significance placed on academic leadership in HE, Bellibas et al (2016) conclude that academic leadership is an understudied phenomenon. Consequently, the literature on academic leadership roles specifically in teaching and learning is scanty. The academic leadership roles presented in this subsection lack cohesion and precision, hence it is not clear what the academic leadership roles are. Also, within the TTCs, literature is very sparse; hence this presents a literature gap. To further illuminate academic leadership roles, the next subsection discusses the academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals and HODs.

2.7 Academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals and Heads of departments

The study focused on the academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals and HODs in selected TTCs in Eswatini. Literature was gleaned and the following was found;

2.7.1 Academic leadership role of principals

Improving teaching and learning is core in colleges, yet principals in these institutions are promoted based on teaching qualifications, teaching experience as well as

experience in any educational leadership position (Savours & Keohane, 2019), as opposed to qualification and competence in educational leadership relevant to the level, that is college level in this study. Usually, such required teaching qualifications and leadership experiences are for either primary schools or high schools. This suggests a gap exists in the academic leadership development for the principals to effectively carry out their roles at the college level.

Literature reveals that as an academic leader, the principal takes decisions, and frames rules, and regulations to ensure a good work environment for teaching and learning activities and the professional development of staff. To support this claim, Bana and Khaki (2015) explored how principals understood their roles in government elementary colleges of education. Their findings indicated that as an academic leader, the principal does the following; a) Shapes the vision of academic success of all students; b) Creates a conducive environment for the growth of education; c) Inculcates leadership values among colleagues; d) Improves instruction; and lastly e) Manages people records resources and realise the goals.

Additionally, principals create an environment where teacher educators can enjoy high morale, creating an environment that encompasses producing resources and effective communication. For instance, in a study to examine the roles of principals in Colleges of Education in Maharashtra state, it was found that principals are role models; provide support to leaders, influence values, vision, communication and motivating the staff like rewarding and providing incentives (Thakur, 2014).

College principals have multiple roles. The role of principals of colleges is thought to be managerial or administration than leadership (Hossain & Mozumder, 2019). Similarly, in Pakistan government principals in elementary TTCs revealed that they see themselves as administrators- controlling teachers, scheduling classes, maintaining record books, managing financials and role models; coordinating and communicating with other institutions (Bana & Khaki, 2014). Bana & Khaki (2014) further found that principals see themselves as pedagogues involved in teaching and learning processes, helping students solve their problems, helping boost morale as well as change agents (Bana & Khaki, 2014), subsequently, their roles lack clarity.

Similarly, principals of the TTCs in Eswatini are charged with the responsibility of aligning national policies with college goals. The principals are expected to coordinate the budgets of the institutions; coordinate existing human resources most effectively and also coordinate professional development of the personnel; liaise with Industry/Schools on curriculum Innovations (Scheme of Service for Colleges, 2015). These outlined roles are mostly administrative and managerial as opposed to academic leadership.

How the principal carries his role influences the way the college function. Eswatini TTCs have a culture of compliance so the leadership roles of principals could be interpreted according to prevalent norms. For instance, the selected TTCs understudy is governed by MoET. Moreover, the TTCs are largely dependent on the government for finance and are guided by government rules and procedures. Adding to that, the TTCs are affiliated with UNESWA for accreditation. Superficially, the role of the principals is to obey the orders of the MoET and government at large as well as that of the UNESWA Board of Affiliation. With the establishment of the Eswatini Higher Education Council in 2013, it means the roles of principals are inherently swayed to further comply with ESHEC's expectations and demands for quality teaching and learning.

Self-perceptions of the principals seem to influence their role. In previous job advertisements for principals' vacancies, they are appointed in terms of experience in education and previous leadership experience which could be in a school or teacher education institution through direct appointment from the Teaching Service Commission (TSC).

The appointed principals may have been good teachers but as a result, they may not be good principals considering that there is no proper orientation or training before assuming the leadership positions in the TTCs. Even after an appointment, there are little or no opportunities for improving their leadership skills. Hence a need to investigate how the principals interpreted their leadership roles and how they were equipped to assume this responsibility.

Literature is scarce regarding the leadership role of principals of TTCs in teaching and learning. In Eswatini, the Scheme of Service for Colleges (2015) does provide a base

of what is expected of principals, mostly in teaching and learning. However, most of the listed duties are administrative and managerial, thus their leadership role is unclear. This presents a literature gap in the leadership role of principals in TTCs.

2.7.2 Academic leadership roles of vice principals

Leadership in colleges is key to the improvement and effectiveness of the college climate and the job satisfaction of its employees (Munir & Iqbal, 2018). Eswatini TTCs' vice principals are between the principals and HODs in the college hierarchy. Hence, this is likened to middle management (Pepper & Giles, 2015).

Several studies have been conducted on middle management. For example, Pepper & Giles (2015) explored the experiences of middle-level leaders in HE in the UK. Their findings revealed that middle managers perceive their roles as overwhelming, with huge responsibility and little power. Likewise, Chilvers, Bortolotto, Alfaio-Tugia, Cooper and Ellison (2018) investigated leadership by deans, or pro-vice chancellors, at Massey University, in Newzealand. The study concluded that little attention is focused on middle management roles. The study further revealed that the leadership role is characterised by role overload, so it would disadvantage them in teaching and research, subsequently reducing the chances of getting an academic promotion.

In another study, Davis, van Rensburg and Venter (2016) examined experiences of academic and non-academic middle managers in the Republic of South Africa (RSA) HE context. The study concluded that middle management is becoming disempowered; they have a passive role in implementing top management decisions and they face the challenge of rigidity due to obsessive adherence to institutional rules of procedures.

Like associate deans in universities, vice principals are in middle management and are responsible for the academic affairs of college students. Also, they coordinate the academic activities as well as the budgeting and allocation of teaching materials (Times of Swaziland, May 2015). From previous vacancy adverts, vice principals are responsible for academics in the TTC and other administrative functions such as planning, coordinating and supporting college activities. While this is so, being

responsible for academics is ambiguous. This illuminates a need to gather how the vice principals interpret their role.

Despite the huge responsibility placed upon the vice principals, they seem to have little power to make decisions because they are in the middle of the leadership hierarchy, which is between the principal and HODs. This suggests a possibility of role conflict between expectations of HODs from vice-principals and self-perception of the role and that of the principal.

After gleaning previous vacancy adverts, this researcher observed that normally, there is an overlap in job descriptions particularly for the positions of the principal and vice-principal. This could indicate a lack of clarity and cohesion in the roles of the two positions. Additionally, literature is bare regarding the role of vice principals in TTCs from other countries and their roles in teaching and learning are acutely sparse. Hence there is a need to investigate how the vice principals interpret their roles in teaching and learning to improve their effectiveness in the leadership position they occupy.

2.7.3 Academic leadership role of Heads of Departments

The role of Heads of Departments (HODs) is multidimensional. They have a middle leadership role, which is between the top management (principals and vice principals) and the academic department (lecturers and students). In their middle position, Nica (2013) alleges that HODs' role includes both management and leadership. Also, they serve as administrators, managers, leaders as well as academic faculty members (Miller, Mamiseishvili, & Lee, 2016; Pienaar & Cilliers, 2016).

In their administrative and managerial function, Branson, Franken and Penney (2016) claim that HODs are responsible for human resource and financial management such as promotions, staff leaves, budgeting, procurement, and expenditures. Furthermore, it is the HODs' role to identify and recruit faculty and staff best suited for the targeted task in the department (Lees, 2013). Still, in their administrative role, HODs are expected to build collegiality, cooperation, and teamwork (Branson et al, 2016). This indicates that they need interpersonal skills, like communication skills to build relationships and collaborations. Likewise, Hackmann and Wanat (2016) reveal that HODs' roles include; establishing and maintaining connections and coordinating

administrative programmes as well as representing the department throughout the college and campus.

Apart from administrative duties, HODs are required to teach, hence they are both faculty members and leaders at the same time (Bellibas et al, 2016). In their teaching function, HODs are expected to perform a myriad of responsibilities. For instance, they are required to teach (Schwinghammer, Rodriguez, Weinstein, Sorofman, Bosso, Kerr & Haden, 2012), develop new courses and schedule classes (Lees, 2013), ensure, achieve and maintain a satisfactory quality of teaching (Rosdal, 2015). Combining the teaching and leadership roles suggests a possibility of role overload, hence a need to investigate their challenges and further solicit how they address them while carrying out their leadership role.

In their leadership function, HODs are in the first line of academic leadership. That is, they have daily access and interactions with staff and students (Akuegwi & Nwi-ue, 2017). Hence, HODs are responsible for faculty professional development, support and creating a culture that ensures faculty success (Rosdal, 2015). Professional development updates staff knowledge to enable them to be abreast of the latest techniques and development in teaching or instructional delivery (Akuegwi & Nwi-ue, 2017).

Additionally, HODs direct, guide and support departments which include support the development of programmes, teaching within the department, conducting performance reviews and identifying and providing professional staff development (Branson et al, 2016). They create a culture of continuous improvement like collaboration opportunities (Lees, 2013). HODs are key in the leadership of teaching and learning because they work closely with the teaching staff and their teaching role makes them have direct contact with students and subsequently have a direct influence on teaching and learning. Therefore, how they interpret and execute their leadership matters, especially in how they influence the culture of teaching and learning.

Historically HODs were change agents, where they provided leadership to new curricula changes, set a new direction for the department, and hire new faculty

(Cipriano & Riccardo, 2014). In the era of globalisation, the leadership role is changing to meet accelerated technological growth (Nica, 2013). Globalisation has made knowledge and skills in technology essential to leaders because they should understand how it impacts students learning (Woodard, Shepherd, Crain, Dorrough & Richardson, 2011). This inevitably calls for leadership development amongst the HODs.

With the emergence of technology, Kelly (2010a) claims that now the academic leadership responsibilities of HODs are endless. They are expected to be a 'master teacher' (Cipriano & Riccardo, 2014). To explain this concept, HODs are now expected to keep track of who is teaching and find qualified instructors to teach (Kelly, 2010a). Also, they have to deal with legal issues without previous experience. Adding to that is the increased public scrutiny and accountability leading to include detailed and specific information on student learning outcomes and assessment measures (Kelly, 2010a).

The role of the HOD is critical in shaping the departmental identity (Miller et al, 2016). To support this claim, Kelly (2010b) argues that all academics have influence, but HODs chairs have a more influential role due to functions they are engaged in (Kelly, 2010b), some of which have already been mentioned. Sorayan et al (2011) specifically point out that HODs influence the values of a department, which may or may not place value on teaching.

Currently, less value is given to teaching and learning due to the fact that promotion criteria in HE are on research (Scott & Scott, 2011), yet HODs' role is to influence the department to pull together improving the quality of teaching (Rosdal,2015). In some instances, HODs are expected to be good role models educationally and ethically, hence they establish the ethos of the institution (Nica, 2013). On the same note, Anthony & Antony (2017) contend that HODs need to act as a role-model, as well as create a positive work atmosphere, provide feedback on performance, adjust workloads and stimulate scholarship.

From the above literature, it is evident that HODs 'leadership role is multifaceted, highly complex and ambiguous, thus Bellibas et al (2016) argue that HODs' role lacks clarity. Likewise, Nguyen and Barry (2015) contend that HODs have an unclear

understanding of their role. As a result, perceptions of what these academic leaders do are not clear and cohesive (Nguyen & Barry, 2015).

Contrary to that, few studies on academic leadership focus on HODs (Bellibas et al 2016), and departmental values rarely address leadership in teaching and learning (Saroyan et al, 2011). Alike, Kelly (2010b) observes that HODs receive little recognition of their role as leaders and often downplay their influence, yet they hold strategic positions for implementing changes and realising HE outcomes (Jooste, Frantz & Waggie, 2018). This suggests that HODs have a limited understanding of their leadership role in the department, hence a need to explore how these HOD understand and experience their leadership role, particularly concerning teaching and learning.

2.8 Perspectives on academic leadership

Diverse constituents of HEIs have a myriad of expectations of academic leaders (Bolman & Gallos, 2012). These expectations shape understanding of the academic leadership roles and how the leadership roles are exercised is influenced by social norms and those who interact with the leaders and their personal abilities (Arntzen, 2016).

Personally, the researcher thinks that lecturers and students are important groups in academic leadership practice, particularly in teaching and learning. Lecturers have direct contact with both students and HODs, and they are future leaders. Likewise, students are central to the leadership of teaching and learning, also they are future leaders. Therefore, lecturers and students' experiences and perspectives regarding academic leadership are essential. Hence the study also seeks to examine the academic leadership roles of college leaders from the perspectives and experiences of lecturers and students. This subsection discusses the lecturers' and students' views of academic leadership.

2.8.1 Lecturers' perspectives on leadership

Lecturers' views on academic leadership matters. Lecturers are future leaders. According to Billot et al, (2013), the relationship between lecturers and leaders influences how the latter choose their roles and identities. For example, in a study to

examine the followers' view on leadership, it was found that leaders impacted on the agency of followers' commitment to collaboration and sense of ownership abilities to develop the best teachers who could maximise student learning (Billot et al, 2013). Consequently, it is not clear how academics understand themselves as leaders in their learning and teaching practices (Hofmeyer et al, 2015).

Lecturers value academic freedom and autonomy. In contrast, leaders are expected to achieve the institutional mission in a condition where lecturers want independence. Bradley et al (2017) point out that if academics practice autonomy it may conflict with an institution's mission in that their objectives may not relate to the objectives of the institution. Additionally, a study conducted in TTCs in Ghana revealed that lecturers consider the goal attainment and fulfilment of their needs as prominent tasks for leaders (Supermane, Tahir & Aris, 2018). In short, leaders in the Ghanaian TTCs were expected to fulfil their leadership role without impacting negatively the needs of the lecturers. This stresses the importance of a broader understanding of leadership on the college lecturers' side.

While the debate on academic leadership roles in teaching and learning continues, some teaching staff, see themselves as informal leaders in teaching and learning, having the power to influence others through credibility and experience. As such, the emerging studies reveal that these academic staff members see themselves as informal leaders (Hofmeyer et al, 2015; Bolden et al, 2012). Billot et al (2013) suggest that those members need to be recognised as leaders. On the same note, Bolden et al (2012) advocate for a shared or distributed leadership where leadership is not confined to those in formal positions but extended to any professor with relevant expertise and influence.

Adding to that, Hofmeyer, Sheingold, Klopper & Warland (2015) further reveal that academics in non-leadership positions in Australian universities advocate that leadership in teaching and learning by academics in non-formal roles could be widely promoted and rewarded in HE. They propose that HE needs collaborative approaches to create new leadership cultures. Subsequently, leadership development should be available for all academics (Hofmeyer et al, 2015). All these debates confirm a need

to further investigate academic leadership from the perspectives of the constituents of academic institutions to establish cohesion in academic leadership roles.

Literature was gleaned and few studies were found on lecturers' perspectives of their leaders. Followership has traditionally been neglected and understudied (Prilipko, 2019). In this study, followership was those that were led, that is, the lecturers and students. Thus a huge literature gap exists in this area.

2.8.2 Students' Perspectives on leadership

Students are central to the leadership of teaching and learning, yet their perspective of leadership is hardly studied (Richards, 2011). Students are the end-users of quality teaching, and they are future academic leaders (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018). Consequently, their viewpoint matters in designing and planning teaching and learning. Students need to be involved in the leadership of teaching (Jones, 2014). In short, students want to be involved in issues that affect their learning.

Students are in more direct contact with their lecturers and they are with the academic leaders. Thus students' view of leadership for learning reveals that they see their lecturers as leaders, and this has a positive impact on their learning (Richards, 2011). Some students believe that teachers are leaders (Chauhan, 2017), they even view them as their role models.

Additionally, Wang and Sedivy-Benton (2017) insist that a lecturer is a leader based on a teaching role. Lecturers directly work with students (Dunn, Moore, Odom, Bailey & Briers, 2019) hence in some institutions lecturers are appointed as tutors to motivate and encourage weak learners. Lecturers are supportive of students' aspirations; they encourage students to submit assignments on time and participate in class sessions (Andy-Wali & Wali, 2018). This implies suggests a distance between senior management and students, yet students expect leaders to meet their (students) needs.

As already mentioned, students expect leaders to create a conducive learning environment for teaching and learning that meets the needs of learners and enhances the student experience in HE. Such a learning environment includes facilities, infrastructure, timetabling, course structures, staff, support and engagement as well

as lecturers' knowledge and good attitudes (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013). Furthermore, they expect to be supported and recognised for their learning achievement (Drugus & Landoy, 2014). This suggests that they expect to be rewarded or given incentives for their learning performance.

Higher Education is dynamic thus leaders need to work collaboratively with students to address their needs. The reduction in state funding in HE makes students 'clients' or 'customers' of education (Scott & Scott, 2011), hence their satisfaction is becoming significant (Wiley, 2014). They are now clients because they fund their education.

This researcher observed that often, student bodies' representative councils focus on political issues instead of academic issues. If they could be motivated and sensitised about the potential impact of their opinion and focus on their learning, they can enhance quality teaching (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018). Students expect quality learning experiences, employability, and better services from the institutions. For example, they want more flexible access to institutional buildings (Estermann & Kupriyanova, 2018). Students' expectations shape academic leadership in teaching and learning.

Available literature depicts that leaders are expected to perform a myriad of duties yet the context in which they operate is complex. In some instances, students and lecturers expect more active forms of leadership such as mentoring and coaching (Berg & Jabur, 2014). Few studies focus on experiences of being 'led' (Billot et al, 2013), yet literature stresses the importance of views of those led in academic leadership. Therefore, this necessitates understanding the experiences of students and lecturers to identify academic leadership gaps that are based on their needs, which further underscores their (lecturers and students) views on academic leadership in teaching and learning.

2.9 Teaching and learning in Higher Education

Teaching and learning are one of the core functions of HEIs (Joyce & O'Boyle, 2013). Case (2015) contends that research on student learning in HE began more than 50 years ago. But to date, there is a limited conceptualisation of teaching and learning relevant to HE context in the 21st century (Case, 2015). However, Groccia (2012) alleges that teaching and learning in HE consists of various elements, namely; *learning*

outcomes, instructional process, course content, teacher and student characteristics, learning process, and learning context.

Learning outcomes - In HE, determining what students are supposed to learn (learning outcomes) comes before the design of instructional and assessment methods. The *instructional process*- is how content is taught. The assessment determines whether outcomes are met. *Teacher characteristics* - teachers must understand who they are and what they bring to the learning situation. This constitutes the socio-economic background, gender, cultural background, academic preparation, personal characteristics. The better they understand themselves the more teaching and learning improves. *Students' characteristics* - background, academic preparation, and individual characteristics influence learning. *Learning process*- knowledge of learning processes enhances teaching and learning. *Learning context* - this includes the physical environment, culture, classroom variables like room size (Groccia, 2012). *Course content* - what is to be taught and learned must be appropriate to desired learning outcomes, learners to be taught and the experience of instructors (Groccia, 2012).

Teaching and learning are two sides of the same coin. In a broad sense, Case (2015) describes teaching as a set of activities aimed at facilitating learning. Case further claims that teaching is a distinct entity from learning. That is, no linear causality exists between teaching and learning. They are just separate activities, although they have intimate connections. However, Case points out that teaching should result in learning. In this study, teaching and learning are viewed as core activity or function of the TTCs.

On the other side, learning is the holistic development of students (Quinlan, 2014). Debowski and Darwin,(2009) describe student learning as student experiences on the way the curriculum is designed, implemented and managed. Illeris (2007) adds that HE learning has three dimensions: content, incentives, and interaction. *Content* is comprised of curriculum/knowledge, teaching methodologies and development of basic skills like critical thinking. The *incentive* includes the emotional part of teaching, derived from relationships between teachers and students. Lastly, learning involves the *interaction* of institutions with the local community as a broader socio-economic environment.

Higher Education teaching is a scholarly activity, hence effective teaching needs to demonstrate a commitment to scholarly values and academic integrity (The University of Auckland, 2010). This indicates that HE teaching emphasises academic culture, where research is aligned with teaching (McInnis, Ramsden & Maconachie, 2012). This practice also applies to TTCs in Eswatini where research is a component that is emphasised as part of the curriculum (Teacher Training Colleges regulations, 2018). Also, the Scheme of Service of government colleges (2015), clearly stipulates that academic staff are expected to conduct research along with teaching and learning. Contrary to that, the National Education and Training policies of 2011 and 2018, place a strong emphasis on teaching and learning quality in TTCs (Ministry of Education and Training, 2011, 2018a).

Until the late 19th century teaching was the most important function of HE. However, during the 20th and 21st centuries, research has become a primary concern for academics while teaching was downgraded as a secondary activity (Kedra & Rotidi, 2017). However, practically, what counts is research not teaching skills (Kedra & Rotidi, 2017). For example, most HE programmes stress the research component and this is evident in professorial promotions that are solely based on several publications rather than teaching excellence. While teaching practice is also emphasised in HEIs as well as the TTCs under study, promotion criteria are not usually based on excellence in teaching and learning but they are based on accumulated years of experience.

High demand for HE has brought focus on teaching skills, then there is a growing interest that student teaching should be rewarded (McInnis et al, 2012). Equally so, teaching and learning are being seen as increasingly more important relative to the research goals of HE (Hidayah, Sule, Wirasasmita & Padmasdisastar, 2015). Despite the intentions of HEI to focus on teaching, the status of teaching is low. In the TTCs context, the literature is not explicit on the incentives for student teaching. However, the Eswatini Performance Management System stresses annual performance appraisal and indicates that promotions should be based on work performance, which is not clearly defined.

Effective teaching in HE is focused on the learner (O'Connor, 2010). However, the prevalent form of instruction is the lecture in a majority of HE. I have observed that Eswatini TTCs lessons are predominantly lectures, yet the National Education and Training policies of 2011 and 2018 call for a transformation of teaching and learning that includes amongst others a shift to Competency-Based Education and Training (CBET), use of learner-centred approaches and integration of technology.

With technological advancement, HE needs to examine teaching and learning practices. Globally, there is a shift to learner-centred approaches (Kedra & Rotidi, 2017:147). Now students want to be involved in the design of their curriculum. Also, the high cost of education is challenging the traditional model of offering education on weekdays (Casares, Dickson, Hinton & Phelps, 2012). Likewise, in Eswatini, Open and distance learning (ODL) is emerging, evident in the ODL policy of 2020 that has been recently approved and launched.

Technology is changing the way learning takes place and this complicates delivery (Idris & Kotamjani, 2016). Information technology (IT) affects learning (Case, 2015). It is included as part of the curriculum and as an instructional delivery system, aids instruction and enhances the teaching and learning process (Raja & Nagasubramani, 2018). Information technology influences programme modes of delivery. For instance, it provides options for full-time or part-time or Open and Distance Learning (ODL) (Hoque & Alam, 2010). Again, technology influences where and when to learn and teach (Cendon, 2018). For instance, ODL allows learners to learn at their convenient places and time.

Coupled with technological changes, there is a need to respond to the individual learner and changing market needs (Cendon, 2018), such dynamics shape teaching and learning in the HE. Information technology supports a teacher-led mode of learning. This suggests now HE needs to accommodate individual learners, at the same time consider the changing employment market needs.

Accommodating students' and employer needs indicate a change in the mode of delivery; diversifying curriculum options so that learners can align learning with work. In some instances, HEIs have shifted to digital technologies to enhance teaching and be responsive to student expectations and needs. Consequently, teachers need

support in teaching (Cendon, 2018). The shift from teacher-centred to student-centred teaching has created a need to support staff to improve their teaching practices (Nguyen, 2016). This paradigm shift reiterates the importance of leadership in teaching and learning in HE. Henceforth, staff and leadership development in teaching and learning are unavoidable.

This study started at a time when the Eswatini is developing a National Policy on Open and Distance Learning. Such interventions inherently advocate the harnessing of Information Technology (IT) in teaching and learning. With all these considerations, Lai (2011) laments that the emergence of information technology may shift the culture of teaching and learning. For instance, IT leads to a diversity of learners- mature learners re-entering the education system. Also, learning would become more learner-centred and co-constructed. Therefore, this suggests that content should be relevant to changing needs, thus new competencies and skills to be learned are emerging like innovativeness and creativity (Lai, 2011), thus Continuous Professional Development (CPD) in teaching and learning cannot be over-emphasized.

2.10 Challenges facing academic leadership

Worldwide, academic leaders in HE are facing tremendous challenges. From previous studies, the following challenges emerge from diverse sources:

2.10.1 Role overload

Drawing from the experience of HODs in Norway, Rosdal (2015) found that HODs find their job extremely strenuous and laborious. For instance, HODs have difficulty finding a balance between their tasks and responsibilities of being an academic and being an administrator, manager/leader (Pienaar & Cilliers, 2016). Adding another layer of difficulty is the fact that they are expected to lead both academic and support staff (Bellibas et al, 2016).

Apart from administrative duties, they are required to teach. This challenge is coupled with the increasing number of students and shortages of academic staff. This suggests that leaders have a challenge in balancing subject matter expertise and leadership roles, more so because they are leading people who want autonomy and independence in a hierarchical organisation (Berg & Jabur 2014). Fitzgerald (2015)

points out role overload leads to management than leadership that focuses on classroom and student teaching. It appears these leaders are overwhelmed by management and administrative duties, while their academic leadership, particularly in teaching and learning is jeopardised.

Similarly, in Eswatini government TTCs, I have observed that principals, vice principals and HODs are loaded with administrative duties due to increased accountability caused by the current stringent fiscal position of the country. This increases the workload. The leaders then tend to focus on administrative duties at the expense of teaching and learning. While the government demands accountability, the same government still expects quality teacher education and training from the colleges (MOET,2018b). Adding another layer of difficulty is the quality assurance demands imposed by the local Higher Education Council (ESHEC). Besides the need to meet the external stakeholders' demands (for example, Ministry of Education and Training and ESHEC), the college leaders have to meet diverse internal stakeholders' needs such as students, teaching staff as well as support or non-academic staff. This reveals a role overload for leaders, which potentially compromises leadership in teaching and learning.

2.10.2 Lack of preparation for the role

Although leaders are expected to do both management and leadership roles, they lack preparation for human and financial resources management including interpersonal relationships and conflict management (Berg & Jarbur, 2014). For instance, HE HODs are not chosen on their leadership knowledge skills or abilities (Cetin & Kinik, 2015), yet they need to understand the complex phenomena of their leadership (Block, 2014). Furthermore, these HODs are not well supported in both the administrative and academic development of the department (Rosdal, 2015).

While there is growing interest regarding teaching as a scholarly activity in HE, Scott and Scott (2011) observe preparation for teaching at HE is limited. The tendency in HE is to prepare scholars for research. Most postgraduate degrees are research-based. Consequently, teaching in HE depends on how the teachers have been taught

(Scott & Scott, 2011), and this puts them at a disadvantage in preparedness to perform their teaching and worse their leadership in teaching and learning.

Existing studies indicate that academic leadership influences teaching and learning, although it seems indirect. Nica (2013) claims that leaders influence student learning through their influence on staff and the institutions they run. Otara (2015) contends that leaders have a direct influence on teaching staff; they foster development, and improve morale and the work environment. For instance, deans and HODS can motivate staff (Ginns, Kitay & Prosser, 2010:242). Motivated staff can: a) attract brilliant students; b) can develop students personally and professionally; c) can create a strong culture and attract more talented staff and students; d) can adapt to different teaching styles (Siddique et al, 2011).

While scholars agree that leaders may impact teaching and learning in HE, leaders in HE rarely focus on improving teaching and learning. Studies overlook leadership in teaching and learning (Quinlan, 2014; Marshal, Orrell, Cameron, Bosanquet & Thomas, 2011). Formal training for academic leadership is often non-existent (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018).

Similarly, in the TTCs being studied, the researcher observed from previous job advertisements for example that were issued in 2012 and 2015 that positions of principals and vice principals respectively require previous experience in leadership. It is not unusual that in the recruitment process, qualification in leadership in teaching and learning is not emphasised, yet the colleges are primarily teaching and learning based as opposed to research-based. Equally so, HODs, are internally promoted based on years of service in the respective departments. This could suggest deficiencies in their leadership preparation for the assumed leadership roles, specifically in teaching and learning.

2.10.3 Institutional culture

At the institutional level, academic leaders are also responsible for ensuring a culture of high values and ethics in the institution (Singh & Purohit, 2011). As already mentioned, academic staff value academic freedom and autonomy (Nguyen,2015). To emphasise the importance of autonomy in the academic leadership of teaching and

learning, Bellibas et al, (2016) revealed that HODs complained of interference of administrators in course content, hence they (HODs) advocate for independent decision-making on curricular issues. Floyd (2017) argues that such traditional academic values and identities may support or not support the strategic direction of the institution.

Institutional culture accompanied by policies and procedures can be a hindrance when introducing change in HE (Bashman, 2012). Institutional culture in this context refers to the values, ideologies, beliefs, assumptions, and practices in an organisation. Examining institutional culture explores expectations that individuals have of leadership (Tierney & Lanford, 2018). Such cultures could include bureaucracy, unwritten rules, disregard of line management by senior leaders and disconnection between top management and academic chairpersons (Karagdag, 2017). Likewise, the TTCs understudy are characterised by hierarchy and bureaucracy associated with being government institutions.

Values such as academic freedom are critical values in HE (Seitz & Nicole, 2014). In the TTCs, policies regarding freedom of teaching, discussion and research are not clear. Besides academic freedom, other values include institutional autonomy - a degree of self-government for effective decision-making regarding academic work (Scholars at Risk, 2017). These are non-existent in the TTCs being studied since they are purely government entities. Additionally, the academic freedom and autonomy are limited by strict compliance with government directives. As mentioned earlier, TTCs are affiliated to UNESWA, governed by MoET who inhibits autonomy and controls TTCS.

Leadership is part of the institutional culture. In HE expectations of leadership vary at different levels. Conflict of values between the top and middle management and leadership style creates institutional disorder, thereby decreasing the quality of teaching and learning (Dima & Ghinea, 2016). Normally, HEIs are research-based cultures. While the culture of teaching is acknowledged to be important, it is not known how leaders may shape the cultures of the institutions and the level at which such could happen (Cox, McIntosh, Rason & Terenzini, 2011).

Generally, policies are not clear on how to develop the institutional culture of teaching and learning. In an effort to instil the culture of teaching and learning, some institutions have established centres of teaching and learning. These centres develop staff on evidence-informed teaching (Eales-Reynolds & Rugg, 2009). How the college leaders in the TTCs influence the culture of teaching and learning has not yet been examined, hence this study seeks to establish and document that.

2.10.4 Students profile

With the increasing demand for HE education, enrolments are increasing hence students' profile is changing. Student profile includes increased enrolments leading to class sizes and low quality, the consequence is staff burnout which stalls the leadership career (Pienaar & Cilliers, 2016). In the past, most HE candidates were recruited direct from high schools. The classes were smaller. There was more time to teach and less pressure to do research. Expertise in teaching was not as essential as now. This is no longer the case.

With the increased demand for HE, I have observed that TTCs have increased enrolment, while the colleges' infrastructure like hostels and support services like the library are not expanded. Mahlalela (2017) asserts that TTCs enrolment has increased in recent years, while the resources are not keeping up with the pace. Looking at the both colleges' prospectus, TTCs fees have remained the same for the more than a decade, while quality is demanded.

With the increased enrolment students are forced to be off-campus and this has bearing on living expenses. This challenge is coupled with the stringent scholarships baring some students from benefiting, and the scholarships are often delayed. As a result, the HEI in the country is now characterised by numerous class boycotts which subsequently compromise quality teaching and learning.

Equally important, learners must be supplied with the skills and knowledge they need yet the students' expectations are also changing. Sing Ong (2012) further alleges that senior and middle-level HE leaders face competing paradigms such as students as 'scholars' versus students as 'consumers'. Hence student satisfaction has become

important. This paradigm shift reiterates the importance of gaining insights into students' perspectives of academic leadership to address their changing needs.

2.10.5 Plurality of mission

Higher Education institutions have multiple missions and an extensive array of stakeholders, whose needs must be satisfied (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017a). Parts of the HEIs' missions are teaching, research and community service. There is a competing tension between research and teaching coupled with failure to meet students' needs (Sing Ong, 2012).

Similarly, Drew (2010) contends that responding to competing tensions between research and teaching, remaining relevant and maintaining academic quality is a challenge for HE. This is coupled with diminishing resources and changing the HE environment and this necessitates leaders to rethink means of making meaningful learning experiences for students. Therefore, academic leaders need to act dynamically in handling multiple tasks and dealing with varied people (Gigliotti & Ruben, 2017b), and this requires an understanding of what academic leadership entails from the perspectives of these diverse stakeholders. However, this study was limited to college leaders, lecturers as well as students.

2.10.6 Information Technology

Technology influences students' learning styles and expectations (Zahran, Pettaway, Waller & Waller, 2016). With technological advancement, there is a shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches (Kedra & Rotidi, 2017). Also, technology is changing the way learning takes place and this complicates delivery (Idris & Kotamjani, 2016). Furthermore, information technology (IT) influences modes of delivery. It provides part-time or full-time options as well as ODL. This inevitably requires that leaders understand the technological changes, and subsequently be able to manage them.

Traditionally HE leadership is hierarchical. Likewise, the TTCs under study are hierarchical. The highest being the principals, then vice principals, HODs, Senior Lecturers, lecturers and lastly the students. Globalisation comes with technological

advancements that resonate with less hierarchy, hence new ways of thinking about leadership are emerging (Dube, Maradze, Ncube, Ndlovu & Shava, 2022).

Due to such emerging structural changes and the emergence of COVID-19, to date, most institutions in Eswatini deliver learning online and distance learning which modifies the leadership hierarchies, structures, and responsibilities. For instance, in Eswatini UNESWA, distance learning programmes are offered by distance learning departments that are headed by directors and coordinators instead of the usual deans and HODs in the rest of the faculties (UNESWA calendar, 2019/20). Such changes emphasise the need for leadership development and continuous staff development to adapt to emerging changes.

2.10.7 Reduced funding

Globally, governments have reduced funding for HE. Government financial constraints exert HE to shoulder their financial burden, while employers expect HE to produce relevant graduates (Berndtson, 2013). As budgets shrink, public scrutiny rises and responsibilities for leaders continue to grow (Kelly, 2010b). This has a negative effect on leadership because it increases administrative responsibilities like financial management, budgeting, and reporting, which deviate the focus on leadership of academic work to the management of resources and this has the potential to compromise the quality of teaching and learning.

Eswatini TTCs are not exempted from the reduced government funding. Eswatini's government budget and expenditures for teacher education indicate a reduction of allocated and spent funds over the past few years (Ministry of Education and Training Financial (METF) reports from 2016 to 2020). This is coupled with a reduced scholarship for awards for students entering the TTCs. These have a negative influence on teaching and learning in TTCs. Evidently, the persistent students' strikes on scholarship issues have become a norm as reported in local daily newspapers, Times of Eswatini and Eswatini Observer.

With the current fiscal position of the country, numerous hindrances that impact academic leadership and teaching and learning emerge. For instance, the Ministry of Education and Training's annual financial report for 2018/2019 indicates no

expenditures on capital projects in government TTCs (Ministry of Education and Training, 2019). In response to the economic meltdown, the government issued a circular that controls procurement. This circular has a negative bearing on the procurement of teaching and material for the government TTCs. The circular makes procurement highly bureaucratic making it difficult to buy teaching and learning materials for the TTCs. Inadequacy and unavailability of teaching and learning materials impact negatively leadership, staff morale as well as teaching and learning.

2.10.8 Shortage of personnel

One of the responsibilities of academic leaders, specifically HODs, is to recruit staff (Lees, 2013). With globalisation and internationalisation, recruiting and retaining quality staff is a challenge (Drew, 2010), particularly in African HE with the decreasing financial resources (Mushemeza, 2016). Globalisation and internationalisation bring about competition, and increased demand for HE, coupled with a need to develop a relevant curriculum that will meet the needs of diverse students (de Wit, 2011). This creates a demand for more qualified teaching personnel.

Coupled with the emerging staff demand, academic staff needs an enabling environment to perform their duties. Limited funds lead to low morale and academic staff resign to join better-paying institutions (Mushemeza, 2016). Drawing from the Eswatini MoET's first quarterly report of 2019, the government TTCs have a problem with high staff turnover.

In addition, currently, the Establishment Circular 3 of 2018 bares promotions, replacements, and employment of staff. With the high staff turnover in TTCs and the delayed or absence of replacement, subsequently, teaching loads of staff has been increased. This negatively impacts academic staff who cope with increasing enrolments and the need for diversity of programme and subsequently, it is a challenge to the leadership of teaching and learning.

Still, on the issue of personnel, there is a lack of systemic succession planning in academic leadership which detracts from maintaining continuity in teaching and learning-related policies and practices (Idris & Kotamjani, 2016). The two institutions

understudy have strategic plans that are silent regarding the succession plan for leadership. This has a bearing on the continuity of academic leadership. Hence a study on the colleges' leadership is imperative.

2.11 Strategies to mitigate challenges facing academic leadership

Literature offers various approaches to address issues of academic leadership. These suggestions are offered from various literature sources and they are as follows:

2.11.1 Academic leadership development

It has been widely accepted that academic leaders need preparatory training to deal with diversified challenges in HE (Pani, 2017). Traditionally, academic leaders are appointed mainly on academic merits, leadership capacities are less considered (Berg & Jarbur, 2014). Formal training for academic leadership is often non-existent (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018). However, there seems to be the beginning of a shift to requiring leadership skills (Berg & Jarbur, 2014). Floyd (2016) concurs that academic leaders, need to be prepared for their role by providing them with leadership and management skills to deal with difficulties of the job.

Customarily, HE develops leaders through informal training or experiential learning on-the-job training (Debowski & Darwin, 2009). However, emerging research stresses the need for academic leadership development. To qualify this, Pani (2017) claims that there is a relationship between the quality of leadership and the performance and outcome of organisations. This essentially means that development support is needed for the leadership capability of academic leaders to enhance the academic leadership of learning and teaching (Debowski & Darwin, 2009). In this regard, Sing Ong (2013) suggests that leadership could be provided through coaching and mentorship programmes.

Several academic leadership programmes are planned at colleges and universities (Ruben, De Lisi & Gigliotti, 2018). Jooster et al. (2017) argue that leaders need to reform their leadership skills. Stefani (2015) concurs that there is a need for deliberate intention to build the capacity and capability of HE leaders. More so, institutions need to build institutionally relevant patterns of academic leadership on campuses (Sagintayeva, 2014). However, learning to lead is an unwelcome form of development

for those with significant experience in organizational life and leadership (Inman, 2011).

Given the critical role played by leadership in the success, mediocrity, or failure of an organization (Gigliotti & Ruben, 2017), as well as the unique features of HE leadership, preparation for the leader, becomes even more important not only to the organization and the people the leaders serve but also to the individual to prevent being replaced. All these express a necessity to foster cultural change that supports academics to develop leadership to provide quality teaching and learning to students.

Currently, the Eswatini government TTCs do not have a formal training programme on academic leadership. More so prior formal training on leadership is not yet recognised. But the experience in leadership is considered in principals and vice principals' positions as noted from previous job advertisements.

Also, after appointments, these academic leaders have access to short courses through the Swaziland Institute of Management and Public Administration (SIMPA), which is a generally in-service training institution for government officers. The short courses are leadership and management in general terms. Notably, in-service training in the institution is voluntary, it is not a requirement. These efforts indicate that TTCs recognise the significance of prior knowledge of leadership. Deliberate and special emphasis on training or induction in academic leadership for the appointed leaders is unknown.

2.11.2 Advocacy for teaching and learning in HE

Essentially, with the changing environment, clear leadership and advocacy structures will secure the future of teaching and learning in HE (Fitzgerald, 2015). For instance, teaching and learning centres have been established in some institutions to support and develop practice (Fitzgerald, 2015). Likewise, in a study conducted in selected South African HEIs, it was found that teaching and learning excellence awards raised the profile of teaching in a move away from the dominance of research (Behari- Leek & Mckenna, 2017). This indicates that teaching and learning are gaining eminence.

Numerous efforts to put teaching and learning in HE at the forefront are emerging. This claim is supported by Vardi and Quin (2011) notes that awarding teaching and

learning has led to the scholarship of teaching and learning and is gaining greater prominence in academic promotions particularly in Australian universities. Other examples include teaching and learning conferences, symposiums, and books.

2.11.3 Embrace technology

In light of changing the HE landscape, there is a need to embrace technology (Goldstein, Miller & Courson, 2014). Similarly, Arvindekar and Mackasare (2012:49) suggest that academic leaders should embark on developing computer-based learning materials as well as digital libraries to expose students to audio-visual cases. According to the National Education and Training policy of 2011, HE in Eswatini is lagging in information technology. Therefore, technology becomes essential for TTCs to survive as well as to enhance teaching and learning. Consequently, leaders should be abreast of technological advancement to be globally competitive.

2.11.4 Collaboration

Academic leadership is characterised by shared values, vision, common cause (Otara, 2015), and collaboration (Hamidifar & Ebrahimi, 2016). Collaboration in leadership is team leadership (Jooste et al, 2017). Academic leaders need to collaborate with other institutions without compromising the mission of their institution (Goldstein et al, 2014).

Lessons learnt from experiences of academic leadership in a college of pharmacy reveal that new leaders need to develop a network of leaders who are in similar positions to assist in the role of an academic leader and seeking guidance (, Pharm, & Brazeau, 2011). This implies collaboration enhances the implementation of best practices and learning from others.

Collaboration could also mean staff involvement in decision-making. Pani (2017) proposes involving staff in planning and developing a vision of an institution. HE faculty want to be involved in decision-making (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017b). Through experience, I have noted that collective decision-making creates not only a platform for understanding the needs of colleagues but also it enhances teaching and learning among the leaders and staff, allowing creativity and innovation and subsequently ownership of the decisions.

2.11.4 Shared or distributed leadership

Considering the challenges facing academic leadership, Todorut (2017) advocates for distributed leadership to combat some of them. Equally, Bolden et al (2012) propose that shared or distributed leadership may be an appropriate model for academic institutions because leaders can never know everything, they can learn from colleagues in non-leadership positions who have the expertise and influence.

Historically HE leadership was largely top-down, enacted by presidents but emerging challenges lead to collaboration and consultation. This demonstrates HE is a complex environment. Distributed leadership exists in a complex and dynamic environment which is top-down and can be seen as an extension of individual expertise (Wan, 2014). Large HEIs that have subunits and branches, normally make independent decisions. Such culture indicates distributed leadership practice. Sharing leadership and empowering colleagues is indicative of institutionalized practices of distributed leaders (Peters, 2013).

According to Todorut (2017), distributed leadership is an approach where all stakeholders agree on a strategic direction as well as communicate the strategy to the whole organisation. This requires certain capabilities, capacity, and resources to meet the desired goals (Todorut, 2017), which could be deficient for academic leaders because they take leadership positions without prior training in leadership as mentioned earlier.

Moreover, shared leadership recognises power and authority and allows delegation particularly based on expertise (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). This is a process not individual and can be supported by leadership development incentives, access to information and team-based work (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). As part of shared leadership, Bradley, Grice & Paulsen (2017) recommend that administrative tasks should be assigned to non-teaching staff while HODS in teaching and research focus on advancing academic values and goals.

2.11.5 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership could be useful in HEIs. For instance, Abukabar and Ahmed (2017) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership and

performance in Nigerian universities. According to Abukabar and Ahmed (2017), transformational leadership is a type of leadership where the leader identifies needed changes, creates a vision and executes change collaboratively. All these roles are associated with academic leadership as mentioned earlier in this chapter. Also, collaboration is in sync with shared leadership.

Transformational leadership also influences teaching and learning. For instance, Jovanovic and Ciric (2016) claim that transformational leadership is instrumental in creating a positive school climate for all educational processes. Jovanovic and Ciric (2016) further assert that transformational leadership improves schools, changes teachers' classroom practices, and enhances the quality of teaching and student learning and achievement and student engagement. Transformational leadership impacts positively teacher satisfaction (Belias & Koustelious, 2014). It fosters behaviours, commitment, intellectual support, and high expectations. Also, transformational leadership was found to have an immense influence on the transformation of TTCs of Ghana though TTC leaders lack knowledge of the transformational leadership (Supermane, Tahir & Aris 2018).

The following subsection presents the context in which the study is based on.

2.12 Relevance of academic leadership to teacher training colleges

Considering that the current study focuses on academic leadership in the TTCs, this subsection discusses the relevance of academic leadership and how it applies to TTCs.

Academic leadership is common in universities. However, there is an argument that TTCs are HE. Globalisation is an emergency that has influenced education policies and is influencing teaching practices and teacher education (Wang, Lin, Spalding, Odell & Klecka, 2011). Also considering the changing environment owing to the particular emergence of the knowledge economy of HE, TTCs should engage in research too, hence academic leadership applies to TTCs.

In the era of globalisation, teacher colleges present a challenge of being less developed internationally and inclined towards preparing teachers for public schools (Yemni, Hermoni, Holzmann, Shokty, Jayusi & Natur, 2017). Eswatini is not unique in

the context of no policy regarding globalisation hence college principals are free to envision the institutions.

In response to globalisation teacher colleges mimic and implement university research-oriented HE (Yemni et al, 2017). This is referred to as academisation, denoting the transformation of TTCs from professional institutions to academic institutions (Zgaga, 2013). Eswatini TTCs are also academising. Evidently, in the past few years, some college academic staff members have attained Masters and Doctoral degrees. Adding to that, NETIP I (Ministry of Education and Training, 2014) indicates the desire of TTCs to offer degree programmes.

Less attention is paid to leadership preparation in teacher education (Xu & Patmor, 2012), yet teachers produced are expected to keep up with recent development in teacher training to improve their programmes and quality of teaching and learning (Doyran 2012).

Teachers create positive change in the classroom and can shape the environment and the future of the country (Doyran, 2012). A teacher can easily become an educational leader. It is widely accepted that teachers are change agents. This suggests that they have an influence not only in the classroom but also in the community at large.

2.13 Chapter summary

Scholars have made significant efforts in conceptualising academic leadership in HE. Evidently in the diverse academic leadership definitions that exist in HE. Literature reveals that studies related to academic leadership are not broad, hence require rigorous research to understand academic leadership. The role of academic leaders lacks clarity. Moreover, most HE tends to focus on research while teaching and learning do not receive much attention, yet it is the core business of HEIs.

With the changing, HE environment such as reduced government funding, high demand for HE, technological advancement, and globalisation of education, teaching and learning are beginning to gain more attention. Some scholars challenge the assumption that a researcher makes a good teacher in HE as well as a good leader. More so, most leaders in HE are not appointed based on their leadership expertise but they are chosen on their research expertise. They tend to focus more on research at

the expense of teaching and learning, hence the culture of leadership in teaching and learning remains stunted. Hence, there is a need to explore academic leadership in teaching and learning. The next chapter describes the theory underpinning the study.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the theoretical framework underpinning the current study. Anfara and Mertz (2015) view a theoretical framework as a 'lens' to study a phenomenon. It serves as a guide on which to base and structure research (Grant & Osanloo, 2015). Also, it situates the research in a scholarly conversation (Anfara & Mertz, 2015). In this research, the theoretical framework was viewed as a base to guide its questions, data collection, analysis and interpretation of the findings.

This study was undertaken from the perspective of Leadership for Learning (LfL). Therefore, in this chapter, a detailed discussion of LfL as a theoretical framework is provided. Specifically, the researcher utilised Macbeath's five Leadership for learning principles to frame the study. These principles are drawn from a LfL Carpe Vitam project, which was a three-year action research project conducted in 24 schools across seven countries between 2002 - 2005. The five principles make connections between leadership and learning.

Briefly, the five principles of LfL connect leadership to the improvement of teaching and learning. Likewise, the current study sought to gain an understanding of the connections between academic leadership and teaching and learning in Eswatini's TTCs. In this study, LfL focuses on how academic leadership influenced teaching and learning. Subsequently, LfL was examined as academic leadership roles, activities, and strategies employed by college leaders to improve teaching and learning in Eswatini TTCs.

The chapter begins by describing the origins and definition of LfL. It further explains the key dimensions of LfL including the five principles of LfL, namely; focus on learning, conditions for learning, dialogue, shared leadership and shared accountability. In later sections, the chapter presents a linkage between leadership, and learning connecting that to academic leadership of teaching and learning, which is the main focus of this

study. Lastly, the chapter justifies choosing the five principles and their relevance to the current study.

3.2 Origins of Leadership for Learning

Literature reveals that Leadership for Learning (LfL) originates from instructional leadership, distributed leadership, and transformational leadership. In the 1980s to early 90s, there was wide research on instructional leadership that led to the most common model- Hallinger and Murphy model of 1985 (Ng Foo Soeng, 2019). This model was widely adopted and was based on effective schools.

Hallinger and Murphy's model proposed three dimensions with ten functions. These are: *defining the mission, managing the instructional programme and promoting a positive school learning climate* (Hallinger & Murphy (1985). Firstly, *defining the mission* includes two dimensions- framing the school goals and communicating the school goals. This concerns the principals' role in ensuring a well-articulated and measurable goal focused on the academic progress of students. According to Hallinger and Murphy's model, the principal has to ensure that the goal is known, supported and communicated to the whole school community.

The second dimension, *managing the instruction* has three leadership functions, namely: supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. These functions focus on instructional development. In larger schools, the principal cannot do all these alone. Likewise, in the TTCs, the principals cannot do this on their own because of the diverse subject disciplines that exist.

The third dimension *promotes a positive school learning climate* with five functions. The principal protects instructional time, provides incentives for teachers, provides learning incentives for learning, promotes professional development, and maintains high visibility. It considers that effective schools create academic progress by developing high standards and expectations and a culture of continuous improvement.

In the instructional leadership era, the focus was on the principal as a leader. And the focus was on instruction and teaching than the learner and learning. The principal was seen as a manager through teacher development as well as a sole leader or sole

source of influence and expertise. Yet practically, other players like the assistant principals and heads of departments also have influence. When the principal is taken as the sole source of influence and expertise, such downplays the influence of others (Ng Foo Seong, 2019).

Due to the abovementioned criticisms and restructuring initiatives, in the United States, in the 1990s there was a shift to transformational leadership and then later to shared or distributed leadership. Transformational leadership was conceptualised by Burns in 1978 in the business context. It was then developed by Bass (1985) to focus on building organizational capacity to select its purposes and support the development of changes to the practices of transformational leadership.

Several researchers studied the effects of transformational leadership in education. For instance, Leithwood (1994) and colleagues conducted a study in Canada where they found that transformational leadership fails to fully capture features that explain successful school leadership (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004, 2006). Similarly, Leithwood et al (2004) concluded that the effects of school leaders on school outcomes were largely indirect. Additionally, Marks and Printy (2003) found that transformational leadership supports the commitment of teachers and principals tend to share leadership functions. From transformational leadership, LfL aims to foster capacity building (Zepeda, Parylo & Klar, 2017) and higher teacher commitment levels (Adams & Yusoff, 2019).

Furthermore, Robinson, Lloyd and Rowe (2008) conducted a meta-analysis study reviewing the effect of school leadership or leadership that makes a difference for students by comparing transformational leadership and instructional leadership. They drew a conclusion that suggests that instructional leadership had more impact on student outcomes than transformational leadership.

Upon realizing that the principals cannot do it alone, in the 2000s, there was a shift to focus on shared or distributed leadership (Hallinger, 2007). Printy and Mark (2003) suggested collaboration between the principals and teachers on curricula instructional and assessment issues. Furthermore, Printy (2010) found strong evidence that

teachers' leadership effectors are more important than the principals' involvement in making instructional choices. These roles include instructional coaches. This suggests that distributed leadership is collaborative or shared leadership by principals, assistant principals, department heads, teacher leaders and other members of the school improvement team.

Considering the interest of the study to link leadership to student learning, there is little empirical evidence that links distributed leadership to student learning. For instance, Heck and Hallinger (2009) studied the effects of distributed leadership on school academic capacity and student learning in reading and mathematics in 200 elementary schools over four years. Their findings revealed that distributed leadership can, over time, be a driver of school improvement. Although, the effects of leadership on academic outcomes were indirect.

The focus on instructional leadership resurfaced in the 2000s as Leadership for Learning (LfL). This was due to an increase in accountability reforms that are linked to improving student learning (Ng Foo Seong, 2019). Moreover, instructional leadership was criticized for focusing on principals. This view is confirmed by Bush (2014) who claims that instructional leadership focuses on principals and excludes teachers and other leaders. Also, instructional leadership emphasizes teaching and instruction rather than student learning (Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), 2020).

Similarly, Macbeath and Townsend (2011) clarified that instructional leadership sounds like leading instruction, while LfL sounds like leading learning. Therefore, LfL came as a quest to find a type of leadership that makes a difference in student learning. Hence the current study utilised LfL as a theoretical framework to gain an understanding of how academic leadership influences teaching and learning. This study focused on the leadership of teaching and learning. The study viewed teaching and learning as a core activity of TTCs.

While LfL originates from instructional leadership, there is a clear distinction between the two. Unlike the latter, LfL is not limited to the principal. In support of this view, Macbeath and Townsend (2011) claim that instructional leadership originally focused

on the role of the principal, while LfL suggests broader sources of leadership as well as the focus of leadership on learning. This view is supported by Hallinger (2011) who claims that LfL includes a wide range of leadership sources as well as additional foci for action. In short, it incorporates the notion of shared leadership. This becomes relevant to the study since it focuses on academic leadership by principals, vice principals as well as the HODs, suggesting shared leadership.

3.3 Defining Leadership for Learning

Leadership for Learning is a broader conceptualisation of instructional leadership. It is also referred to as instructional-focused leadership or leadership for school improvement or learner-centred leadership (Murphy, Elliot, Goldring & Porter, 2007). Hallinger and Heck (2010) affirm that LfL is instructional leadership 'reincarnated' as LfL. In other words, instructional leadership is a precursor of leadership for learning (Hallinger, 2011).

Leadership for Learning describes the practical ways in which leadership contribute to enhancing students learning and achievement (Dempster, 2009). Similarly, Macbeath and Cheng (2008) claim that LfL describes approaches that school leaders employ to achieve important school outcomes with a particular focus on student learning. This is in line with the current study since it seeks to establish how principals, vice principals and HODs influence teaching and learning in their academic leadership role in the TTCs.

There is no single leadership that best captures a type of leadership that makes a difference in student learning (Hallinger, 2010). Instead, the literature suggests that successful school leadership must include a core of leadership practices that may be termed as educational, instructional or learning-centred. Subsequently, LfL blends features of instructional leadership, shared leadership as well as transformational leadership (Daniels, Hondeghem & Dochy, 2019; Hallinger 2011).

Drawing from instructional leadership, LfL stresses the critical role leadership plays in focusing on learning, that is, the importance of learning for both the staff and students. Also, it represents a combination of leadership practices commonly associated with teaching and learning aspects of instructional leadership. While shared leadership

recognises other leaders other than the principal in the school (Marks & Printy, 2003). Similarly, this study recognises other leaders like the vice principals and HODs.

The current study combines instructional leadership, shared leadership as well as transformational leadership. For instructional leadership, the researcher examines academic leadership roles. While the shared leadership are the leadership roles by the college leaders that is principals, vice principals and HODs. Lastly, transformational leadership examines how the leaders influence the culture of teaching and learning as well as how academic leadership can be enhanced for improved teaching and learning in the TTCs.

In summary, in this study, LfL describes the roles and approaches that college leaders employ to achieve the TTCs outcomes with a particular focus on teaching and learning. It focuses on the role leadership plays in building and sustaining the learning of educators, learners and college managers. The next subsection provides a detailed discussion of the key ideas of leadership for learning.

3.4 Leadership for Learning Theory

Leadership for Learning is a practice-based theory built from the ground up by MacBeath (2006) and colleagues from Cambridge University. It came from a two-year international research project in LfL involving university researchers in eight sites – Brisbane - Australia, Innsbruck - Austria, Copenhagen Denmark, Oslo - Norway, Athens - Greece, London - England, and New Jersey - Washington. The University of Cambridge was the overall project coordinator. All these countries were undergoing significant policy changes and political upheaval of *No child should be left behind* (Macbeath, 2006).

The LfL project also known as the Caper Vitam project named after its Swedish commission body was funded for three years from 2002 - 2005 by the Wallenberg Foundation in Sweden. It was collaborative research focusing on a deeper understanding and reframing of the practice of LfL. According to Macbeath and colleagues, LfL focuses on three fundamentals, namely: *purpose, human agency and context*.

3.4.1 Purpose

Leadership for Learning has a purpose to improve learning and teaching. It focuses on the role of leadership in building and sustaining learning for students, teachers and leaders (Macbeath, 2010). The purpose is achieved through behaviours, actions and the conditions leaders create for students and teachers. This fundamental applies to the current study since it focuses on the role of leadership in the improvement of teaching and learning in TTCs.

3.4.2 Human agency

Agency is the capacity to make a difference (Macbeath, 2006). It includes mentoring, regulating and evaluating how we learn and how we lead. Also, it helps to share and shape the moral purpose, which is student learning. Leaders cannot work alone but agency helps them achieve the goals and purpose of the school. This suggests distributed or shared leadership, which characterizes LfL. Similarly, this study examines the leadership by principals, vice principals and HODs implying a shared or distributed perspective of leadership.

3.4.3 Context

Leadership does not take place in a vacuum. Instead, it occurs in a context and turn the context influences the leadership (Dempster, 2009). Examples of context include government policy, resources, relationships, organisational structures and many more. The context could enable or restrict what leaders can do for students. For instance, the availability of funds may enhance what leaders can do for students, while limited resources restrict what the leaders can do for the students learning. Therefore, leaders should understand the context and should not use it as an excuse to restrict the students learning. In this study, the context has been utilized to examine the challenges facing academic leadership in the TTCs as well as how to enhance academic leadership for improved teaching and learning.

Leadership practice should be adapted to context (Hallinger & Heck, 2009). In support of this view, Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris, Hopkins and David (2006) claim that LfL incorporates an awareness that instructional leadership practices must be adapted to the nature and needs of the schools' particular context there is no one-size-fit-all

model. Likewise, in the study, it is also examined how the leaders addressed the challenges they encountered.

To further deepen understanding of leadership for learning, Macbeath (2006) and colleagues came up with five principles of Leadership for Learning. Hence, the next subsection discusses the five principles and how they were utilized in the current study.

3.5 Five Principles of Leadership for Learning

The five principles of Leadership for Learning presented in this subsection emerged from the analysis of the Carpe Vitam project (Macbeath & Dempster 2009). These were tested against the practice and are based on theory and literature in differing contexts. For this study, the LfL principles are viewed as the academic leadership roles, strategies, practices, and challenges faced by principals, vice principals, and HODs in promoting or improving teaching and learning in the selected TTCs. The principles also refer to the perspectives of the lecturers and students regarding academic leadership by the college leaders.

These five principles are: *focus on learning, conditions for learning, dialogue, shared leadership and shared accountability.*

3.5.1 Focus on learning

Literature reveals two key touchstones of LfL. First, is the ability of leaders to stay consistently focused on the right stuff- the core technology of schooling, or learning, teaching, curriculum and assessment (Hallinger, 2010). This stresses the important role leaders have in influencing teaching and learning. Leaders must pay attention and focus on learning (Dempster, 2010). In other words, learning must be brought to the foreground and maintained.

Secondly, to make all other dimensions of schools (administration, organization, finance and others) work in the service of more robust core technology and improved student learning (Hallinger, 2010). In other words, while the leaders focus on teaching and learning, they also attend to other important elements like administration for improved teaching and learning. Similarly, Dempster (2010) claims that leaders need

to prioritize between important matters and urgent matters. In this case, important matters are in teaching and learning. Also, leaders create opportunities for learning for both educators and learners.

According to Macbeath (2006), the central focus of leadership is on students learning and achievement. Therefore, LfL ensures that all students learn. While LfL focuses on student learning, the learning is not limited to students but to everyone in the school (Swaffield & Macbeath, 2009). This suggests that leaders and lecturers of the colleges understudy are learners as well.

Leadership for Learning acknowledges the importance of leaders' participation in professional learning (Dempster, 2009; Macbeath, 2006). The principal plays a pivotal role in leading the teaching and learning process by not only leading but also by being a life-long learner and this is likely to motivate teachers to learn (Mythili, Gulati, Kaur, Luthra, Verma, Singh & Jerath, 2020). Therefore, focus on learning refers to student learning, professional learning of teachers and leaders and system learning all integrally connected in a three-tier wedding cake so that a focus on learning is the iterative flow of learning between the various layers (Macbeath, 2006) as shown in figure 3.1 below. System learning means building capacity and facilitating learning conversations within and across the organisation (Dempster, 2009). LfL ensures everybody else in the education system has to continuously engage in learning. This suggests that teachers and leaders are learners too (Frost, 2009).

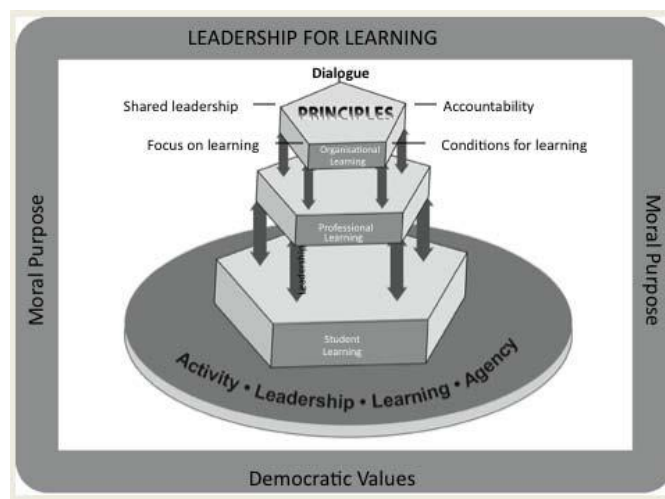


Figure 3.1: Leadership for learning framework (source: Macbeath, 2012)

In relation to my study, this first principle draws the attention of college leaders to teaching and learning which according to the researcher remains the priority of the colleges. Contrary to that, in the case of the TTCs, I have observed that there are so many administrative activities (like meetings, procurement and many more) competing for the attention of college leaders. Specifically, the college leaders seem to focus on administrative duties as opposed to teaching and learning. Hence, in this study, I argue that TTCs' leadership main focus should be on teaching and learning.

Secondly, this principle, suggests that the college leaders, teachers and students are all learners. This suggests examining professional development practices in the TTCs that are intended to enhance academic leadership of teaching and learning.

3.5.2 Conditions for learning

Conditions for learning refer to the climate of the school, which is the necessary precondition for the focus on learning. It includes physical, social and emotional conditions. Examples of the conditions include the buildings, classroom arrangements, time management, ethos, systems, and environment of the school, conversations formal and informal, the presence of structured opportunities for staff to share ideas and practices, and giving responsibilities to teachers (Mcbeath, 2006).

Macbeath (2006) contends that physical, social and emotional conditions should not hinder learning. Therefore, the leader is responsible for establishing an appropriate learning environment in the face of adversity learning. Additionally, conditions for learning include an analysis of what hinders and what enables learning (Macbeath, 2006). In this study this principle enabled the researcher to investigate challenges facing academic leadership and how the challenges are addressed.

Amongst the factors that establish a learning environment in schools, culture has been considered a key factor (Macbeath, 2006). This supports Louis's (2015) view that leadership influences the culture of the school. Louis (2015) claims that school leaders shape the culture in ways that make its members productive as well as more satisfied.

Likewise, the current study was interested in how leaders foster a culture of teaching and learning. Building a learning culture can be done through faculty meetings to discuss students' work and quality and challenges. That is translated into support for student work (academic support). Subsequently, the study investigated how leaders create a culture of teaching and learning in the two TTCs.

3.5.3 Dialogue

Dialogue refers to the search for understanding. It includes deep listening to the content, feeling and intention as well as respecting views. It allows deeper learning and engagement of principals and teachers (Macbeath, 2006). In LfL, dialogue stimulates the exchange of ideas, provides feedback, and engages staff in workshops, conferences and so forth (Mcbeath, 2006).

Sharing of leadership ideas and skills for learning takes place through dialogue among the different stakeholders (Swaffield & Macbeath 2009). More to that, leaders are in continuous interaction in the learning field. The interactions enable sharing of ideas, subsequently professional development. This interaction calls for dialogue. The interactions due to dialogue create learning opportunities to improve teaching and learning (Macbeath, 2010).

Leadership for learning asserts that the school must have the ability to create and foster dialogue. Creating a dialogue about leadership for learning recognizes that people are resources. Dempster (2009) advocates for disciplined dialogue, which is a focused conversation about common concerns about leadership and learning, especially focusing on the improvement of student learning.

Dialogue is particularly useful in this study to gain the views of the staff and students on academic leadership by college leaders. The voices have the potential to yield unexploited ideas and provide feedback for improvement. LfL considers students as an important stakeholder whose opinion is valued and they act as equal partners with schools to enhance learning outcomes (Swaffield & Macbeath, 2009). Thus, this study sought lecturers' and students' perspectives on the role of academic leadership by college leaders. It was done in a group interview manner. This indicates the integration of the dialogue aspect of the theory.

3.5.4 Shared leadership

Leadership for learning is not limited to the principal as was the case with instructional leadership. It incorporates the notion of shared instructional leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003). Shared leadership is also referred to as collaboration or team-oriented leadership (Marks & Printy, 2003).

Leadership for learning views leadership and learning as a shared activity (Macbeath, 2019). Macbeath (2006) contends that the focus should be on leadership by many people. Macbeath further emphasizes that leadership does not reside in one person. That is, it recognizes that there are multiple leaders in an organization who work collaboratively. This is in line with the current study since it explored how principals, vice principals and HODs influenced teaching and learning in the selected TTCs. Thus, the principle of shared leadership allows the researcher to examine leadership by multiple sources such as principals, vice principals and HODs.

Up until the 1990s, the focus was predominately on principals as a source of leadership. In the 1990s, the role of teacher leaders emerged with teacher professionalism leading to a reconceptualization of leadership as a distributed process (Spillane, 2006). Distributed leadership refers to collaborative leadership exercised by principals, assistant principals, department heads, teacher leaders and other members of the school improvement team (Spillane, 2006). This definition implies that distributed leadership is carried by those in formal leadership positions as well as those not in formal leadership positions.

Contrary to that, in the case of Eswatini TTCs, this researcher observed that leadership is exercised by those in senior management roles that is principals, vice principals and HODs. In other words, the TTCs are entrenched in the hierarchy. Also, there is a tradition that leadership is attached to specific and inflexible roles of the principals, vice principals, and HODs. These positional roles allow college leaders to carry the burden of leadership and management. Thus, in this study, distributed leadership refers to collaborative leadership exercised by the principals, vice principals and HODs in the TTCs.

The researcher argues that, like LfL, academic leadership is a shared or collaborative activity. To support this claim, Bolden et al (2012) propose that shared or distributed leadership may be an appropriate model for academic institutions. In addition, distributed leadership builds institutional memory and fosters learning (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). Subsequently, the principle of shared or distributed leadership is ideal to frame the current study to explore how principals, vice principals, and HODs interpret and enact their academic leadership roles.

3.5.5 Shared accountability

When leadership is shared, so is accountability. In the context of LfL, accountability means developing coherence among leadership activities and demonstrating how they impact learning (Macbeath, 2006). Shared accountability strengthens the sense of ownership of staff, creates a feeling of reciprocity and itself an important source of professional development (Macbeath & Dempster, 2009). This principle allowed the current study to examine the leadership strategies and activities employed by leaders in influencing teaching and learning in the TTCs. This is incorporated in the research question on how college leaders influence the culture of teaching and learning and how this leadership can be enhanced to improve teaching and learning.

From the above discussion, it is clear that the five LfL principles stress the connection between leadership and learning. Therefore, the next subsection unpacks how leadership links with learning. It further describes how academic leadership connects to teaching and learning, which is the main focus of this study.

3.6 Linking leadership and learning

Leadership for Learning seeks to link leadership and learning (Dempster, 2010, Macbeath, 2006). It focuses on connecting leadership with teaching and learning (Zepeda, Parylo & Klar, 2017). Robinson (2011) explains that school leadership influences student learning *directly, mediate or indirectly, reciprocal and inverse*. *Directly* through creating a school climate (Mythili et al, 2020). Therefore, leaders are responsible for creating conditions for students learning such as ensuring a safe and secure environment for learning, encouraging innovation and personally engaging in innovation.

Contrary to this Mythili et al (2020) argue that leadership does not normally have a direct effect on student learning unless the leader also teaches. This suggests an indirect effect. *Indirect or mediated* effects are seen through the quality of teachers' practice. Teachers work direct in classrooms. The principal does not work directly in the classroom (Robison, 2011). Hence school leadership effects on students learning are largely indirect. The principal may influence through providing the necessary teaching and learning materials and equipment and creating suitable timetables to mention a few. These make teachers feel supported, hence the support is indirectly linked to teaching and learning (Mythili et al, 2020).

Leaders' impact on students is largely indirect and relatively small as compared to other factors. While formal leaders interact with students, the impact is in the classrooms and peer groups (Louis, 2015). Adding to that, leaders exert influence by affecting working relationships and indirectly student achievement (instructional leadership). When influence is shared with teachers, it fosters stronger teacher relationships (shared leadership). The principal creates conditions that would impact teaching practice and student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996). Examples include defining academic mission, and fostering capacity for professional learning (Hallinger, 2010).

Reciprocal effect- while leadership influences students' learning, students, in turn, influence changes in school leadership through feedback. It could be through surveys. As students take leadership roles in co-curricular and curricular activities they participate in leadership and may influence changes in the leadership process. Sometimes this could be observed through student behaviours (Mythili et al, 2020).

Lastly, the *inverse* effect is when students influence the practices of a school leader. For instance, if a student with special needs is admitted to a school, for the leaders to cater for her or him there could be a need to alter or modify structures (Robinson, 2009). As such the students may influence the teaching and learning processes and

school leadership. Also, the school could introduce a platform for innovative students to participate.

3.7 Connecting Leadership for Learning to academic leadership

Literature suggests a link between Leadership for Learning and academic leadership. In this research, academic leadership is described as a continuous act of all constituents of an academic institution to accomplish its mission and to provide the best educational experience for students (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010). Likewise, Macbeath's work on LfL is embedded in the vision to improve teaching and learning. Also, effective academic leadership requires a person to demonstrate leadership, for instance in teaching (Ramsden, 1998 in Jooste et al, 2018). Undoubtedly, in this study, LfL recognizes the academic leadership roles and the activities by the college leaders intended to influence teaching and learning. The researcher argues that the major focus of college leaders should be on teaching and learning.

There is rarely a discussion of academic leadership of college principals, vice principals, and HODs from a leadership for learning perspective. This is evident in scanty literature on the applicability of LfL to HE. While HE recognizes several other formal leaders within the leadership hierarchy, their academic leadership role in teaching and learning remains unclear (Nguyen & Barry, 2015), stressing a research gap.

Leadership for Learning emphasizes a core set of actions, responsibilities or dimensions leaders need to embrace if they are to lead learning well in their school (Dempster, 2009). Furthermore, Masters (2009) claims that the important roles accomplished school leaders play in students' learning include among others; building a culture of high expectations, setting targets for improvement, employing teachers who have deep knowledge and understanding of key content areas, enhancing staff and leadership capacity, monitoring teacher practice and student learning and performance continuously and allocating physical and human resources to improve learning (Dempster, 2009)

Additionally, LfL incorporates a broader range of leadership activities to support learning and learning outcomes (Bush & Glover 2014). For instance, it emphasizes the relevance of leading and supervising the instructional and curricula of a school, defining the school mission and promoting the school learning climate (Boyce & Bowers, 2018). Similarly, academic leadership has broad functions and among some of them is leading teaching. The overarching aim of LfL is to improve student learning. Therefore, leadership for learning provides a theoretical base for the current study.

LEADERSHIP FOR LEARNING	ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP
Macbeath's work on LfL is embedded in the vision to improve teaching and learning (Macbeath,2006).	is described as a continuous act of all constituents of an academic institution to accomplish its mission and to provide the best educational experience for students (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010).
emphasizes a core set of actions, responsibilities or dimensions leaders need to embrace if they are to lead learning well in their school (Dempster, 2009).	requires a person to demonstrate leadership, for instance in teaching (Ramsden, 1998 in Jooste et al, 2018).
Additionally, LfL incorporates a broader range of leadership activities to support learning and learning outcomes (Bush & Glover 201	Similarly, academic leadership has a broad function and some of them is leading teaching (Nguyen,2011).
The overarching aim of LfL is to improve student learning	to provide the best educational experience for students (Pelonis & Gialamas, 2010). This study focuses on AL for teaching and learning

Figure 2: Summary of the relationship between LfL and Academic leadership

3.8 Justification for Choosing Leadership for Learning

The study utilizes the five principles of LfL as a theoretical framework. I contend that the five LfL principles by Macbeath and colleagues provide a wide-angle lens for viewing contribution that academic leadership makes to teaching and learning in the TTCs. To support this claim, LfL was developed from action research involving principals, teachers, board members, parents and students in 24 countries as mentioned earlier. That is, it involved diverse social economic and cultural contexts, languages, history and political contexts, hence enriching (Macbeath, 2006). Similarly, this study involved diverse participants (principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers

and students) from two colleges which are more than 100km away from each other with different historical backgrounds.

While the application of the five LfL principles in the HE setting is very sparse, the researcher chose to emphasize literature that is potentially applicable in the context TTCs. She acknowledged that this would require additional research and a more sensitive interpretation of the meaning if they were to be applied in other contexts.

While proponents of LfL suggest that it focuses on leadership that goes beyond formal leadership, this study focuses on formal leadership roles like principal, vice principals and HODs. To rationalize the focus on formal leaders, Leithwood et al. (2004) argue that leaders in a formal leadership position have the authority to retain the responsibility of building a shared vision. In this case, the shared vision is improved teaching and learning and is an academic leadership role. The study argues that, by their position, these principals, vice principals, and HODs are likely to have a significant impact on academic leadership of teaching and learning because of the authority associated with their position, particularly if they understand their role.

Additionally, the principles focus on learning, while the researcher focused on teaching and learning. Leadership for learning connects leadership to students' learning outcomes and the improvement of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2010). For this study, LfL focuses on the leadership roles, activities and strategies employed by college leaders to improve teaching and learning in Eswatini TTCs. Therefore, the five principles make connections between leadership and learning.

3.9 Chapter summary

This chapter dealt with the theoretical framework underpinning the study. It began with an introduction, and then proceeded to explain how LfL guides the study. LfL is based on purpose, human agency and context. The study was framed from the five principles of LfL by Macbeath (2006) and colleagues as they emerged from a Carpe Vitam project. These principles include a focus on learning, conditions for learning, dialogue, shared leadership and shared accountability. This leads to the next chapter, which focuses on methods that were utilised in answering the research questions.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter mainly deals with the research approach and methodology. It begins with a detailed description and justification of the philosophical underpinnings of the study, that is, the research paradigm. Also, the chapter provides extensive details of the research approach adopted for the study. It further looks into the methodology, with a special focus on a description of the site and the selection of participants, methods, and instruments utilised in collecting data. Another aspect covered in this chapter is the details of how data were analysed. Lastly, the chapter looks into the data trustworthiness as well as how ethical issues were addressed.

This study was embedded within the interpretive paradigm. It employed a qualitative case approach to explore the perspectives of principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers, and students regarding academic leadership of teaching and learning in two selected TTCs in Eswatini. To collect data, the research employed three methods, namely; individual interviews, focus group interviews, and document analysis using an interview guide, focus group interview guide, and document analysis checklist respectively. The data were analysed using thematic analysis. Subsequently, the next subtopic presents the research paradigm.

4.2 Interpretive research paradigm

A research paradigm is a framework of philosophical assumptions that guide the research (Mertens, 2012). Creswell (2009) adds that the assumptions are general orientations about the world a researcher holds. Therefore, this subsection describes the philosophical stance and related assumptions guiding this study.

This study is located in the interpretive research paradigm, also referred to as constructivism (Mack, 2010). Interpretivism aims to understand and gain the perspectives of those involved in the phenomenon being studied (Burton & Barlett, 2009). Furthermore, in the interpretive paradigm, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) claim that the role of the researcher is to understand, explain, and demystify social reality through the eyes of participants. The phenomenon must be observed from the

inside through the direct experience of the people (Mack, 2010). In other words, the interpretive paradigm attempts to get inside a person and to understand from within how the person understands a phenomenon or event.

In this study, academic leadership of teaching and learning was interpreted as the leadership roles or functions/duties as well as activities and strategies by principals, vice principals, and HODs that influenced teaching and learning and the views of the lecturers and students on the academic leadership roles in the TTCs. In short, the researcher sought to understand the opinions and experiences of the participants under investigation. Therefore, academic leadership of teaching and learning was examined from the perspectives and experiences of both the college leaders and lecturers and students.

The study aimed to gain in-depth meaning of how leaders and followers understood academic leadership roles. Alharahsheh and Pius (2020) assert that interpretivism considers humans they create further depth in meanings. Interest is in the richness of the insights (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). The insights were sought through semi-structured open-ended interviews and focus group interviews. These generated an in-depth understanding of the academic leadership of teaching and learning in the selected TTCs.

The research paradigm is made up of ontological and epistemological assumptions (Mack, 2010). Hence next subsections outline the ontological and epistemological assumptions of the study.

4.2.1 Ontology

Ontology is one's view of reality (Mack, 2010). The ontological assumption of interpretivism is concerned with what constitutes reality, in other words, '*what is*' (Scotland, 2012:9) and reality is subjective and created by individuals in a group (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). This suggests that there is no single truth or reality (Tuli, 2010). In short, a single phenomenon has multiple interpretations (Pham, 2018; Elshafie, 2013; Shah & Al-Bargi, 2013). In this study, the researcher assumed that there are multiple perspectives of academic leadership of teaching and learning.

Therefore, the study examined the phenomenon of academic leadership through the views of various participants-principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students.

The purpose of research is to authentically understand multiple constructions of what is considered to be real (Mertern, 2012). Therefore, the ontological assumption of this study was that principals, vice principals, and HODs would give meaning through their views and experiences to the concept of academic leadership of teaching and learning.

4.2.2 Epistemology

Epistemology refers to the view of how one acquires knowledge (Mack 2010). The epistemological assumption is that reality needs to be interpreted. Therefore, the epistemological assumption of this study was that the meaning of academic leadership was gained through the views and experiences of college leaders on academic leadership of teaching and learning in their respective colleges as well as the lecturers, and students who supported or refuted the realities.

4.3 Research Approach

In this study, the researcher adopted the qualitative case study research approach. Haradhan (2018:2) defines a research approach as a plan of action that gives direction to conduct research systematically and efficiently. Also, this educational research study adopted a case study. Crowe, Creswell, Robertson, Huby, Avry and Sheikh (2011) define a case study as a research approach that is used to generate an in-depth, multifaceted understanding of a complex issue in its real life.

The researcher opted for a case study because this was an explorative study. The central tenet of a case design is to explore a phenomenon in-depth and its natural context, hence it is also called naturalistic design (Crowe et al., 2011). Moreso, a case study is mostly used to explore a phenomenon in-depth and in its natural context hence it is a naturalistic design (Crowe et al., 2011). Similarly, Yin (2009) argues that case studies can be used to explore, describe and explain phenomena or events in their natural setting. The researcher wanted in-depth insight into the academic leadership of teaching and learning in the two TTCs.

On another note, a case study is an intensive study of an individual unit or a specific set of interests (Stewart, 2014; Featherson, 2008). For this study, the unit or phenomenon under question was academic leadership of teaching and learning in two selected teacher training colleges. Case studies address what happened or why something happened, why an individual does what he does, and how behaviour changes as the person responds to the environment (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010). This study further investigated how college leaders influenced the culture of teaching and learning; what were the challenges facing college leaders, and how these leaders addressed these challenges.

The current study was a multiple-case study. Multiple cases maximize variation in the sample and ensure the opportunity for comparison of findings (Sammut-Bonnici & McGee, 2014). Additionally, multiple case study provides a general understanding using several instrumental cases that either occur on the same site or come from multiple sites (Harling, 2002:2). Cases could be institutions such as schools, colleges, and churches that can be the focus of case studies; could be groups of people, for example, teachers (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010).

A case study research may have single or multiple sites (Stewart, 2014). The present study is a multiple-site case study since two teacher training colleges were investigated. The researcher aimed to ensure an in-depth understanding of academic leadership of teaching and learning from multiple sites (two government teacher training colleges) and from multiple participants (principals, vice principals, HODs) who had experienced and were affected by the phenomenon (lecturers and students).

This case study was qualitative. Qualitative research seeks to explore phenomena (Mack, Woodsong, Macqueen, Guest & Namley, 2005; Herbet & Higgs, 2004). Similarly, Crano & Brewer (2002) claims that qualitative research allows researchers to explore issues from the perspectives of the individuals directly involved. The qualitative studies allowed the researcher to gain insights into an under-researched topic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Nguyen and Barry (2015), claim that academic leadership is underexplored. Additionally, Fitzgerald (2015) contends that the existing research has not prioritised focus leadership of teaching and learning.

The qualitative approach seeks to understand and interpret human and social behaviour as it is lived by participants in a particular social setting (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010). More so, qualitative research approaches are well suited to investigate the meanings, interpretations, social and cultural norms, and perceptions that impact learning, educational practice, and educational outcomes (deVaus, 2001). Moreover, qualitative research focuses on depth, construction of patterns, and interpretations of the social meaning of events as well as entertaining relationships between events and external factors (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010).

To incorporate the qualitative aspect of the case study, this study sought to explore academic leadership from the experiences of college leaders who were directly involved and are accountable for teaching and learning in the TTCs. Therefore, this study aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of how academic leadership influence teaching and learning in the context of TTCs in Eswatini. The study investigated and examined how leaders influenced the culture of teaching and learning as well as how students and students viewed the academic leadership of teaching and learning by the college leaders. Such open-ended questions unearthed issues and ideas that would otherwise not have been revealed in highly structured quantitative studies.

Qualitative research reveals multiple realities. The multiple perspectives that come out in qualitative research, may uncover key issues and hindrances that exist within the phenomenon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Hence the data was collected from several participants including principals, vice principals, HODs, senior lecturers, lecturers and students to get different perspectives on academic leadership of teaching and learning. These participants expressed their views and experiences in their own words through individual and group interviews.

Qualitative researchers have an interest in experiences and interactions in their natural contexts (Flick, 2018). Collecting data from natural settings can reveal the complex nature of settings, relationships, systems, and people (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015), which would otherwise not be revealed in quantitative research where participants are not

free to express their individual opinions. Hence, the data was collected directly from the participants in their respective colleges (Creswell, 2014). The researcher engaged and interacted with participants in their natural settings through data collection. The researcher interpreted how participants make sense of their lives and this is presented in the findings in chapter 5.

4.4 Methodology

4.4.1 Population, site selection and sampling

4.4.1.1 Population

The population is the totality of persons from which cases are drawn (Robinson, 2013). The population must be clearly and sufficiently defined for ease of application and generalisability (Taherdoost, 2016). The population of the study comprised principals (2), vice principals (2), HODs (6), Senior lecturers (26), lecturers (68), and final year students (398) from two Eswatini TTCs. The numbers were obtained from the respective college registry offices for the academic year 2020/2021.

4.4.1.2 Site selection

Two teacher training colleges were selected to enable the researcher to fully examine the academic leadership of teaching and learning. The two colleges were purposively selected to ensure the homogeneity of the population (Robison, 2013:26). These were both government TTCs; they had similar governance; similar organisational structures; offer similar programmes, both affiliated to the same institution; they mainly focused on teacher pre-service training. Both colleges had been operating for more than three decades.

The two TTCs were selected because they played a major role in the delivery of quality education in Eswatini by producing a substantial number of teachers (Mahlalela, 2017). Besides, the TTCs mainly focused on teaching and learning than research. This supports the current study because it focused on the leadership of teaching and learning. Moreover, the colleges were more structured, that is, they had easily identifiable departments and leadership positions. Therefore, the two TTCs addressed the research problem.

4.4.1.3 Sampling

Sampling is the selection of specific sources from which data are collected to address the research objectives (Gentles, Charles, Ploeg & McKibbon, 2015). The primary aim of sampling in qualitative research is to acquire information that is useful for understanding the complexity, depth, variation, or context surrounding a phenomenon rather than to represent a population (Gentles et al, 2015).

To ensure that rich information was collected from the relevant participants, a purposeful sampling strategy was employed. Lopez and Whitehead (2013) explain that purposive sampling is commonly used to recruit people according to pre-selected criteria relevant to the study or research question. Furthermore, Robinson (2013) claims that purposive sampling seeks to get information-rich participants. Therefore, the researcher selected principals (2), vice principals (2), HODs (6) Senior Lecturers (4), lecturers (8) as well as final-year students (12) based on the potential that they would provide information relevant to the research questions as recommended by Yin (2011). The participants had experience with the phenomena in question or have been known to know about the topic under investigation (Lopez & Whitehead, 2013).

In total thirty-four (34) participants were selected within the two selected colleges. The sample was derived from a total population from the two colleges as shown in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1: Population and sample size

Description	Population (N)	Sample (n)
Principals	2	2
Vice principals	2	2
HODs	12	6
Senior lecturers	26	4
Lecturers	78	8
Final year students	398	12
Total	518	34

In studies that involve human participants, the sample size should be sufficient to provide maximum insight into what is being studied (Ary, Jacobs & Sorensen, 2010). For individual interviews, a total of ten participants were selected from both colleges. Two principals; two vice principals; six HODs were selected for the interviews. Therefore, informants comprised the principal, the vice principal, and three HODs from each college.

For the focus group interviews, twenty-four (24) participants in total were selected; four Senior lecturers, eight lecturers, and twelve students. Twelve were selected from each college comprising of two Senior lecturers, four lecturers, and six students. Four focus groups were conducted in total, two for each college; each focus group had six participants- for college teachers the focus group comprised of two Senior lecturers, four lecturers and the other focus group consisted of six students.

The principals and vice principals were selected by virtue of their positions. To identify the HODs, senior lecturers, lecturers and students, the researcher sought assistance from the principals based on the criteria mentioned in the sampling procedure below. The criteria were included in the permission request letter.

The following criteria were used in the selection of the participants;

- *Principals* - the incumbent principals were selected based on their position as people responsible for the overall supervision of teaching and learning in the college. Each college had one principal.
- *Vice principals* - the incumbent vice principals were selected based on their position as people responsible for supervising all academic work in the college. Each college had one vice principal.
- *Six HODs* - with a minimum of two years in the position. These HODs were responsible for the leadership of teaching and learning in their respective departments.
- *Four senior lecturers* - with at least two years of teaching experience in the college. They were responsible for teaching and learning.
- *Six lecturers*- with at least two years of teaching experience in the college. They were responsible for teaching and learning in the TTCs

- *Twelve students*- were selected from final-year students, preference was given to students in the SRC. They were directly affected by teaching and learning and SRC students had understanding and experience working on leadership issues with the college leaders.

In both colleges, the researcher requested the principals to assist in selecting the HODs, senior lecturers, and lecturers. The dean of student affairs was requested to assist in selecting the students upon delegation by the principals. The principals and deans of student affairs were utilised to select participants on the bases of their role as gatekeepers. Gatekeepers are essential mediators for accessing study settings and participants(Andoh-Arthur, 2019). Andoh-Arthur (2019) further state that in formal institutions like a school, the headteacher is an example of gate keepers, hence the researcher requested principals. The researcher requested a selection of people who had the potential to provide information on leadership of teaching and learning.

When conducting interviews, Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012) caution researchers to select informants that would give rich accounts because they would have experienced the phenomenon. The focus was to get participants who could provide rich in-depth information. Therefore, the assumption was that all the selected participants were knowledgeable about the subject matter and had some experience with it. Hence the principals and the deans were requested to select people who would be cooperative and free to express themselves.

4.5 Data collection procedures and instruments

The researcher employed individual interviews, focus group interviews, and document analysis to answer the research questions. In qualitative case studies, the tendency is to combine methods of collecting data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015), that is, the researcher employed the above three mentioned methods. This leads to the next subsections which describe the application of individual interviews, focus group interviews, and document analysis in the study.

4.5.1 Individual interviews

Individual interviews were utilised to collect data from principals, vice principals, and HODs from the two colleges. The interviews were used to gain an in-depth

understanding of the participants' opinions, views, and lived experiences of academic leadership of teaching and learning in an individualized manner.

An interview is a two-way conversation in which the interviewer asks the participants questions to collect data and to learn about their ideas, beliefs, views, opinions, and behaviours of the participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Interviews are a primary data collection strategy, where the researcher collects data directly from participants (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017). Interviews probe the ideas of interviewees on the phenomenon of interest (Featherston, 2008). Furthermore, interviews develop detailed and contextualised participants' experience perspectives, lived experiences, and realities holistically (Carl & Ravitch, 2018).

The study adopted semi-structured individual interviews. Semi-structured interviews are more relaxed and conversational styles of interviewing that facilitate in-depth understanding and reciprocity of exchange (Harper & Thompson, 2012). They allow privacy to disclose thoughts and feelings (Carl & Ravitch, 2018). The subject dealt with personal experiences and interactions within the institutions, so the researcher needed to hear the participants' feelings and views through their talking to get a deeper and fuller understanding and meaning from them. Examples of such questions are: based on your experience, what are the challenges that constrain your academic leadership role in teaching and learning? As a leader, what measures have you put in place to overcome the challenges?

In semi-structured interviews, the interviewer uses a list of interview questions, also called an interview guide (Adhabi & Anozie, 2017). Jacob and Furgerson (2012) explain that an interview guide includes a script of the interview and prompts to remind the interviewer of the information that she/he is interested in collecting. For this study, the interview guide (Appendix G) was developed by the researcher based on the research questions. Jacob and Furgerson (2012) claim that the interview guide assists researchers in collecting data. It gives direction for data gathering and subsequent analysis (Hunter, 2011).

The structure and how interviews are considered are important (Lopez & Whitehead, 2013). The interview guide was aligned with the research questions as suggested by (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). Additionally, the interview guide starts with broad and general questions moving to complex questions while probing and seeking clarity as suggested by Lopez & Whitehead (2013). So, the interview guide does not include all questions that may be asked but broader areas of discussion covering all the relevant areas (Stewart, 2018). Hence, the interview guide starts with general topics like “In your opinion, what do you understand to be your leadership role in promoting teaching and learning in the college”? What creates a positive culture of teaching and learning in a college?

These semi-structured interviews were individual and in-depth and they were conducted with principals, vice principals, and HODs of both colleges. In this study, ten (10) participants were selected and interviewed from both colleges. Five participants were selected from each college comprising a principal, a vice principal, and three HODs. The interview sessions were 45 to 60 minutes. Also, they were conducted in the participants’ offices in their respective colleges. After each interview, the researcher transcribed the data and went back to the interviewees to verify if the transcripts reflected the interviewees’ opinions.

During the interview session, in the beginning, the researcher introduced the study and its aim as an icebreaker. She also described briefly what academic leadership was and the focus of the study. Adhabi and Anozie (2017) advise that the researcher starts with basic questions like a personal introduction, the topic of the study then starts with easy questions moving towards complex ones.

During the interview process, the interview guide was utilized. The interview guide consisted of open-ended questions about the topic such as: What do you understand to be your academic leadership role in teaching and learning in your college? How were you prepared or trained when assuming the position you are currently in? And so forth as shown in Appendix G. The interview guide helped the researcher during the interviews to remember topics she wanted to be included in the interview.

So apart from background information, open-ended questions were utilised to elicit information from research participants. The interviews were audio-recorded upon

getting consent from the participants. Audio recording allows a researcher to verify what was said because the audio can be replayed during analysis (Tessier, 2012). The researcher also noted things that needed clarity to avoid disrupting the interview session. She concluded by asking if the participant wished to say something along with academic leadership of teaching and learning. At that time, the recorder was switched off. Carl and Ravitch (2018) suggest that switching off the recorder at the end provides a guide to the interviewer if the recording influenced the interview session. The individual interview guide is attached to Appendix G.

It took two to four days to transcribe and review each interview. Upon completing the transcription, the researcher made follow-up interviews with each participant to verify if the transcribed information was well captured. The transcript was given to each participant to read through and asked if what was captured was really what they wanted to say.

4.5.2 Focus group interviews

Focus group interviews are a set of individuals with similar characteristics of shared experiences, to gather what they think, how they feel and why they feel the way they feel (Featherson, 2008). For this study, a total four sessions of focus group interview sessions were held. For each college, two focus group discussions were held. One group comprised six lecturers, while the other group consisted of six final-year students.

The students' group interview was separated from that for the lecturers to avoid intimidating the students as well as establish homogeneity of the group (Smithson, 2012), which is a similarity of characteristics. Furthermore, the groups were separated to ensure discussions remained focused on the research questions and to safeguard full participation by group members (Lune & Berg, 2017).

For each focus group, there were six participants. There are diverse opinions regarding the number of participants for a focus group. For instance, Morgan and Hoffman (2018) suggest 5 to 10 people. It is important to have small numbers to get a breadth of responses and be able to manage and remain focused on the research agenda (Lune & Berg, 2017). While Carl and Ravitch (2018) prefer a smaller group of

say about 4-6 members so that there is ample time to share opinions and engage each other in the conversation to create more in-depth data.

The focus group interviews have several advantages. For instance, they promote deep and detailed discussion of a topic in which little is known and can be used to explore issues where little is known (Stewart, 2018). They reveal a variety of different perspectives and experiences of participants (Morgan & Hoffman, 2018). Lopez and Whitehead (2013) claim that focus groups' dynamics and insights are to be gained from the interaction between participants. Also, they are useful to discover new information or obtain different perspectives on the same topic from group interaction (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Focus groups are less intimidating than individual interviews (Lopez & Whitehead, 2013). Morgan and Hoffman (2018) claim that focus groups allow group integration to produce qualitative data.

Subsequently, the researcher chose focus groups as one of the data collection methods because it enabled the participants to comprehensively explore the issue of academic leadership and to further investigate the extent of both consensus and diversity among the groups on academic leadership and to corroborate or refute findings from the interviews.

To conduct the focus group interviews, prior arrangements with the respective college principals were made. This included logistics and practicalities in terms of dates, venue, and time were made with the participants. This is in line with Kandola (2012) who proposes that when conducting the focus group the researcher should communicate purpose, and logistics and minimize intimidation.

The researcher sought consent from the participants to explain the purpose of the focus group. She invited the participants formally through a written letter after requesting permission from the principals to conduct the focus group discussion. The letter included the time, venue, agenda, and contact person. A day before the meeting, individual reminders were made through phone calls. Each was held in the respective college.

During the focus group sessions, the researcher was a moderator/facilitator. The focus group moderator's role was to maintain focus and facilitates group discussion. The

moderator ensures a balance between what is important to the researcher and the participants (Stewart, 2018). Also, the researcher provided the structure of the discussion. The moderator is the interviewer, he/she ensures all questions are covered, and all members are given a chance to speak (Stewart, 2018).

In a group setting, it could be difficult to ensure confidentiality. Nonetheless, the facilitator assured confidentiality to the participants. Also, the facilitator asked participants to keep confidentiality by asking them to sign a consent form which includes keeping confidentiality of data. The consent made it clear that participation is voluntary and they can withdraw if they no longer feel comfortable. The facilitator ensured that everyone understood the questions and allowed all participants to talk. She/he also ensured everyone participates.

To encourage participation and get more in-depth discussion, the moderator used an interview guide with semi-structured questions beginning with general questions. For instance; "How do college leaders support teaching and learning? "In your opinion, what do you think can be done to improve academic leadership for teaching and learning in the college?" Lune & Berg (2017) suggests that the discussion should start with a general topic. The rest of the questions are in the focus group guide in appendices H and J. The focus group was 45 to 60 minutes.

To encourage participation, the moderator allowed each participant to contribute to the discussion. The moderator should encourage all participants to take part in the discussion and maintain focus using the guide (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Hence each participant had a chance to contribute to each question.

The focus group session was audio-recorded. An observer who was not part of the study was asked to take notes during the discussion as suggested by Lune and Berg (2017). After the discussions, the audiotapes were then transcribed. It took three to five days to transcribe each of the discussions.

4.5.3 Document analysis

Document analysis was utilised as another method of collecting data. Bowen (2009) defines 'document analysis as a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents'. On the other hand, O'Leary (2014) describes document analysis as a

form of qualitative research in which documents are interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning to a topic. Similarly, Nieuwenhuis (2016) describes documents as written communications that may shed light on the phenomenon being investigated. Document analysis is particularly applicable to qualitative case studies (Bowen, 2009) hence the use of document analysis in this study.

Two college official documents, namely; the strategic plans and calendars (almanacs) were utilized as another method of collecting data. Nieuwenhuis (2016) claims that official documents are primary sources of data. Primary sources in this context refer to unpublished sources which the researcher gathers from participants or the organization. In this study, the two documents were used to seek convergence and corroboration, that is, triangulation (Wood, Sebar & Vecchio, 2020; Bowen, 2009). Thus, these official documents were utilized to fill in the gaps that could have been left in the interviews and focus group interviews.

In conducting the document analysis, the following procedure was followed as suggested by O'Leary (2014).

- *Identifying the list of documents-* According to Lee (2012) documents could be minutes, policies, procedures, and prospective plans. For this study, the researcher combined two documents: each college's strategic plans and the college almanac. These documents were purposively sampled, to gain a rich and in-depth interpretation of data (Linton, Coast, William, Copping & Owne-Smith, 2019): Permission was sought to access the documents from the respective colleges' principals in advance. When reporting confidentiality and anonymity were assured and maintained. For this study, little confidential information was needed.
- *Ensuring the credibility of sources-* The researcher has to evaluate and investigate the subjectivity of documents (Bowen, 2009). In this study, the researcher ensured the credibility and validity of information by ascertaining the authors, purpose or intention of the documents, types of documents, and circumstances under which they were written as suggested by (O'Leary, 2014). For instance, the almanac is a calendar of college events; the strategic plans are five-year projections intended to give direction to the operations of the

colleges. All these documents were obtained from the principals of the two colleges.

- *Developing the checklist*- The researcher developed the checklist. For instance, the strategic plan provided data on the planned activities to enhance teaching and learning and who is responsible for those activities as well as challenges facing leadership, and some of the strategies to improve teaching and learning.

The respective colleges' almanac was used to examine any planned activities to enhance teaching and learning and identify the tools and routines that enhance the culture of teaching and learning.

4.6 Data analysis and interpretation

Data analysis assists the researchers to make sense of the data (Ngulube, 2018). It includes transforming raw data by searching, evaluating, recognizing, coding, mapping, exploring, and describing patterns, trends, themes, and categories in the raw data to interpret them and provide underlying meanings (Ngulube, 2018). This subsection presents how the data collected through the interviews, focus group interviews and documents were analysed and interpreted.

To analyse data, the study employed the thematic analysis approach. Thematic analysis is a method for systematically identifying and analyzing patterns in qualitative data (Braun & Clarke, 2013; Braun & Clarke, 2012). Thematic analysis was chosen for this study because it is accessible and flexible (Braun & Clarke, 2012). Accessible in the sense that it is easy to use, and it suits various methods of research not highly technical. Flexibility means that it can be conducted in so many ways: inductive, deductive, and theory-driven. This study employed an inductive analysis. The inductive analysis also referred to as open-coding means that the codes or themes are derived from the content of data (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

The analysis was driven by an interest to explore and gain in-depth academic leadership roles and this required more involvement and interpretation by the researcher. The thematic analysis provides a detailed analysis (Salleh, Ali, Mohd-Yusof & Jamaluddin, 2017), through a continuous coding process, that requires repeated reading of the entire data to see the pattern and its interpretation (Salleh et al, 2017).

Six thematic analysis steps were followed; data familiarisation, code generation, theme searching, theme revision, theme definition, and reporting (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

4.6.1 Data familiarisation

The audio-recorded data obtained from the ten interviews and the four focus groups were individually played back several times and transcribed. This was done immediately by collecting data in the field. The researcher read and re-read each transcript to be familiar with it and made observations. She recorded interesting observations and comments in a notebook. Re-reading and taking notes on data allows the researcher to be familiar with data and immersed in the data so that he/she makes meaning of the data (Bengtsson, 2016; Braun & Clarke, 2012).

4.6.2 Code generation

The data were organized into codes to make meaning and reduce it. Codes are building blocks of analysis (Braun & Clark, 2012). They identify and provide a label for the feature of the data that is potentially relevant to the research question (Braun & Clark, 2012). The codes should be relevant to the research questions (Braun & Clark, 2012). They reflect participants' meanings and they provide an interpretation of data content. The researcher labelled important features such as academic leadership roles, sources of the roles, challenges facing academic leaders as well as suggested strategies to address the challenges.

The features were coded manually guided by research questions, theoretical framework, and literature concepts (Ngulube, 2018). Each feature that was relevant to

research questions was assigned a code. The researcher used open coding - that is, codes were developed and modified as she proceeded with the coding process. In short, there were no pre-set codes, for instance, for academic leadership roles features such as: setting a vision/direction/mission, providing teaching and learning materials, and administrative roles. This process was done for each set of questions according to the objectives for all ten transcripts.

In this research, manual coding was used. Coding refers to finding a label that allows the grouping of several elements under one concept (Flick, 2013). It allowed the researcher to control the ideas obtained and interpreted the terms. All relevant information was coded. The generated codes were reviewed and modified before moving to the rest of the transcripts. The same process was done for all the transcripts. As new codes emerged, some codes were merged and modified. This was done by hand, through hard copies of transcripts with different coloured pens and highlighters.

4.6.3 Theme searching

The researcher created themes out of the codes. A theme is a coherent and meaningful pattern in the data relevant to the research question (Braune & Clarke, 2006). Themes emerge from similar codes. They capture something significant or interesting about the data and or research question. Themes emerge from several coded data. The researcher looked for themes that emerged and find out relationships among the concepts.

The coded data were analysed and sorted into potential themes. For instance, there were several codes of academic leadership roles- supervising teaching and learning, monitoring teaching and learning, getting human resources, providing teaching and learning materials, and so forth. These were collated into the initial theme called Perspectives on academic leadership roles. This process involved reviewing coded data to identify areas of similarity and overlaps between the codes. That is the identification of broader topics or issues from the codes. It encompasses clustering codes that share features. For instance, providing human resources and providing teaching and learning materials were collapse as providing teaching and learning materials.

4.6.4 Theme revision

The researcher refined the themes by reviewing and modifying the initially developed ones until she/he was satisfied that they represent the opinions and feelings of the research participants. This process involves reviewing potential themes, and checking whether the themes collate with codes and data. Some were revised and put under the correct theme and some were discarded. Braun & Clarke (2006) advises that researchers should ensure that the theme is a theme, not a code; check if it relates to the research questions; examine if it has enough data to support it.

The researcher then read through the data associated with each theme to determine if it makes sense; supports the theme; fits into the theme and checks for overlaps and subthemes. For example, the theme was academic leadership roles- there should be enough data to explain that theme (like setting direction, providing teaching and learning materials and so forth). The researcher considered those supported by two or more interviewees as a sub-theme. In some cases, the themes were supported by the literature. Those that were not supported, that is outliers, were identified and highlighted when reporting the findings.

4.6.5 Theme definition

The researcher provided a detailed description of each theme and identified the essence of the theme. Here, she wrote a story out of the themes. Thereafter, they selected extracts from the transcripts to quote and provided a structure of analysis; that is, an analytic narrative to tell the reader what the extract is interesting and why? The data were interpreted and connected to the broader research questions in a scholarly manner within which the study is located. Furthermore, the probing questions informed the themes, as well as the theoretical framework and literature concepts.

4.6.6 Reporting

This is the final phase of the analysis. The findings were presented according to the research questions: academic leadership roles of college leaders; how academic leadership influence the culture of teaching and learning; challenges facing academic leaders; suggested strategies to enhance academic leadership. The themes, patterns,

and categories were linked to the research questions and then discussed based on relevant literature and the theoretical framework.

A summary of the themes was presented and as recommended by Braun and Clarke (2013) “thick descriptions” were presented using verbatim quotations from the transcripts. Discussions were based on relevant literature and the theory. The findings are presented in the next chapter, chapter 5. The next subsection deals with the issues of the trustworthiness of data.

4.7 Data trustworthiness

The study achieved trustworthiness mainly through the triangulation of different methods and sources of data; that is individual interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. Anney (2014) argues that trustworthiness ensures reliable and valid data in qualitative research. Lincoln and Guba (1985) advise that trustworthiness entails credibility, dependability, conformability, transferability and reflexivity. Specifically, for this study, the measures were employed as follows:

4.7.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to how the researcher ensures rigour in the research process and how the researcher can communicate what the data reveal or has he or she has done (Anney, 2014). Additionally, Mertens (2018) summarises credibility as confidence in the accuracy of findings. In short, it is the believability of participants.

To establish credibility, the study employed triangulation and member checking. Shenton (2004) suggests triangulation and member checking as a means of improving the credibility of qualitative data. Mabry (2012) explains triangulation as a process that involves collecting data from different persons or entities, different methods, different times, and different observers. Triangulation involves cross-checking data using multiple data sources or multiple data-collection procedures (Anney, 2014; Shenton, 2004).

For triangulation, the study utilized three methods of data collection (interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis) from different informants (principals, vice principals, HODs, senior lecturers, and students). In this study, the different methods

sought to contrast the data and 'validate' the data if it yields similar findings. Additionally, in this study, the different people allowed confirmation or disconfirmation of information because different observers might interpret it differently. Therefore, triangulation, in the researcher's estimation, enabled her to answer the research questions.

Furthermore, member-checking was adopted to eliminate bias when analysing and interpreting the results. Seale (2011) describes member-checking as showing interview transcripts and research reports to participants and confirming whether they agree or disagree with the way they have been presented. Member checking allows the participants to check if what is in the data is what was intended (Shenton, 2004). So after transcribing the interviews, the researcher sent the transcripts to the respective interviewees to verify if the data were appropriate and accurately captured. Corrections were made where there was a need to do so.

4.7.2 Dependability

Dependability refers to the consistency and accuracy of data (Anney, 2014). In other words, this is the replicability of the study. This means if the study would be repeated would it yield similar results? One of the ways of achieving dependability is by demonstrating an audit trail (Anney, 2014). Audit trails, or meticulous logs and records concerning one's research methods and decisions, ensure that every aspect of the data collection and analysis can be traced and verified by others (Suter, 2014). An audit trail allows research teams and outside researchers to reconstruct the work of the original researcher (Seale, 2011).

For this study, when going to the field to collect data, the researcher kept notes during data collection, writing all decisions that were made, reflective thoughts, including sampling, the emergence of findings, how data was managed, and noting any changes. For example, she listed what she did each day that she conducted the interviews and the focus group interviews. This process is supported by Cohen, Manion and Morrison, (2007) who propose that documentation of data methods and decisions be made during the research to attain dependable data.

Furthermore, she described the research design and how it was implemented, and how data were collected as advised by Shenton (2004). In short, to achieve dependability, the researcher provided detailed descriptions of all procedures, how data were collected and recorded and analysed. For example, for data analysis during the coding process, she described how she worked from individual codes to themes and how the themes were clustered into subthemes. This is detailed under the subtopic data analysis in this chapter.

4.7.3 Confirmability

Confirmability establishes clarity about where data came from and how it was transformed into findings (Symon & Cassel, 2012). Put in simple terms, it means the degree to which results can be corroborated by others, that is objective Moser and Korstjens (2018) argue that to establish confirmability, interpretations should not be based on the researcher's preferences and viewpoints but should be based on data. More so they indicated how the data are linked to their sources so that a reader can establish that the conclusions and interpretations arise directly from them.

In this study, to achieve confirmability, when reporting and interpreting the findings, the participants' verbatim quotes were cited to support each theme. Also, the discussions were based on literature and theoretical framework. To conclude, the findings checked if they addressed the overall aim of the research, achieved the research objectives and lastly, if the findings answered the research questions.

4.7.4 Transferability

Transferability means the applicability of findings to other settings or groups of people (Featherson, 2008). To establish transferability, Moser and Korstjens (2018) suggest that the researcher should provide a thick description of the participants and the research process so that the research can be done in other settings.

Many qualitative studies like this study involve very small samples and it is the role of the researcher to help the reader transfer the specific knowledge gained from the research findings of one study to another setting (Anney, 2014). For this research, the interest was not to generalize but to explore academic leadership and gain in-depth data. So the two selected TTCs may benefit from the study. More so, TTCs with similar

characteristics within the country and the college leaders, lecturers, and students who participated in the study may benefit.

The participants included different categories. These categories were two principals, two vice principals, six HODs, four senior lecturers, eight lecturers and twelve students. The participants were selected based on the understanding that they provided relevant information for the study and their willingness to participate in the study. The principals and vice principals were selected based on the position they held.

While HODs, senior lecturers and lecturers included both males and females of different ages, qualifications and work experiences. The principals were requested to select the HODs, senior lecturers and lecturers depending on their availability. HODs and lecturers must have served at least two years in the position and in that institution and they were selected with the assistance of the principal. The student participants were selected with the assistance of the office of the Deans of Students' Affairs and were selected from the completing classes (third year).

4.7.5 Reflexivity

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), reflexivity is the process of critical self-reflection about oneself as a researcher, which is biases, preferences, and preconceptions. It also includes the research relation, which is the relationship with the respondents and how the research affects participants' answers to questions.

Transparency about the researcher's position and potential biases and assumptions is vital in judging accounts of qualitative researchers and the authenticity of findings (Reid et al, 2018). The researcher is familiar with the TTCs because she had work experience as a senior lecturer in one of the colleges' understudy. There was a possibility that my presence would make some of the participants uncomfortable or excited.

The practitioner-researcher position is valuable in developing practice insights, although it may bring assumptions and biases which have ethical implications (Reid et al, 2018). The researcher maintained an open, truthful and honest interaction with participants. Furthermore, ethics are discussed in detail in the next subtopic. So, to

ensure the authenticity of the results, the researcher remained objective and unbiased. This was achieved through having a debriefing session before collecting data. I explained that the data would only be for the study and therefore, I would be collecting the data as a researcher, not as a college officer. I also explained the methods and participants and how data would be collected. During the interviews and focus group sessions, the participants were advised to be open and remain comfortable during the individual interviews session and focus group sessions. They were assured that the data would only be for the research.

To reduce subjectivity and biases, Moser and Korstjens (2018) propose the use of reflexive notes. Reflexive notes also include the researcher's subjective responses to the setting and the relationship with interviews (Moser & Korstjens (2018)). Before collecting the data, the researcher noted her initial impressions of each of the interviews or focus groups and noted patterns that appear to emerge in the data collected while in the field. In the reflexive notes, she described the settings and aspects of the interviews themselves like the date, time, and place where interviews were conducted as proposed by Pillow (2010). Subsequently, to avoid diluting findings, the researcher took and compiled notes strictly reflecting the participants' opinions. Also, thoughts and actions associated with the research process were recorded.

Additionally, all the interviews and focus group sessions were audio recorded to ensure accurate capture of participants' responses. While transcribing the audiotapes and analyzing them, she also kept notes.

4.7.6 Piloting

Ismail, Kinchin and Edwards (2018) define a pilot study as a small scale-research conducted before the final full-scale study. Ismail et al (2018) further claim that a pilot study reduces the risk of committing errors and possibly identifies and addresses potential problems that could arise from the instruments and participants. Smithson (2012) recommends highly recommends testing the focus group guide with a pilot group. Additionally, piloting helps to refine the questions (Castillo-Montoya, 2016).

Hence, the individual interviews and the focus group were piloted in one of the government colleges that has not been included in the study. It was piloted using one HOD and one vice principal. While the focus group interviews were tested with four students in the same college. These sessions were not recorded because the interest was in improving the instrument rather than keeping the data. Participation is voluntary participation and keeping information confidential and anonymous and so forth.

The researcher's rationale for conducting the pilot study was to test the interview and focus group interview guide and to identify practical issues and difficulties that were likely to happen so they are addressed in advance as (Kim, 2010) advises. Similarly, Majid, Othman, Mohamad Lim and Yusof (2017) conducted a pilot study to check the appropriateness of questions to seek appropriateness for context and explore as well as prepare for the major study. They observed that it allows the researcher to practice interview techniques, and modify suggestions before the large-scale interviewing.

The next subsection discusses ethical issues and how they were addressed in the current study.

4.8 Ethical issues

When researching humans as subjects, Babbie (2011) emphasises the importance of ethics. Research ethics deals primarily with the interaction between researchers and the people being studied. Hence, qualitative research stresses the importance of ethics especially because the researcher gets information directly from the participants. When conducting research, the well-being of participants must be our top priority (Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest and Namey (2005). Therefore, the study addressed the ethical issues as follows

4.8.1 Ethical clearance

Ethical clearance was sought from the Research Ethics Committee at the University of South Africa (UNISA), College of Education. Institutional boards ensure ethical practice and high-quality research (Hamilton & Whittier, 2014). Thus, the researcher

submitted a completed research ethical clearance form for approval to the Research ethics committee explaining the purpose of the study and procedures to be followed when collecting data as recommended by the research ethics committee. The ethical committee issued a letter of ethical clearance allowing me to collect data which is attached in Appendix A.

4.8.2 Access and permission

To gain access to the participants, permission was first sought from the Director of the Ministry of Education and Training of Eswatini, then from the principals as gatekeepers of the two colleges where data were collected. The Director requested a list of institutions to collect data, an ethical clearance letter, a brief research proposal as well a letter requesting permission to collect data. The letter is attached in Appendix B. All these documents were hand-delivered by the researcher to the director's office. Hamilton and Whittier (2014) advise that you need to get clearance for entry into the institution from some groups of people or individuals.

Upon attaining permission from the director, further permission requesting the participation of the principals themselves, vice principals, HODs, senior lecturers, lecturers, and students was sought from the respective principals of the colleges. The request letter is attached in Appendix D.

Lastly, research participants were requested for their participation in the study which included the purpose and objectives of the study as well as their informed consent. The informed consent is attached in Appendix E and is described in the next subsection.

4.8.3 Informed consent and voluntary participation

Informed consent is a mechanism for ensuring that people understand what it means to participate in a particular study so that they decide consciously and deliberately whether they want to participate in a study (Mack et al, 2005). It ensures respect for the person. Informed consent entails informing the participants about the overall purpose of the study, the main features of the design, risks, and benefits of participating (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2017). It involves getting voluntary participation and

informing participants that they have a right to withdraw from the study at any time (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2017).

Upon gaining entry to the site, the researcher negotiated with participants (Hamilton & Whittier, 2014). Toepoel (2017) suggests that to gain entry, participants should be informed about the purpose of the study, why it is important, and potential risks, and benefits as suggested. So she had a debriefing session with the potential participants where she clearly explained to them the purpose of the study, listed the objectives of the study, and procedures including how the interview and focus group sessions would be done and the estimated time and venues of conducting the interviews. The debriefing sessions were separated, for principals; vice principals; HODs; senior lecturers and lecturers; students in the respective colleges. The potential participants were allowed to make comments and seek clarity where they needed it.

During the briefing session, she also infused information that participation was voluntary. The researcher asked the participants to complete the consent forms. Consent must be voluntary, and the right to refuse, and retain the right to withdraw at any time during the study (Hamilton & Whittier, 2014). Henceforth, the consent forms were filled out by participants before interviews and focus group interviews respectively. Brooks, Reiele and Maguiere (2015) stress voluntary participation in research. Participants were given the liberty to withdraw at any time as advised by (Thomas & Hodges, 2013). Therefore, the researcher considered the ethical norm of voluntary participation and no harm to participants.

4.8.4 Protection of confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy

The researcher assured participants of confidentiality, guaranteed anonymity and privacy. Confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy should be ensured (Toepoel, 2017). The assurance was included in the consent forms that were signed by both the participant and the researcher.

Confidentiality- The participants were assured that personal information would not be disclosed to the public and nobody would access the data apart from the researcher. This was done verbally and written in the letter requesting their participation in the study. According to Brinkmann and Kvale (2017), confidentiality implies that private

data identifying participants will not be reported. They were assured that their names and another characteristic that identified them were removed. Their names were not used and the names of the colleges were not mentioned in the findings.

Anonymity- the researcher assured the participants that their personal information and identity would not be revealed. The names of colleges and participants were not published. Instead, the colleges and the participants were coded for purposes of anonymity. For example, the colleges were labelled as College A and College B. The participants were labelled as; for example, principals were P1 and P2, Vice principals were VP1 and VP2; HODs as HOD1, HOD 2 and so forth; Senior lecturers were labelled SL1, SL2 and so forth; lecturers have coded L1, L2 etc; lastly students were named S1, S2 and so forth.

Privacy- participants were allowed to choose how much information they want to reveal and were not coerced into giving information. The interviews were audio-recorded upon individual consent and were saved on the researcher's computer which can only be accessed by the researcher using a password.

4.8.5 Responsibilities to human participants

The participants were treated with respect and the researcher explained that the purpose of the study and data would not be used for personal gains by the researcher. This was included in the request for a participation letter. McGinn (2015) advises that the researcher should disclose potential risks and benefits. No potential harm was associated with this study and the researcher promised that upon its completion, she would share its findings with the participants.

4.9 Limitations of the study

Limitations are matters and occurrences that arise which are out of the researchers' control that could constrain a study (Simon & Goes, 2013). A limitation of this study was the selection of only two government teacher training colleges. This limited generalisability. However, the study was not designed to generalize but to explore and get an in-depth understanding of views and experiences on academic leadership of teaching and teaching in the selected colleges. That is, it is intended to get the participant's unfiltered voices and record them accurately. Since the study was

exploratory, the findings illuminated issues that could improve professional practice and provide future research opportunities.

4.10 Chapter summary

This chapter dealt with the research approach and methodology. The study adopted interpretivism as a philosophical stance and is qualitative research. Furthermore, the study is a multiple-case study design. This chapter also provided a detailed description of the three data collection instruments; individual semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews, and document analysis including their relevance to the study, data collection procedures that were carried out; as well as how data were analysed and interpreted. The data were analysed using a thematic approach by Bruan and Burke.

The study also sought reliability and validity. Reliability was sought through triangulation, member checking, description of participants and data collection procedures. On the other hand, validity was obtained through pilot testing of the interview schedules in one college that was not included in the findings of the study.

Lastly, the discussion of ethical issues such as ethical clearance was obtained from the UNISA Research ethics committee; permission was sought from the Director of Education as well as principals who were gatekeepers of the colleges. Participants were requested to sign informed consent forms and they were assured of privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity. This leads to the next chapter of findings and discussion.

CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS, FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to explore academic leadership of teaching and learning in Eswatini TTCs. The previous chapter presented the methods of data collection and associated instruments as well as how data were analysed. The data were collected using individual and focus group interviews and document analysis. The data were analysed using thematic analysis as described in detail in chapter 4 section 4.6.

This chapter presents the findings of the study and is guided by the four research questions: a) What are the perspectives of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two selected TTCs regarding the academic leadership role of college leaders in teaching and learning?; b) How do college leaders of the two TTCs create the culture of teaching and learning?; c) Which challenges do the leaders of the selected colleges experience regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning?; d) What strategies are necessary to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning at the two selected TTCs?

Data were collected from two TTCs in Eswatini. The two colleges were purposively selected to ensure the homogeneity of the population (Robison, 2013). These were both government TTCs; they had similar governance; similar organisational structures; offer similar programmes, both affiliated to the same institution; they mainly focused on teacher pre-service training. Therefore, this chapter begins by presenting the biographic characteristics of the participants.

5.2 Characteristics of the participants

The biographic characteristics of the participants are presented in three tables: Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. Table 5.1 shows the characteristics of the ten college leaders (2 principals, 2 vice principals and 6 HODs) who were interviewed in the study in terms of gender, designation, academic qualification, experience and site in their current leadership position.

Table 5.1 Characteristics of college leaders

Code	Gender	Designation	Highest education level	Experience in position (years)	Site
VP1	male	Vice principal	PhD	7	College A
HOD1	male	HOD	Masters	6	College A
HOD2	female	HOD	Masters	10	College B
HOD3	female	HOD	PhD	12	College A
HOD4	male	HOD	masters	6	College B
HOD5	female	HOD	PhD	3	College A
VP2	male	Acting Vice principal	Masters	6-months	College B
HOD6	female	HOD	Masters	11	College B
P1	male	Principal	PhD	15	College B
P2	male	Principal	PhD	8	College A

The college leaders were assigned codes; P1 and P2 are the principals, VP 1 and VP2 are vice principals and lastly, HOD 1 to 6 are the Heads of departments of the two colleges A and B. The codes were used to protect their identities. The research sites were also labelled as colleges A and B.

Both genders were represented fairly among the college leaders, four females and six males. Concerning the highest education attained, five leaders had doctoral degrees while the other five had master's degrees. A majority of the college leaders have considerable years of experience in their leadership position, ranging from 3 to 15 years except for one vice principal who was in the position of acting capacity and having acted for 6 months.

The next table 5.2 presents the characteristics of the college lecturers who participated in the focus group interviews.

Table 5.2 Characteristics of college lecturers

Code	Gender	Designation	Highest education level	Experience in post (years)	Site
SLA1	male	senior lecturer	PhD	4	College A
LA1	male	lecturer	Bachelors	10	College A
SLA2	female	senior lecturer	Honours	3	College A
LA2	male	lecturer	Masters	2.5	College A

LA3	female	lecturer	Masters	15	College A
LA4	female	lecturer	Masters	3	College A
LA5	female	lecturer	Masters	11	College A
LB1	female	lecturer	Masters	3	College B
LB2	female	lecturer	Bachelors	3	College B
LB3	female	lecturer	Masters	2	College B
SLB1	male	senior lecturer	Bachelors	8	College B
LB4	female	lecturer	Masters	4	College B

From Table 5.2, it is shown that twelve college lecturers participated in the focus group interviews from College A and B combined. Seven participants were from College A while 5 were from College B. Initially, six participants had been invited from both colleges. However, in College A one participant had declined to participate in the study, then the researcher replaced the participant, only to find that on the day of the focus group session that the participant who had declined showed up, making a total of seven participants instead of six. The researcher welcomed the participant. With regards to participants from College B, one did not show up yet he had agreed to participate in the study, hence they were five instead of six.

Of the twelve participants, three were senior lecturers while the rest were lecturers. Concerning the gender of the participants, the study included eight females and four males, as shown in table 5.2. This indicates that both genders were represented although the majority were female. Table 5.2 also reveals the highest education level of the participants: one participant held a PhD, seven attained a master's degree, one had an honours degree and lastly, two had bachelor's degree. This shows that the majority had a master's degree. Their work experience ranged from 2 to 15 years which shows that they had the reasonable experience to provide information relating to academic leadership in the colleges.

Lastly, table 5.3 reflects the characteristics of students who participated in the study.

Table 5.3 Characteristics of students

Code	Gender	Age	Area of specialisation	Site
SA1	male	21	Languages	College A
SA2	male	20	Languages	College A
SA3	male	26	Social studies	College A
SA4	female	22	Languages	College A
SA5	female	22	Languages	College A
SA6	female	21	Languages	College A
SA7	male	24	Languages	College A
SB1	female	30	Social studies	College B
SB2	male-	25	Sciences	College B
SB3	male	25	Sciences	College B
SB4	female	27	Sciences	College B
SB5	male	24	Sciences	College B
SB6	male	24	Applied sciences	College B

From table 5.3, thirteen students participated in the focus group interviews. The expected number of participants was twelve, six from each college. However, in College A, one extra participant volunteered to participate in the focus group session. The participant showed up in the focus group after having been invited by one of the peers. The researcher allowed the volunteering participant, making a total of seven participants from College A. The figure was still within the range of the number of participants as advised by Krueger & Casey (2000) who suggest five to eight participants for a focus group interview.

Of the thirteen participants, five were females and the eight were males as shown in table 5.3. This means both genders were fairly represented. All thirteen participants were selected from a final year group (Year 3). The assumption was that they would be able to provide the required information. Also, the participants were mature enough to participate in the study considering their ages which ranged from 20 to 30 years old.

Moreover, all four areas of specialization in the college programmes were represented, although a majority of the participants came from languages. Thus, six students came from languages, four from sciences, two from social studies, and only one from applied science. The next subsection presents the themes that emerged from the data.

5.3 Data analysis process

The data from the individual and focus group interviews were analysed using thematic analysis and are presented in themes. After the collection of data by recording, each recording was played back several times and transcribed. The transcribed data were read over and over to get the researcher familiar with the data.

The researcher looked for themes that emerged to find relationships among concepts. After the researcher got familiar with the information constituting data, she created codes and subsequently created sub-themes (categories) out of the codes. The researcher refined the themes until she was satisfied that they represented the opinions of the research participants.

To illustrate the data analysis process, objective 3 had been utilised and the findings were extracted from a sample of a transcript attached in Appendix N. The summary of the analysis from the transcript is presented in table 5.3.

Example: Objective 3: Examine challenges facing these leaders regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning.

Table 5.4 Illustration of how data were analysed

Theme	Subthemes/categories	Issues raised/codes
Challenges facing AL in teaching and learning	Insufficient Resources	-Shortage of lecturers -Shortage of funds -Shortage of TL materials -Delayed delivery of TL materials -Freezing of posts

From the sample transcript (appendix N), the theme was challenges facing academic leadership was derived from research objective 3. The issues raised were identified as codes and these were: a shortage of lecturers, shortage of funds, shortage of teaching and learning materials, delayed deliveries, and freezing of posts. From this finding it was ascertained all these issues raised are related to inadequate resources hence the category is insufficient resources. Therefore, the findings reveal that the one of challenges facing the participants' academic leadership was insufficient

resources. These resources include a shortage of lecturers, teaching as well as learning materials. When reporting, the direct verbatim of the transcript was quoted and thick descriptions were presented as shown in section 5.7.3 of this chapter. This leads to the next subsection which is the presentation of findings.

5.4 Findings from the interviews

Four themes emerged from the analysis of data from both individual and focus group interviews. Therefore, the findings are presented according to the four thematic areas: 1) Academic leadership roles of college leaders. This theme reflects the academic leadership roles of college leaders in influencing teaching and learning from the perspectives of principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students; 2) Creating the culture of teaching and learning; this thematic area describes how college leaders influenced the culture of teaching and learning. The theme further identified the leadership activities, strategies, and measures employed by college leaders in promoting teaching and learning; 3) Challenges facing academic leadership of teaching and learning. This theme focused on the problems, barriers, and constraints that hindered academic leadership of teaching and learning; 4) Strategies for improving academic leadership of teaching and learning. Lastly, this theme reflected suggestions and ideas on how to enhance or improve academic leadership of teaching and learning. The thematic areas are summarised in Figure 5.1.

5.4 Theme 1: Academic leadership roles of college leaders

This thematic area reflects the academic leadership roles of college leaders from the perspective of principals, vice principals, and HODs. For this study, academic leadership was conceptualised as anything the college leaders do in the TTCs to enhance and improve teaching and learning. This definition is in line with Pelonis & Gialamas (2010) who explain that academic leadership is the continuous act of all constituents of an academic institution to accomplish its mission and to provide the best educational experience for students.

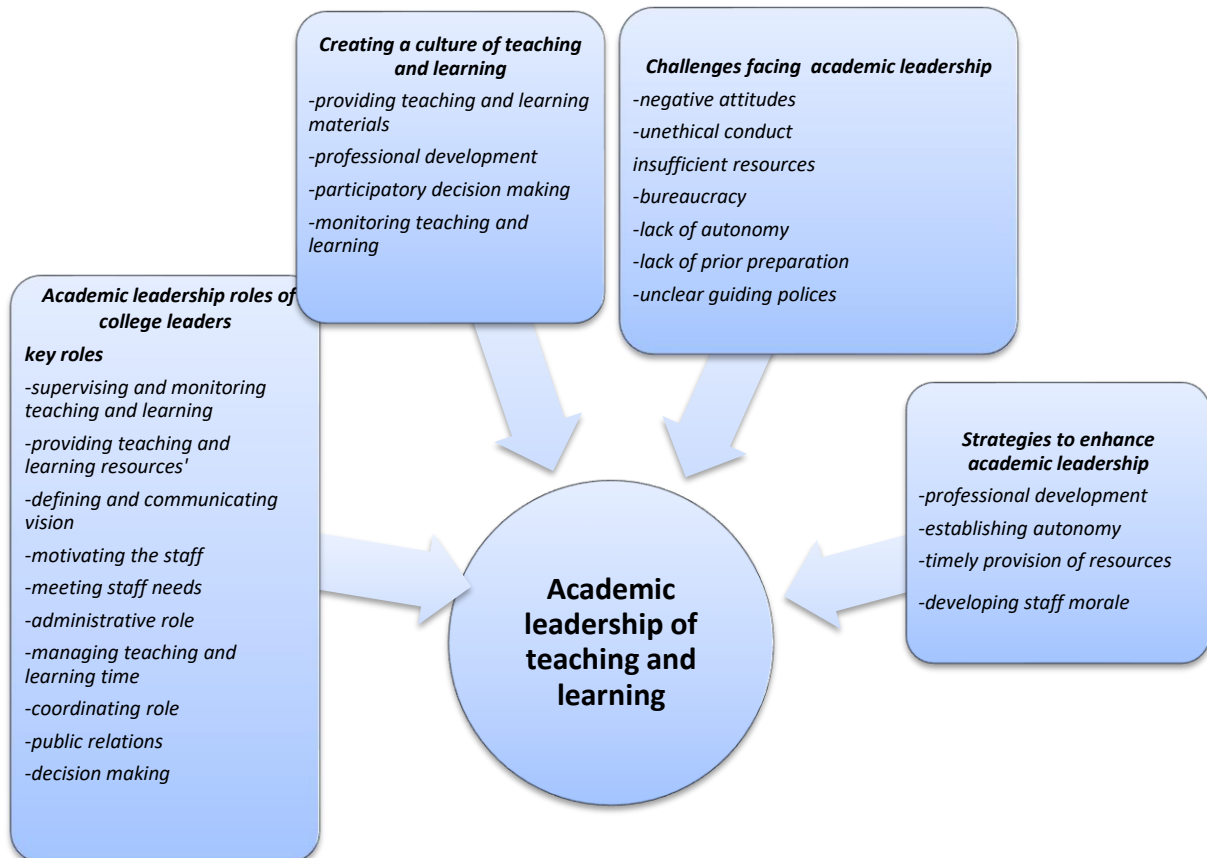


Figure 5.1: Themes identified from the data

The theme, therefore, identified the academic leadership roles of college leaders in teaching and learning from the viewpoint of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students. The data were collected using individual semi-structured interviews with two principals, two vice principals and six HODs. The findings were triangulated using focus group interviews of lecturers as well as that of students.

To obtain the data, the participants were asked what they considered to be their understanding of the leadership role of principals, vice principals and HODs in improving teaching and learning in the TTCs. From the data, it came out that the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students hold similar views on the academic leadership roles of college leaders.

5.4.1 Academic leadership roles from college leaders' perspective

From the data, seven subthemes were generated which are; supervising and monitoring the teaching and learning, providing teaching and learning resources,

defining the vision and giving direction, motivating the staff, meeting staff needs, administrative role, and lastly, organising the college.

5.4.1.1 Supervising and monitoring teaching and learning

The data reflect that principals, vice principals, and HODs considered supervising and monitoring teaching and learning as their academic leadership role in the TTCs. This subtheme encompasses overseeing, monitoring, and ensuring that teaching and learning took place.

The data revealed that principals oversaw teaching and learning processes. For instance, the vice principal from College A made this comment:

The principal focuses on teaching and learning err processes. He oversee the processes err where lecturers are engaged in teaching, while learners are engaged in learning of the teaching and learning process. They are guided by the principal (VP1).

On a similar note, the data revealed that principals monitored teaching and learning. This is what HOD6 said:

Another responsibility for the principal is monitoring that teaching and learning is taking place in the manner that it should (HOD6)

Additionally, HOD1 mentioned that principals ensured that teaching and learning took place. Here is a verbatim quote from the interview:

Mhh to me the most important duty of the principal is to see to it that teaching and learning takes place in the institution (HOD1).

This was further stressed by HOD2 who stated that the principals supervised teaching and learning:

Mhh well my understanding in teaching and learning, of the role of the principal, what shall I say, he is the supervisor of what happens in teaching and learning, errr he sees to it that does teaching and learning really happen? Ehmm what is really happening? Most of the time than to be quiet and look at other issues and forget about teaching and learning. He understands that in his supervision he

takes care of all teaching and learning issues. For instance, find out if those issues will not tarnish the curriculum because some activities that happen in the classroom compromise teaching and learning, yet if he is around to supervise people will know that even if they play I will be answerable to someone. And he can ask both sides the lecturers and students (HOD2)

The above extracts indicate that the principal was an overall supervisor of teaching and learning including monitoring the curriculum. Also, the caption indicates that these leaders supervised the staff members. Similarly, So (2016) contends that the role of academic leadership in teaching encompasses curriculum development, delivery and review of quality assurance of teaching programmes. Hence the finding supports the existing literature.

The findings further revealed that the supervision and monitoring role was shared among the college leaders. Saroyan et al (2011) support that academic leadership is shared by people at all levels, it is distributed in nature. Similarly, the data indicates that the vice principal shared the supervision and monitoring role with the principal as well as with the HODs. Here is the evidence:

Emm the vice principal I guess it's more like the same thing as the principal, because vice principal most of the things reported to him especially the academics. So ehm he is more into the teaching and learning than the principal. So the vice principal works together with the HOD, because the HODs teach, they are hands on in the classroom. So the supervision rest upon the three people quite a lot (HOD2).

The data show that a majority of the college leaders, that is seven of them, considered the vice principal to be responsible for supervising, overseeing, and guiding the day-to-day teaching and learning. For instance, according to HOD1, the vice principals supervised teaching and learning. This is evident in these comments:

The duties of the vice principals are more or less the same as principals. But I think the vice principal is more hands-on when it comes to matters of teaching

and learning. So the vice principal is also supervising, is acting in a supervisory role to see to it that effective teaching and learning takes place (HOD1).

The above extract indicates that the vice principals directly supervised teaching and learning. This means they ensured that daily activities of teaching and learning took place and these involved class attendance, assessment and timetabling. This was iterated by VP1 who said:

Now, the vice-principal oversees or monitors the day-to-day teaching and learning in the classrooms. The vice principal in the college, his function is that he heads the teaching and learning processes, the academic function of the institution. All the academic functions of the institution, they are being monitored on daily bases by the vice principal. That is, class attendances, recording of marks, computing of results, releasing of results, issuing almanac. The vice principal ensures that all are in place (VP1)

The quote from VP1 revealed that the vice principals monitored academic functions, that is, teaching and learning activities. Such activities included attendance, assessments, and managing time for teaching and learning. This was also supported by HOD 4 who said:

Ok the vice principal makes sure that the almanac for the institution is in place, ahh timetable for teaching, as well as examinations. All those fall under his jurisdiction basically (HOD4).

While the vice principals are perceived to share the role of supervising and monitoring teaching and learning with the principals. It came out that the vice principal's role focused on monitoring and supervising academics. Academics in this context refers to teaching and learning as opposed to administrative affairs. Here is the evidence:

But when it comes to academics, the vice principal becomes a technician who is going to oversee teaching and learning. To me, the HODs are technicians too. So he oversees if the goals of the institution are being implemented by the

technicians. The vice principal actually looks into err he looks mainly in our case he looks into the academic aspect, running of the college, but the academic part. So that's where any challenges that are faced by lecturers or teachers have to be attended to if yah it needs him to work on those. But otherwise that's basically his major role, looking at the academical, how the college operates on the aspects of learning and teaching (HOD4).

The monitoring of academics was further supported by VP2 who said:

Ok now in terms of leadership err and its relationship with academia, what basically happens in the office of the vice principal he is or she is more directly involved in terms of academics. Making sure that the curriculum is updated. Being make sure that faculty members all have tools. Being make sure that teaching is done on time. He makes sure that high standards are applied. Basically, that's the general overview of what the vice principal does. He is the centre in terms of academics (VP2)

The above excerpt from VP2 reveals that the academics seemed to be the teaching and learning but not the administration. This finding implies that the vice principal was seen as an academic leader who directly supervised teaching and learning. This claim is supported by the principal from college A, who mentioned that the vice principal managed teaching and learning, here is a direct quote:

When it comes to my opinion with the vice principal, the vice principal has got this err duties that he has to manage mainly in our case it has to do with the teaching and learning. That is the basic, has got to do with the teaching and learning. Err has to ensure that the teaching and learning is taking place in the various departments (P2).

So far, the findings reveal that the supervisory role was shared among the principals, vice principals, and HODs. This indicates that the college leaders shared their leadership. Shared or distributed leadership cannot be overemphasized in HE. Todorut (2017) and Bolden et al (2012) propose that shared or distributed leadership

may be an appropriate model for academic institutions because leaders can never know everything.

5.4.1.2 Providing teaching and learning resources

The data showed that only three college leaders viewed the provision of resources as an academic leadership role. This subtheme considers materials and personnel. Here is evidence to support the finding that principals are perceived to be responsible for providing teaching and learning resources:

Now, the leadership role of a principal borders on involves purchasing teaching and learning materials, that is providing teaching and learning materials to lecturers for the college to continue with its function (VP1).

The data revealed that the role of providing teaching and learning materials was distributed to vice principals. The college leaders alleged that vice principals also provided teaching and learning materials. However, HOD5 mentioned that the vice principals facilitated the provision of the materials. Here is a comment to support the finding:

Errr well the vice principal I think err facilitate in the acquisition of resources yes. Teaching and learning resources. (HOD5)

The captions indicate that vice principals facilitated the provision of teaching and materials. It further emerged that HODs were also responsible for providing teaching tools. Here is evidence from HOD4:

HODs provide all the necessary tools they (lecturers) need for making teaching go smooth (HOD4)

Still, on providing teaching and learning resources, VP1 mentioned that HODs ensured the availability of human resources. This is what the VP said:

The HOD ensures that every class has a teacher. So HOD provides leadership to ensure that every course that is offered by the department has a lecturer attached to it (VP1).

Providing teaching and learning resources emerged as one of the academic leadership roles perceived to be distributed to all college leaders. Leaders should ensure teaching resources (Scott & Scott, 2011). Some researchers argue that providing teaching and learning materials like human resources is an administrative role than a leadership role. However, in the TTCs, this was considered as an academic leadership role of principals and vice principals.

5.4.1.3 Defining and communicating the vision

The data reflected that a majority of the college leaders were of the view that another academic leadership role of the principals was to define the vision and communicate it. This subtheme covers defining the college's vision, goals, giving direction and communicating expectations. Giving direction means determining goals that create direction (Bellibas et al., 2016). To support this finding, here is an interview excerpt from Principal 1:

The leadership role of the principal and the vice principal in my opinion err concerns leading the team. You set out academic goals and programmes. You give clarity and direction to the team as per the mandate of the institution. (P1).

It also came out that principals are expected to define vision goals and communicate them to subordinates. Vice principal 2 made this comment:

As a principal, in leadership, physically you are the head and the leader of that institution. How do you communicate the vision and mission of that college or that institution to the people who are serving? So yours is to build the vision. What strategies should be put in place that unpacks the vision and mission to find out if can be implemented and implementable? That is my understanding of the academic leadership of the administration or the principal is that (VP2)

Vice principal from college B mentioned in the conversation quoted above that principals created the vision of the institution, communicates and set up strategies for implementing the vision. Apart from goal setting, Kwar (2012) claims that leaders

shape institutions by setting instructions to be followed. Likewise, in colleges, the principal communicates the expectations. This was also supported by the vice principal of college A, who said:

The principal also sets he set the climate, the tone of doing work in the institution to both lecturers and students. The principal has time at the beginning of the year or semester where he addresses the students and lecturers to give direction as to what is to be done and how work should be done. The level of commitment, quality, and the standards they are set by the principal (VP1)

The excerpt above by the vice principal from College A implies that after setting direction, the leader must communicate it to the subordinates. This is in line with the perspective of the leadership of teaching and learning in HE, that the leaders shared the vision with lecturers and students to facilitate ownership and common understanding (Fahamirad et al., 2016).

5.4.1.4 Motivating the staff

This subtheme considers motivating the staff. Some of the participant college leaders believed that another academic leadership role of the principals was to motivate the lecturers to do their work. Motivation in this context considers encouraging the lecturers to do their work and implement the college vision. Academic leaders should motivate, inspire, direct, and lead faculty members towards the achievement of the shared objective (Siddique et al., 2011). Here are interview excerpts to support the claim:

The principal also motivates the work that has to be done. He motivates lecturers (VP1)

Mhh I think I role of the principal ehh is just to motivate err the staff to act on the vision of the college. That's to me that one stands out. Because you are motivating everyone in the institution to act on the vision (HOD3)

Alright Emm my understanding of the leadership role of a principal in influencing teaching and learning in a college is that he should be someone who motivates emm the lecturers who are teaching. (HOD6)

This finding shows that the leaders viewed staff motivation as their role. They regard this role as a responsibility of the principal as stated by HOD6.

5.4.1.5 Meeting staff needs

This subtheme considers the staff welfare needs (physical and emotional needs), HODs believed that leaders should meet the needs of the staff for their wellbeing. Here is a direct quote from HOD5:

Err it is very difficult question err I think one of the things that the principal should do is to ensure that the staff is well taken care of, that is in terms of their welfare so that they are able to apply themselves well in their in their respective err duties. Err looking into issues like err accommodation, availability of resources, err the promptness in providing for their needs is crucial. Also make sure there are good relations between the staff and students, there is harmony in everything that they do. They are able to inculcate a good culture of learning (HOD5)

The quote from HOD5 includes meeting the physical (accommodation and resources) and emotional needs (good relations) of staff.

5.4.1.6 Administrative role

The administrative role of college principals emerged as one of their academic leadership roles. The data showed that the principals were seen as chief administrators. This is derived from the following extracts:

Amm the role of the principal is that he is a chief administrator who actually administrates the operations of all the different departments in the institution under the leadership of the other people like the vice principal, the heads of departments as well as the other people that are there. So the principal is the chief administrator. He has to see to it that things are being done accordingly, as expected in the various department (P2).

The principal is also as an administrator, implementing the college budget (VP1)

These college leaders described the administration role as managing the college departments as well as managing finances as reflected in the above quote by VP1.

5.4.1.7 Managing teaching and learning time

The data revealed that six college leaders believed that the role of vice principals was to manage teaching and learning time. This included providing a timetable and drawing the college almanac. For instance, vice principal 1 emphasized ensuring teaching was done on time. VP1 said:

The vice principal ensures that all are in place, make sure that teaching is done on time and also produces the timetable (VP1),

Ok example making sure that the almanac for the institution is in place, ahh timetable for teaching, as well as examinations (HOD5)

Moreover, from the above quotes by VP1 and HOD5, they suggested that the vice principals protected the instructional time. Likewise, this is a role associated with instructional leadership from which LfL is deduced.

5.4.2 Academic leadership roles from lecturers' perspective

The data were collected from focus group interviews of lecturers from the two colleges. Each college held its interview session.

From the data, the following six subthemes were generated: *supervising and monitoring the teaching and learning, providing teaching and learning resources, defining and communicating the vision, motivating the staff, meeting staff needs, and lastly coordination role.*

5.4.2.1 Supervising and monitoring teaching and learning

The data reflect that the lecturers from both colleges also support that the college leaders supervised and monitored teaching and learning in the colleges. This included ensuring the smooth operation of the college and monitoring the curriculum. To support this, Lecturers from College A said:

I just want to add errr the part of monitoring and controlling errr that he (principal) monitors what is happening in the institution (LA4)

I think the duty of the principal is to supervise the smooth running of the institution (LA5)

Similarly, in College B, the academic staff believed that the principal also monitored the content of the curriculum.

They (principals) also ensure that there is monitoring of the content that is being taught (SLB1)

The above extracts indicate college lecturers expect the principals to influence curriculum implementation.

The lecturers from College B emphasized that the supervision role was shared by the principal, vice principal and HODs. Here is a quote from College B to support the claim:

The vice principal works with the principal and HODs in making sure that the smooth running of the college. HODs go the vice principal to ask for whatever the lecturers need about teaching and learning. And he is the one who ensures that exams are written, results are issued, err what can I say he analyses the results (LB4)

The above caption supports one of the principles of LfL that leadership was shared. Likewise, the lecturers believed that the principals, vice principals, and HODs were responsible for supervising teaching and learning. It also emerged that this supervision was in a hierarchy structure. For instance, the LB4 above mentioned that ‘*HODs go to the vice principals to ask whatever lecturers need about teaching and learning*’. Likewise, literature claims that HEIs are hierarchical.

5.4.2.2 Providing teaching and learning resources

The data showed that in both colleges, the lecturers viewed the provision of resources as a role of the leaders. This subtheme considers the provision of personnel, teaching and learning materials and financial resources. Lecturers from College B expected the leaders to provide the personnel. For instance, they said:

We expect the principal to provide adequate personnel (SLB1)

Also the principal has to ensure that all the departments and the staff, err we have enough staff in the college so that the departments are not overworked.

You find that the staff is not enough in the college (LB3).

The HODs ensure that they have the relevant err personnel to teach in those departments (LB1).

The above captions from SLB1, LB1 and LB3 indicate that the lecturers expected the principals and HODs to recruit lecturers. This suggests that this role was shared between principals and HODs.

Apart from providing human resources, the leaders provided teaching and learning materials. To support this claim one senior lecturer said:

Then again the academic affairs are overseen by the vice principal like teaching and learning materials ehh as how do you get the materials on time and they work hand in hand with Bo storemen or bursar. But he must facilitate the provision of teaching and learning materials (SLA2).

The above caption also suggests that the leaders worked as a team with other support staff members like the bursars and storemen.

Lecturers from both colleges assert that HODs were responsible for providing teaching and learning materials. As evidence, here is what was said by the teachers from both colleges:

HODs also make sure that all teaching and learning materials and equipment are available at all times (LA5)

HODs also make sure that all teaching and learning materials and equipment are available at all times because sometimes you find that you want to use some materials and it is not available because the HOD did not do his/her job you find that teaching and learning is hindered in that way(LB4).

Apart from providing teaching and learning equipment and materials, in both colleges, the lecturers expected the college leaders to provide adequate and relevant personnel. While few college leaders considered providing human resources as an academic leadership role, the lecturers believed that this was a major role for the principals and HODs. Therefore, this result reflects a discrepancy between expectations by the teachers and the principals' understanding of their role. Probably the reason why the college leaders did not perceive providing personnel as their role was that it came out in the interviews under theme 3 that staff recruitment was done by Teaching Service Commission (TSC).

On the aspect of financial resources, lecturers from B expected the leaders to distribute and manage college funds. Here is the evidence:

I think it is the duty of the principal to ensure that funds allocated to the college are used properly and utilities that require the funds are prioritised accordingly so that all the activities that are to be done in the institution are done (SLB1)

The quote shown above from the lecturers indicate that principals are responsible for financial resources which is an administrative role.

5.4.2.3 Defining and communicating the vision

The data reflect that the lecturers from both colleges perceived that principals were responsible for setting and communicating the vision. To support this claim, here is a verbatim quote from a College B lecturer:

..I think the principal should have the vision and discuss it with his immediate staff like the vice principal and HODs. He can't just set the vision of the college alone. But basically it has to be the principal's vision and the others supporting the vision of the principal. (LB3)

I think the principal should have the vision and discuss it with his immediate staff like the vice principal and HODs. He can't just set the vision of the college alone. But basically it has to be the principal's vision and the others supporting the vision of the principal (LA5)

The above quotes indicate that the lecturers viewed the principal as an overall leader to define the vision. It came out that the principal did not set the vision alone but involved staff members. This is indicative of shared leadership as postulated in one of the LfL principles. Likewise, Arnardottir (2015) iterates that like any leadership, academic leadership needs to set direction. However, it is not clear who sets the direction.

5.4.2.4 Motivating the staff

Lecturers from both colleges expected leaders to motivate them. Here are interview excerpts to support the claim. College B and A lecturers expressed the need to motivate the staff. Two participants said:

Maybe noting from what is happening in this institution I think we also need motivation from the principal office (LB4)

The principal should be someone who is motivating the staff, he should also motivate the staff to face the challenges at hand. So he being a motivational person (SLA2)

This finding indicates low staff morale. From the strategic plans for both colleges, it was ascertained that the lecturers were faced with the challenge of low remuneration.

5.4.2.5 Meeting staff needs

The data also revealed that the lecturers from both colleges felt that the principals should meet their academic and personal welfare needs. Lecturers from both colleges expected college leaders to meet physical, emotional, and social needs. Academic leaders are also responsible for meeting their staff's needs (Mukan, Havrylyuk & Stolyarchuk, 2015). Here is what the lecturers from College A said:

In my view the principals should address the needs of the institution in the various departments after having been told by HODs what their department's needs (LA1)

In college B, they supported that the principal should ensure that their welfare was taken care of:

...He has to see to it that the welfare of the lecturers is the best, like housing, the safety of the lecturers around the college (LB2).

The lecturers further mentioned that they expected principals to address their needs like accommodation. For instance, LB1 said:

I think it is the responsibility of the principal to ensure the staff is properly housed because if they are not properly housed that would affect their teaching (LB1)

It also emerged that the lecturers' safety and welfare should have been taken care of by the principals. Here is a comment from College B to support the finding:

Also the principal has to ensure that all the departments and the staff, err we have enough staff in the college so that the departments are not overworked. You find that the staff is not enough in the college. He has to see to it that the welfare of the lecturers is the best, like housing, safety of the lecturers around the college (LB3).

The lecturers further voiced out that the college leaders were responsible to provide support like psychosocial support. Here is a comment from College A:

I would also like to add an angle from the psyche-social support perspective that the principal should be responsible for psychologically supporting his staff. In the way that I think the conditions under which they work. He should make sure that the work conditions are ideal, so that he gets maximum output (LA2).

The findings reveal that lecturers perceived that it was the responsibility of the college leaders to ensure their physical needs like accommodation are met. This indicates the need for improving work conditions in the colleges.

5.4.2.6 Coordination role

Both colleges viewed that the vice principal coordinated the academic and extracurricular activities of the college. To support the claim that the vice principal ought to have coordinated activities, lecturers from College A had this to say:

I think the major role of the vice principal is to administer the activities of the college particularly the teaching and learning. And also should see to it that departments are working in harmony. There is no replication of curriculum between departments (LA1)

These lecturers expect the vice principal to coordinate academic activities like teaching and learning, linking departments as well as coordinating the curriculum as stated by LA1.

I think this officer (vice principals) has to work hand-in-hand with SRC, in my opinion together with the dean of student affairs. The officer should also facilitate extra curricula activities of students with the relevant department if for instance they are going for sports. The whole nitty-gritties around that like means of transport and all that. I think that officer should work hand in hand with relevant departments (LA2)

The above caption from LA1 and LA2 indicate that vice principals were expected to manage college activities to ensure the smooth operation of the college. This was reiterated by college B lecturers who said:

One of the vice principal's role is to act as a liaison officer between the principal and lecturers (LB4)

The part of providing, this was supported by lecturers from college B who highlighted that the vice principal was responsible for providing the timetable and college calendar of activities. Here is an excerpt from the focus group interviews:

The vice principals ensures that the school timetable, as well as the almanac, is well written(LB2)

The lecturers saw the vice principal as someone who coordinated activities of the college. This is done to ensure harmony among activities of a college and ensure order in a college thus indicating an element of instructional leadership, protecting instructional time. This is similar to the finding from college leaders who view vice principal as someone who manages teaching and learning time by ensuring that there is an almanac and timetables are in place.

5.4.3.7 Administration role

The data shows that lecturers perceived that the principals managed college funds. Leaders should enhance financial resources, so as to bring students to reach their full potential (Bhore, 2013). Here is the evidence:

I think it is the duty of the principal to ensure that funds allocated to the college are used properly and utilities that require the funds are prioritised accordingly so that all the activities that are to be done in the institution are done (SLB1)

Financial management is an administrative role According to the lecturers, the principal was responsible for prioritisation, allocation and accountability of funds. This indicates that the lecturers viewed the administration of finances as an academic leadership role of principals. This indicates that managing funds was not shared amongst the leaders.

5.4.3 Academic leadership roles from students' perspective

From the data, the following four subthemes were generated: *supervising and monitoring teaching and learning, providing teaching and learning resources, defining the vision and decision-making.*

5.4.3.1 Supervising and monitoring teaching and learning

This sub-theme was supported by students from both colleges. According to students, the vice principals oversaw teaching and learning. For instance, students in Colleges A and B said:

The vice principal is the overseer of the institution or college duties (SA1)

The vice principals is an overseer of everything that happens in the institution (SB6)

The vice principal monitors the attendance of students in this particular lectures and make sure that the students do attend. If they don't they sit down with the lecturers or may be with the students to see what might be the problem. To be running smooth in terms of students not attending the classes (SA3)

The caption from SA3 suggests that the vice principals also monitored teaching and learning just as they did with student attendance. To further support the claim that students perceived the duty of the vice principal as monitoring and supervising teaching and learning, students from college A alluded that the vice principal monitored the college daily activities which also included time management. One student said:

The vice principal it is her duty to know that this and this happens around the school. What activities are happening around the school? And what time and who is responsible for that. So it is the duty of the vice principal to know all that because the principal cannot do that. And then she reports to the principal the activities that are happening around the school. Because there is no activity happening around the school without the administration knowing nothing about it (SA4).

The above caption from SA4 suggests delegation of supervision to vice principals. This implies that the students acknowledged that it was the principals' role to monitor teaching and learning, but due to work overload the principals delegated this task to the vice principals. This claim was also supported by students from college A who observed that the principals could not do the work alone and may not know everything. Here is an excerpt from the focus group interview to support this claim:

Ok I can say that actually the vice principal monitors the teaching and learning because we can't say that the principal has to know everything happening in

around the school. The vice principal it is her duty to know that this and this happens around the school. What activities are happening around the school? And what time and who is responsible for that. So it is the duty of the vice principal to know all that because the principal cannot do that. And then she reports to the principal the activities that are happening around the school. Because there is no activity happening around the school without the administration knowing nothing about it (SA1).

5.4.3.2 Providing teaching and learning resources

In both colleges, students expressed that college leaders provided teaching and learning resources. Examples of resources included equipment, infrastructure, and finances. Here is an excerpt to support the claim:

The principal also ensures that the institution has all the necessary equipment for its operation. Ok when we mean equipment we mean the teaching and learning equipment like err chalkboards, desks, chairs and everything for the environment to be conducive (SA2)

College B participants also held a similar view that the college leaders were responsible for providing teaching materials. For instance, they said:

The principal also access external resources from government and NGOs and gathers them for the college to achieve its goals and (SB5)

The vice principal it's his duty to now has to be aware how do the students get the data bundles so that the online learning can go on (SB1A).

Leaders should enhance financial resources so as to bring students to reach their full potential (Bhore, 2013:68). Similarly, the data shows that students from College A expected the leaders to manage college funds. Here is evidence:

We also said that the principal reviews the college budget and deciding on how best the funds can be allocated for various college activities with the assistance of the vice and they also consult with the Ministry because the college receives some funding from the Ministry. So the principal together with the help of the vice amm they allocate the funds. They know which activity needs more money

than the other. Also which activity can be postponed or cancelled for that year (SA4)

The quotes shown above from the students indicate that the financial management role was perceived to be shared between the principals and vice principals. As mentioned earlier, financial management is an administrative role. This indicates that the students viewed administration as an academic leadership role of principals and vice principals. Likewise, the college leaders and lecturers viewed the principals and vice principals as administrators.

Overall, this view was shared widely and was common among all the participants in the study. However, the responses of the students focused on teaching and learning materials (equipment, infrastructure like the internet) and finance than human resources. Likewise, Kandiko and Mawer (2013) revealed that students expected leaders to create a conducive learning environment for teaching and learning. This includes facilities, infrastructure, timetabling, course structures, staff, support and engagement as well as lecturers' knowledge and good attitudes. Also, conditions for learning are one of the principles of LfL theory. This, therefore, indicates that academic leadership is in line with the theory.

5.4.3.3 Defining the vision

Students from both colleges considered the principal as someone responsible for defining the vision of the college as well as aligning it with government policies. Here is a comment from a student in college B:

The principal defines the vision for the college, because the college I am in is a government entity, there are some goals set by government and then there are some goals set by the college principal. There are these goals that the principal will set, they align with the government goals (SB2)

From the above excerpt, the students mentioned that the vision should be aligned with government policies. This was supported by college A, who said:

We also believe that the principal also implements the vision strategy and policies of the college as set by the Ministry of Education. We believe that

specifically, if we look at the Eswatini Higher Education Council. It set standards that all certificates must be accredited and so the college needs to ensure all the courses may be taken by the students are actually accredited by that council. So the principal play a very important role in actually ensuring that these standards are met (SA4)

The findings above indicate that students understood that the college did not function in isolation but it functioned within a context. This is in line with the fundamentals of LfL that leadership does not take place in a vacuum (Dempster, 2009).

In summary, the findings indicate that the college leaders, lecturers and students agreed that defining the vision was one of the academic leadership roles for principals to hence teaching and learning in the TTCs.

5.4.3.4 Public relations

The data revealed that principals served as public relations officers. For instance, one student said:

The principal serves as a main figure of communication. Yes he communicates to everyone under his leadership. He communicate to the students staff and ensures harmony and collaboration in the college. This means is the centre of everything. He is the main leader of the college (SB4)

5.4.3.5 Decision-making

The students from both colleges perceived that the role of the principal was decision-making. Here is what transpired from the students' focus group interviews in the two colleges:

Principal makes final decisions concerning the running of the college. HODs, as in the vice principal, they in everything that they do, they firstly consult the principal. They cannot take the decision without informing him err on what they are going to do. So in a much as they are doing that, they need the principal's decision just to approve everything they are considering around (SA1)

The principals is the one who has a final word when a final decision has been taken in the college (SB6)

In reference to the two quotes above, the students viewed the principal as someone who had a final word in decision-making. The students' viewpoints indicate that college principals were perceived as authority figures in the colleges.

5.4.3.6 Administration role

The data shows that students believe that principals budgeted and allocated funds for college activities. Here is the evidence:

We also said that the principal reviews the college budget and deciding on how best the funds can be allocated for various college activities with the assistance of the vice and they also consult with the Ministry because the college receives some funding from the Ministry. So the principal together with the help of the vice amm they allocate the funds. They know which activity needs more money than the other. Also which activity can be postponed or cancelled for that year (SA4)

The quotes shown above from the students indicated that the financial management role was shared between the principals and vice principals. Also, they acknowledged the role played by the Ministry in the allocation of the funds indicating that they were aware of government financial support to the college. Likewise, the college leaders and lecturers viewed the principals and vice principals as administrators.

5.4.3.7 Ensuring conduct

Students stated that the vice principal ensured discipline and adherence to college regulations. Here is a comment from the focus group interview:

The vice principal also ensures that all rules and regulations are followed. That is to say in our institution if may be you have a case, the vice principal is always part of the disciplinary committee to ensure that errr whatever when you are

disciplining the students it's fairly disciplined. We also mentioned the checking of log books. That the lecturers come in on time, so that they attain or they allow their students to participate in class properly if they are in class (SA6).

This finding implies that the students expected the vice principals to ensure that the college climate was conducive for teaching and learning to take place by ensuring discipline. Similarly, it is the role of leaders to create an enabling environment for flourishing academics in their teaching role (Herman et al., 2018).

5.6 Theme 2: Creating the culture of teaching and learning

This theme identified some of the measures and activities that college leaders engaged in to promote teaching and learning. Therefore, the researcher solicited how the leaders influenced teaching and learning in the two colleges.

Four subthemes emerged from the data: *providing resources teaching and learning materials, professional development, staff involvement in decision-making, and lastly monitoring teaching and learning activities.*

Table 5.5 Summary of findings for objective 2

Theme	Subthemes/ Categories	Issues raised/ Codes
Creating a culture of teaching and learning	Providing teaching and learning materials	IT materials- internet, LMS, gadgets Library
	Professional development	Workshops Induction of new staff Mentoring of new staff
	Participatory decision making	Staff involvement in planning and all processes Departmental meetings
	Monitoring teaching and learning	Student Attendance Lecturers attendance Assessment follow up Classroom visits

5.6.1 Providing teaching and learning resources

A majority of the leaders mentioned that they provided resources as means to promote teaching and learning. These resources included the internet, a learning management system, IT gadgets, books and a library. To support this finding here are some of the excerpts from the interviews:

I ensure that people have enough teaching and learning resources. Also we have put a err the learning management system. ..Amm we also try to ensure that each and every lecturer has got a PC so that they cannot scabble for PC err in their offices. Even though we were not we are in short of money we try to improve our library with PCs for the students for their research. Really I think this what some of the things I did. Also to improve the library with err recent books that probably students would need. Then I think eemm the internet issue is also, making sure that we have got internet in the institution. We are still trying to improve it. We got wifi, we still have to improve it. You may know everything if it is in place before you get stuck into something (P2)

The data showed that the college leaders provided teaching and learning support materials hence as a way of their role as well as means to promote teaching and learning. Among the materials, the emphasis was on those that are technology based. This is in line with Goldstein, Miller & Courson (2014) who claim that in light of changing the HE landscape, there is a need to embrace technology. Similarly, Arvindekar and Mackasare (2012) suggest that academic leaders should embark on developing computer-based learning materials as well as digital libraries to expose students to audio-visual cases. This, therefore, suggests that the college leaders made efforts to provide relevant teaching and learning materials.

5.6.2 Professional development

Most of the leaders confirmed professional development as an activity they embarked on to influence teaching and learning in the TTCs. This includes the orientation of newly appointed staff and continuous professional development. For instance, HOD4 revealed that they conducted workshops, she said;

I remember particularly in X (name of department withheld) department to be precise, actually where we were trying to equip one another. We organise ourselves a sort of mini-workshop in the department so that we help such(HOD4)

On another note, HOD6 further mentioned that she used her experience to provide learning support to their newly appointed staff. She said:

I do, personally. For me I always avail myself to say whenever they need assistance I am available and I try to be hands on particularly the teaching so that like in the department...So I am hands on. So that when someone says you know I don't know how to deal with these. Then I can offer my help ok say I have done the same this is how I did it. My experience will always come in handy (HOD6).

This finding revealed that the college leaders provided professional development to the lecturers to support teaching and learning. This indicates that professional development was regarded as an important activity to enhance teaching and learning. This is supported by Akuegwi & Nwi-ue (2017) that professional development updates staff knowledge to enable them to be abreast of the latest techniques and development in teaching or instructional delivery.

Furthermore, the findings revealed that the orientation of newly appointed lecturers was common practice in both colleges. However, there were variations in how it was conducted. For instance, HOD 6 shared an experience in that they conducted peer mentoring whereby new staff would be attached to a lecturer who had experience in teaching that particular course. Here is what the HOD said:

I always attach that person to someone who has taught that subject she is going to teach. And then as person with the one that is working with me directly I would err organise err the first lecture I would conduct it you will just sit and watch and then we discuss after wards and say this is how I do it but you can also device your own strategies. Allow that lecturer to have that freedom to say. Sometimes I can say err co-teach. Teach errr certain content in that subject

then you teach the rest. When I do this until that person feel that he or she can conduct the class on by himself or herself (HOD6).

HOD4 supported HOD6 and said:

For example when you have a new lecturer yah they are not so sure about some of the topics and if they need support in as far as understanding better those topics so we organise ourselves a sort of mini workshop in the department so that we help such. Especially the new members and guiding them of what is expected of them (HOD4).

The data reveal that HODs provided peer mentoring to support a newly appointed staff member. Likewise, So (2016) contends that the role of academic leadership in teaching includes professional development. Professional development motivates staff towards the capacity to achieve the vision of the institutions (Phillips et al, 2018). It appears that college leaders developed their staff to enhance their teaching and learning.

5.6.3 Participatory decision-making

The data revealed that the college leaders involved their staff in decision-making. HE faculty want to be involved in decision-making (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017). Participatory decision-making is perceived to provide an opportunity for leaders to communicate their expectations. For instance, one vice principal stated that he involved the staff during the planning process. This is supported by Pan (2017) who suggests involving staff in planning. Here is an excerpt from the interview:

First of all one way to promote teaching and learning is to involve these lecturers, Senior lecturers and HODs in the planning process. Involve them while drafting the timetable; involve them while spelling out expectations. And by the time you start executing the plan, everyone knows what to do and it becomes easy (VP1).

From the above quote, the vice principal believed that staff involvement ensured communication of expectations and ease of doing work. It seems staff involvement in

decision-making eased the implementation of those decisions. It also provided an opportunity for communication of goals, activities, and targets in the TTCs. According to Kwar (2012), a shared understanding of the organisation's vision motivates the staff.

Furthermore, from the data, it came out that the leaders created opportunities for participatory-decision making. This was achieved through meetings, mostly at the departmental level. For instance, HOD 3 said:

In participation, you know, we come together we share the little things. So when I come out say education department is saying that, the education department has participated in that decision. Also discussing the challenges they face in the classrooms. We have, not all the time, those moments where we come back to class and share the successes and sometimes failures that we come across in the classroom. Sharing that, you know we are supporting each other (HOD3).

The extract from HOD3 above revealed that the participant leaders used teamwork, which was participatory. Furthermore, the above captions reflect that they used departmental meetings as means for staff involvement in decision-making. Subsequently, the meetings enhanced team building. Also, the meetings were used as a feedback mechanism because it was mentioned that the meetings also helped leaders to diagnose the issues and needs in the department. This is further supported by three HODs who said:

When we change to another semester we do have meetings where people state the problems they face (HOD2)

Also discussing the challenges they face in the classrooms. We have, not all the time, those moments where we come back to class and share the successes and sometimes failures that we come across in the classroom. Sharing that, you know we are supporting each other (HOD3).

We always have meetings, monthly meetings to say errh ok this is our responsibility; how best can we, what can we do in order that we do what we are supposed to do (HOD6).

The findings reveal that the college leaders involved their staff in decision-making, mostly through meetings. This was further supported by the respective colleges' almanac which reflects academic staff meetings, monthly HODs meetings as well as departmental meetings and assessment meetings.

Contrary to that, there was no mention of students' participation in the decision-making. Saroyan et al (2011) claim that student and faculty involvement in departmental decision-making creates an enabling working environment. Students need to be involved in leadership for teaching (Jones, 2014). In short, students want to be involved in issues that affect their learning. They want to participate in decision-making. However, in the TTCs there seems to have been less involvement of students in decision-making related to teaching and learning, yet they were direct beneficiaries of the teaching and learning.

In one college the students voiced out that they are not involved in decision-making. Here is an excerpt from the data to support this claim:

We feel we need participatory decision-making in this college because it is very difficult to make decisions for people if you do not know what they want. You end up implementing or adding on things that the students do not need and most definitely will not use. Which also increases these boycotting of classes (SA4).

And the leadership doesn't listen to the student's concerns. Which then leads to student emm striking which disrupts classes. And thus it becomes a challenge and it affects the teaching and learning in the college. So I feel like it is not assisting the students in anyway (SA1).

The second excerpt also indicates that students felt their voices were not listened to. This stresses a gap in the involvement of students in decision-making.

5.6.4 Monitoring teaching and learning

The findings revealed that in both colleges, leaders monitored teaching and learning. This included monitoring class attendance, delivery of teaching, staff attendance as well as students assessment. Seemingly, this role was mostly carried out by HODs. For instance, interviews with P1 reveal that the HODs ensured that teaching took place:

As you know the principal sits in his office. He is not in the department and is not in the class. In the classroom there are students and there are student leaders in each course. In each subject who ensure lecturers attend to them and that is monitoring on its own. Because if they do not attend the group leader has a duty to report to the senior lecturer. And the senior lecturer will have to talk to the senior lecturer concerned. If that is problematic it goes on up the hierarchy up to the principal (P1)

From the quote above (P1), the monitoring of attendance was delegated to the HODs and students. The data revealed that HODs were mostly the people that monitored whether teaching and learning did take place in the classrooms. This was more so because they had direct contact with the teachers and students. This was further supported by VP2 who mentioned that HODs ensured that teaching took place. VP said:

We leave the first monitoring to the HODs. That is one way. The HODs must make sure that teaching is in place. We give them that autonomy (VP2).

Additionally, the data revealed that HODs also checked the staff attendance. For instance, one HOD said:

We look at the time table and see if the lecturers are they attending their slots where they are supposed to teach. On very rare occasions but we know that they do go to class (HOD2).

Vice principals also monitored teaching and learning, especially the attendance. This finding emerged from both colleges. One vice principal mentioned that he visited the classrooms and observed if there were teachers in the classrooms. The vice principal further stated that this practice was adopted from his previous experience while teaching at a high school. This is what he had to say:

I personally visit lecturers' classrooms and sometimes observe, sometimes seeing or ensuring that there is a teacher inside. Sometimes observing just to ensure that every class has a lecturer (VP1).

On the other hand, VP2 mentioned that they did random checks to ascertain that staff do attend classes.

..We call impromptu meetings. If you are not there we take note of you. If you are absent in a number of instances then we wait for you... (VP2)

Three HODs mentioned that they checked students' assessments, particularly, assignments, and tests. They also ensured the syllabus coverage. The assessments were also used as evidence that teaching and learning took place in the classroom. Here is a quote from the interview to support this claim:

Test the marks will obviously show that one has been teaching. Lecturers submit their course outlines to senior lecturers to say this week I will be doing this and this week I will be doing that (HOD6).

The above excerpt indicates that leaders monitored the assessment of academic work. This concurs with So (2016) who found that academic leaders' roles include quality assurance and management, collaboration and partnership. To support this, HOD4 mentioned that they moderated assessments as a team. She said:

And also probably to see they are doing what they are required to do like the minimum number of tests they have to do, assignments and staff like that so those are things to monitor. Also when they have to assess like in the form of examination err the examination that has been set must be tabled in the department so that it meets the standard (HOD4).

From the above quote, it is evident that the leaders and lecturers worked as a team, which implies collaboration. Collaboration in leadership is team leadership (Jooste et al, 2017). Collaboration and team working are characteristic of academic leadership (Hamidifar & Ebrahimi, 2016). Hence, the finding reveals that the participant college leaders employed collaborative means to ensure that teaching and learning occurred particularly through monitoring teaching and learning and assessment.

5.7 Theme 3: Challenges facing academic leadership

This theme focused on challenges facing academic leadership of teaching and learning. These include problems and barriers that hindered the leaders from executing their academic leadership role to improve teaching and learning in the two TTCs. This also includes how the college leaders responded to the challenges, that is to say, how the problems were dealt with.

The data revealed seven major challenges and these include *negative attitudes, unethical conduct, insufficient resources, bureaucracy, lack of autonomy, lack of prior preparation for the role and lastly unclear policies guiding academic leadership*. The challenges and suggested solutions are summarised in table 5.4 below

Table 5.6 Summary of challenges and how they are addressed

Challenge	How it is addressed
Negative attitudes	Communication
Unethical conduct	Punitive/ disciplinary measures Reporting to superiors
Insufficient resources	Improvise Use personal funds Defer courses
Bureaucracy	Improvise Make sacrifices

Lack of autonomy	Helpless situation
Lack of prior preparation	Workshops, meetings , understudying other leaders
Unclear policies guiding AL	Draft document developed

5.7.1 Negative attitudes

From the data, staff attitudes were identified as one of the challenges facing academic leadership in the TTCs. Attitudes affect the learning environment (Kandiko & Mawer, 2013). Dima & Ghinea (2016) claim that influencing attitudes towards performance is one of the academic leaders' roles. This subtheme considers lecturers' negative attitudes towards leaders and work. This sub-theme considers negative attitudes and being territorial. For example, HOD3 said:

Ah yah the constraints are attitudes. Sometimes you see the attitude, that yah this person you can't penetrate through even if you are making a suggestion you see that this person is closed up. You know. And then another challenge it is territorialism. I think people are very territorial like this is my area. Don't dare come near my area. Yes. I think this is a major issue. That this is my area, who are you to tell me this. Emm it's the attitudes like I said. Sometimes the attitude they (lecturers) see it from me as a leader. Yes. And then sometimes it's the lack of proper effective communication. It can be on both sides. Sometimes I also fail to communicate effectively with them (lecturers). That also is a problem (HOD3).

The data from HOD3 reveal that lecturers had negative attitudes towards their leaders and they preferred to work independently, they were territorial, according to HOD3. The HOD further mentioned that effective communication minimised attitudes. This finding is in line with Nguyen (2015) who claims that academic staff value academic freedom and autonomy. Similarly, in the TTCs, it appears the lecturers preferred autonomy, that is to say, it was not closely supervised thus it became difficult for the leaders to monitor the teaching and learning as one of the perceived academic leadership roles.

5.7.2 Unethical conduct

This subtheme deals with uncooperative and unprofessional behaviour like absenteeism and not attending classes. Academic leaders' roles influence behaviours towards performance (Dima & Ghinea, 2016). The data indicated that some college leaders expressed that the staff were uncooperative and unprofessional. For instance, HOD4 said:

Its lack of cooperation on the part of members. You will find that there is one or two people who actually are not taking their work seriously...Sometimes may be they would disappear without reporting. We have some issues with people who actually do not want to be professional in the way they do their work. Ahh like absenteeism err and not being able to do the work they are supposed to do (HOD4)

While the lecturers demanded autonomy, the literature reveals that it becomes a challenge to find a balance between college interest and staff interest (Keczer, 2014). It appears that the college leaders had a challenge dealing with the behavioural conduct of their subordinates, this included absenteeism.

This claim was supported by a focus group from college B where the lecturers made an observation that some lecturers are uncooperative. Here is a comment to support this:

There is the compliance factor. That some lecturers are resistant to comply with what is expected of them. That lecturer is not willing to comply and all that is required to be done (LB4)

..You find that lecturers do not do their part also, we are human beings, if a human is not punished somehow (other giggle) he or she won't do anything (SLB1)

The last participant (SLB1) even suggested use of punitive measures to overcome the issue of uncooperative behaviour. From the data, it seemed leaders had a challenge handling uncooperative behaviour. To address the challenge of attitude and

uncooperative behaviour, it came out that leaders usually engaged the lecturers. Here are comments to support this assertion:

Talking to people informally at times it helps in trying to build a good working relationship....But with time people learn that we have to do the work and they end up doing the work. ...attending informal gatherings also helps to create good relations. You end up seeing that people begin to appreciate one another and do the work (HOD1)

Another HOD supported that engaging the individual coupled with putting disciplinary measures helped. The HOD said:

And actually, we try to address such issues with those people concerned... At some instances one has to actually find out you have to put in writing to show probably why disciplinary measures. It was decided that probably before these people are reported to higher authority lets have an opportunity to speak with them as colleagues to ensure that they refrain from what they are doing...Of course one particular case had to be taken up to the administration because it was actually a perennial problems (giggles). And unfortunately may be even the administration would find it very difficult to correct such action (HOD4).

From the excerpt above from HOD4, if the matter was not resolved it would be dealt with using the hierarchy structure. This was supported by another HOD who commented:

If it gets out of hand I can emm report to the vice principal, to the office of the vice principal. And if the matter cannot be resolved I can report to the principal (HOD6).

The above excerpts indicate that managing the behaviour and attitude of staff was perceived as a role of the college leaders, yet they lacked the expertise on the management of the different behaviours. This is in line with Geschwind et al (2019) who claim that most academic leaders, particularly, are appointed based on academic credentials rather than managerial skills and experiences. Similarly, in the TTCs, the leaders are appointed based on work experience rather than leadership and

management skills. Thus this could indicate the gap in academic leadership development to enhance teaching and learning. More so, engaging the staff was suggested as means to address uncooperative behaviour. Likewise, LfL considers dialogue as a principle that links leadership to learning.

5.7.3 Insufficient resources.

This subtheme includes financial, material, and human resources. For financial resources, there is insufficient funds and delayed disbursement of funds.

5.7.3.1 Financial resources

Teaching and learning demand finances. The data also revealed that insufficient funds and delayed disbursement of resources were barriers to academic leadership in the TTCs. It emerged that insufficient funds delayed the payment of teaching and learning materials. To support this finding, this is what one principal had to say:

..Limited resources particularly funds... Errr we know at the present moment funds are limited. Mhhh up to now I have not paid err materials for COVID-19. Funds are not forthcoming. And suppliers are calling. When are you paying? When are you paying? (P1).

This was said to negatively impact practical subjects. For instance, vice principal 1 indicated that lecturers were not able to conduct practicals due to a shortage of funds. VP1 said:

The challenge err revolves around the shortage of finances to purchase teaching and learning materials. In my experience, the challenges that we have always had err were a shortage of funds at a later stage whereas institution, we could not buy sufficient teaching and learning materials to give to our lecturers. As a result erhh this process was affecting heavily practical subjects such as Consumer Science and Agriculture leading to lack of practical's and you find that lecturers now and again would complain...(VP1)

Additionally, students expressed concern that funds were insufficient and as a consequence, it affected their learning environment and procurement of teaching and learning equipment.

Yes, also the issue of insufficient funds from the government. The leaders cannot do anything without funds. Having insufficient funds does hinder in doing anything we need for our conducive learning. So I feel like the insufficient funds plays a major role in doing what we want them to do or what we need from them(SA5).

Berg and Jarbur (2014) view handling finances as one attribute of academic leadership. However, in the case of the TTCs, the finances were not controlled by the leaders but by the government. Below is a quote to support this statement:

We have a unique situation in the college whereby the principal does not run an account. The account of the college is at Headquarters. You can't buy as when and how. You follow paperwork sometimes that paperwork may not even be considered (P1)

Teaching and learning demand finances. The findings from this subtheme indicate the funds were insufficient for the leaders to meet the teaching and learning needs. Adding another layer of difficulty was that the funds were managed by the government.

Still, on the financial resources, the data revealed that a delayed disbursement of funds in the TTCs hinders leadership of teaching and learning. The findings from this subtheme indicate that delayed payments of tuition particularly those that are received from the government. For instance VP1 said:

How I wish the college could have money as early as possible but as it appears now colleges do not have money because the students who are there, their tuition fees are not paid timely by the sponsors, as a result, the college runs without money for quite a long period of time. Making it very difficult to function (VP1)

From the above excerpt, it is clear there are delays in the disbursement of the funds. To affirm the challenge of the delayed release of funds, the lecturers in college A

complained of inconvenience due to the delayed disbursement of funds in both colleges. For instance, one senior lecturer said:

Government does not disburse funds at the right time and this causes inconvenience in the college (SLA2).

To address this challenge, it came out that the leaders improvised and this goes to the extent of using personal funds: Here is an interview extract from Principal 1:

We even make sacrifices, we improvise. We even fork money from our own pockets to support the college programme. When the auditors were here I showed them a lot of things that I have brought by my own money to assist the college run. It's a difficult situation (P1)

The finding reveals the impact of the delayed release of funds to teaching and learning. Limited funds lead to low morale and staff resign to join better-paying institutions resources (Mushemeza, 2016). The findings of the study further confirmed the long-standing view that the financial control and dependence of TTCs on government funding work at the disadvantage of these institutions (Mahlalela, 2017).

5.7.3.2 Material resources

The data showed a shortage of material resources to support teaching and learning as a barrier to academic leadership of teaching and learning. Some leaders stated that they were faced with the challenge of a shortage of teaching and learning support materials like the Internet, and library books. The findings show that the shortage of teaching and materials was sometimes caused by procurement procedures that delayed the deliveries. To support this claim HOD 2 said:

Another challenge is that sometimes we don't get teaching and learning material. Sometimes there are delays and it gets faster once the store man understand the procurement procedures and all the levels that he has to go through to get the teaching materials. Earlier on it used to take very long to get the materials you have requested because of the different channels that you have to go through (HOD2).

HOD2 indicated that the shortages were caused by lengthy procurement procedures. The lecturers confirmed the shortage of learning support materials as a hindrance to the execution of leadership of teaching and learning. For example, one participant said:

Government must provide resources on time. And avoid necessary delays of resources. And should disburse funds in time for purchasing resources. ...and resources these hinder the ability to improve teaching and learning... (SLA2)

To overcome the issue of shortage of teaching and learning support materials, the data revealed that leaders improvised: For instance, HOD4 said:

Then one has to improvise where necessary. Because sometimes you find that some of the teaching materials is not available errh with the store man so err we have to see how we adjust (HOD4).

Seemingly, the issue of shortage of materials was a result of shortages and delayed disbursement of funds. The shortages of teaching and learning materials indicated that the college environment was not conducive for teaching and learning as well as not conducive for the implementation of the vision and goals of the TTCs, thus hindering some of the activities concerning teaching and learning.

5.7.3.3 Human resources

Shortage of teaching staff shortage was identified challenge for both colleges. Three leaders claimed that the shortage of personnel hindered their leadership. To support this, one HOD had this to say:

You find that we have these huge shortages like lecturers, we have shortages currently (HOD2)

The college leaders felt that the shortage of lecturers was caused by structural issues such as unfavourable policy environments like the freezing of posts by the government due to high wage bill. Here is an interview excerpt to support this claim.

You see, now there is a policy it is not very easy to replace a retired lecturer or retired teacher. For that reason it takes time to replace a lecturer. You will find that this course has no lecturer (VP1).

Adding another layer of difficulty to the shortage of teaching staff was that the colleges did not have control over the hiring and replacement of the posts because they were not directly involved in hiring the staff. The hiring of staff was done by Teaching Service Commission. This implies a highly bureaucratic and hierarchical process of hiring. P2 expressed frustration and said:

I mean the hiring process is also very frustrating really... because you don't have any policy on which to fall back and say this should be done this way or you will always be complaining... You remain being an institution under the Teaching Service Commission and the Teaching Service Commission uses its regulations and policies to hire people that's all. They can't actually err change from that. So really it's a problem really. It's a problem...an institution we have got students that is hardly err discipline the way we want to discipline them. They are actually at this level but they are treated as students as far as the ministry is concerned (P2)

The shortage of personnel and freezing of posts was affirmed as a challenge in the focus group data particularly from the lecturers from both colleges. Here are comments from the two focus groups interviews to support this statement:

Also human resource is a challenge. In terms of lecturers because sometimes you have to teach students because there are shortages of staff and you don't become effective (LA4).

The government also is not supportive enough err to provide err enough lecturers that are needed, that are required. Recently, it is not replacing those that were here (lecturers) (LB4)

The shortage of staff was indicative of some of the hindrances towards attaining the teaching and learning goals of the colleges. In the cases of shortages of lecturers, the data showed this challenge was addressed in various ways like improvising. To support this, vice principal 1 had this to say:

As a result alternatives must be made now because courses are offered per semester. When you have to defer a course to the next semester due to the absence of a lecturer, it pauses as a very big challenge progress of the institution... we would ask lecturers with expertise in the areas of specialisation (VP1)

The above solution was supported by students in college A, who applauded the HODs for the efforts they made in ensuring that teaching and learning took place. One student in the focus group made this comment:

I also think that it is worth acknowledging and applauding the HODs for the work they are doing as they are the ones who allocate the lecturers to the different classes. In as much as their schedule is tight, are trying to cover the shortage of lecturers around the institution. You will discover that one lecturer will teach a certain programme but different courses so they are trying in as much as it is difficult they are putting more effort so that we will be able to learn (SA1).

Anthony & Antony (2017) contend that HODs adjusted workloads. While HODs adjusted the workloads to suffice the shortage of staff, it may have led to work overload and subsequently demotivation. On another note, in their attempts to address the issue of staff shortage, the leaders felt helpless. Here is an excerpt from the interview:

Other than requesting eh for some staff from the Ministry of Education TSC eh there is nothing else that we try to other than that. We try but we find that it's beyond our control (HOD2)

Seemingly the shortage of lecturers hindered teaching and learning and the leaders felt helpless on how to overcome it. This was due to the policy on freezing of posts, circular 23 of July 2018 which bared hiring and promotions within the government sector. Yet on the other end, the colleges were expected to produce quality teachers. The selected TTCs were affected by the government decisions because they were owned by the government (Mahlalela, 2017), subsequently, they were affected by such government decisions.

5.7.4 Bureaucracy

Bureaucracy was identified as another challenge. The data revealed that six college leaders were faced with the challenge of bureaucracy and hierarchy that existed in the colleges. Principal 1 from College two had this to say:

The bureaucracy, err there are incidences where by you write and your correspondences get missing (giggles). You wait and wait and wait when you check what happened to this. Oh we are not aware of that. So the bureaucracy, the limited decision power and limited scope of operation err does hinder smooth running of the institutions (P1)

To support this claim, P2 expressed frustration associated with the bureaucracy and said:

The most frustrating one is the procurement one. One, you would think you have the money but you are not going to utilise the money as an when you want to utilise it. The process of how to procure things, is very long. We are an institution at times we have got time frames and at times whatever you wanted to buy is approved. Already the time you wanted to use it has passed. And maybe it's the next semester you know. These are some of the frustrations one has. (P2)

The results show that bureaucracy led to delayed deliveries of teaching and learning materials and the appointment of staff. The following comment was made by the vice principal in college B:

At times learning materials would be delivered very late. Purchasing of materials through government tendering system, you could take 6 weeks trying to purchase something that was supposed to be used long time ago and also fail at the end (VP2)

The data show that bureaucracy further affected teaching staff recruitment. It came out that it took a long time to replace teaching personnel. The vice principal from College A made this comment:

In government the pace is not very interesting it would take time. At times you would be looking for a lecturer until the semester comes to an end while looking for a lecturer. Of late some departments still do not have enough staff members. But the resent staff members are working. While we cannot take anything away from the Teaching Service Commission, responsible from the appointment of lecturers, as they would always try to request timely from cabinet to get approval, they call it a waiver these days. It really takes time. And its one process that is not ideal in the education sector but it is there. We leave with it. Ours is to adjust. We are saying we do get support from them, however, the pace and duration, the operations of a college. It is semesterised everything must happen within a specified period of twelve weeks. But nonetheless we do get assistance. (VP1)

From the above caption, the vice principals revealed that recruitment of lecturers was done by MoET, the Teaching Service Commission which also had its own priorities resulting to delayed appointment of lecturers. The colleges went through long government procedures for recruiting lecturers.

While leaders expressed frustration with the bureaucracy within government systems, students in college A made a similar observation. However, the students' concern was about the hierarchy within the institution. They expressed that it created distance between them and the administration. This is what transpired:

I think given the magnitude of distance between the administration for instance the vice principals and principal and individual students. It would help in my opinion to have a personal testimonial from a student who has undergone a certain tragic or treacherous experience. (SA3)

To overcome the issue of bureaucracy, the leaders improvised and used their resources. For instance, one principal made this comment:

We even make sacrifices, we improvise. We even fork money from our own pockets to support the college programme. When the auditors were here I showed them a lot of things that I have brought by my own money to assist the college run. It's a difficult situation (P1)

The TTCs were bureaucratic and hierarchical in their operations. This finding is in line with Ruben and Gigliotti (2017) who claim that academic leadership is bureaucratic and hierarchical. Now, this subtheme reveals the negative impact bureaucracy had on the execution of academic leadership which included delayed recruitment of staff, and delayed procurement of teaching and learning resources.

5.7.5 Lack of autonomy

According to this data, leaders of the colleges acknowledged that the TTCs lacked autonomy. Guruz (2011) refers to autonomy as an institutional authority. These colleges were government departments subsequently governed by MoET. One principal even mentioned that the lack of autonomy limits decision-making and implementation of those decisions. Principal 1 has this to say:

We have limited decision-making powers. There are things which you can decide. There are things which you cannot. You refer above, that is government authorities. And in your reference above it may take a long time or may take long time or it may never be done. That one disrupts you.... (P1)

The above caption by P1 suggests that the leaders had limited powers to implement some of the teaching and learning activities as government institutions. This is supported by Mahlalela (2017) who claims that the TTCs are owned by the government. One HOD supported this and said:

The fact that err we are in a government institution. Government institutions have their own culture in generally and that culture. You may have all those things you would like to your staff but you might have various ways in which you would like things to be done but they will tell you not in government institution (HOD5)

The finding shows that while the principals were in top management in the TTCs, they were expected to take decisions, yet they had little power to implement those decisions. They did not have the authority to do so since they were controlled by the government. This implies that the college leaders had little control over resources to implement their vision and goals. To address this issue, the leaders suggested some form of autonomy. For instance, VP 2 said:

Mhhh. In my opinion, Teacher Training colleges should be given certain powers to the leadership of the institution. To advertise, short-list, and recruit within a reasonable length of time. No external body should interfere so much. Decisions in colleges are not easy to implement. You can take the decision but to implement is not easy because the process is very long. But an ideal situation would be, let the colleges have a certain autonomy or another body be set out to focus on operations of colleges in terms of employing staff for colleges, processing requests for colleges as opposed to the TSC. There is too much on the table of the Teaching service commission (VP2)

The lack of autonomy was also confirmed as a challenge in the strategic plans for both colleges. On the other hand, some of the leaders seemed helpless. For instance, one principal said:

...It's a difficult situation...we do make suggestions to the authorities (P1)

The data indicate that the leaders of colleges viewed their role as at times limited to only controlling resources. This is in line with Bana & Khaki (2014) who found that in Pakistan, government principals in elementary TTCs reveal that they saw themselves as administrators- controlling teachers, and managing financials. Contrary to that, these findings suggest that the leaders lacked control and authority over resources including teaching and learning resources, staff recruitment and appointment and finances yet they were expected to improve teaching and learning in the TTCs. Hofmeyer et al., (2015) reveal that formal leaders influence workplace culture because they have control over resources.

5.7.6 Lack of prior preparation for leadership role

From the data, nine of the leaders confirmed that they had no professional preparation for their academic leadership roles. To support this claim, HOD3 lamented that there was not even orientation. Here is a direct quote as evidence:

No, I wasn't. But there was no orientation, I mean any formal orientation probably taking a course on leadership. No. There was just nothing. You know government, the ministry no (HOD3)

The vice principal of the college further stressed and said:

There was no way, there was no way I was prepared in terms of training for the role of a vice principal (VP1)

The principals were also not prepared:

There was no workshop for that now you have been appointed the principal this how you should go about (P1)

This finding indicates the absence of formal training on academic leadership of teaching and learning. This is in line with the literature that formal training for academic leadership is often non-existent (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018). The absence of preparation or training invariably indicates limited academic leadership capacity and understanding of the academic leadership roles.

While some of the leaders claimed not receiving training, four college leaders acknowledged informal preparation in forums like meetings, workshops and understudying other leaders. This indicates that these leaders acknowledge the importance of training for leadership roles. Some got informal orientation through senior management meetings. This is what HOD6 said:

I can just say it is through may be ema meetings that we have as the college management because Heads of department become the college management (HOD 6)

From the HOD6 excerpt, it is evident that college leaders considered meetings as a learning opportunity. This was supported by the principal in college A, who had this to say:

The chief inspector err then he used to call periodically the err principals to sort of a meeting. It was not to sort of to speak an orientation but we used to share ideas about what you are doing in your institutions (P2)

Understudying other leaders emerged as one way of informal preparation for leadership. Here is a comment to support this claim:

I was understudying the previous HOD on how she was doing things in the department (HOD2)

This result stresses the significant role played by activities like meetings as means to develop leaders. Moreover, it underscores the importance of building capacity for academic leadership to the recruiting officers so that they understand their leadership roles. Furthermore, these meetings support the principle of dialogue in leadership for learning.

5.7.7 Unclear policies guiding academic leadership

The study further examined what guides college leaders' understanding of the academic leadership roles of teaching and learning. While seven college leaders claimed the existence of policies guiding the academic leadership roles, from the findings, there was uncertainty about these policies. For example, HOD2 mentioned that they had an internal departmental policy guiding academic leadership roles. The HOD said:

Ok we have a document which is a departmental policy that you are given when you have just been appointed as a new officer in the institution, well I have forgotten the name of the document but it describes the duties for each and every officer that is what the principal does, the vice principal, HOD, lecturer and so forth. I have forgotten the name but we do have that policy (HOD2).

On another note, VP2 considered the vision and mission and guiding policy:

The policies that guide us are right from our mission and vision. We are guided by our mission and vision. Another thing guiding us is emm integrity. Err value for one another. These are principles and policies that guide us in what we do. In ultimate we have a policy to work in higher standard in all levels of higher educational ladder. That is what guides us in doing our work (VP2)

HOD3 and P1 said:

The national policy statement, the Education act. Yes. Those were our guiding policies (HOD3).

We are informed by the national policy. The government policy. As it spells out what is required of us as an institution. Those inform us (P1)

The findings revealed varied views on the guiding documents or policies for academic leadership. Seemingly, the policies are spread in various documents as subcomponents ranging from international, national, institutional, and departmental policy documents. This demonstrates an absence of a clear guiding policy for the academic leadership of teaching and learning in the colleges particularly recruitment, the academic leadership roles as well as induction of these college leaders.

5.8 Theme 5: Strategies for enhancing academic leadership of teaching and learning

This theme focused on identifying strategies that would enhance or improve academic leadership of teaching and learning. This entails ideas, opinions and views on plans and approaches that could be employed by the college leaders to improve their influence on teaching and learning in the TTCs.

The participants: college leaders, lecturers, and students, were asked through individual interviews and focus interviews respectively to propose strategies that needed to be put in place to enable college leaders to enhance their academic leadership of teaching and learning in the TTCs. This subsection generated five key strategies: *Professional development of leaders, establishing autonomy, timely provision of resources, and lastly developing staff morale*. The summary of findings is presented in Table 5.7

Table 5.7 Summary of findings for objective 4

Theme	Subthemes/ categories	Issues raised/ codes
Strategies to improving AL of teaching and learning	Professional development	Lack of knowledge of AL roles
	Establishing autonomy	Hierarchy Bureaucracy
	Timely provision of resources	Delayed procurement Delayed disbursement of funds
	Developing staff morale	Low staff morale Incentive system not rewarding learning

5.8.1 Professional development

From the data, a majority of the college leaders suggested there ought to have been professional development of the leaders and the led in their roles. The need for orientation or induction on the different roles and responsibilities to all staff members. The leaders felt that everyone, which is, both the leaders and lecturers should have understood their roles in teaching and learning. For instance, HOD6, VP2 and P2 has this to say:

People should know what is expected of them. Because you find people acting weird as a leader you ask for example people not showing up for work and not even reporting to the next senior person in the line. Such things they need to be discussed before something goes wrong (HOD 6).

I believe education on the part of lecturers to say these are your roles, these are the roles of administration. So every member of the college knows his or her role. And therefore he knows what he is supposed to do and the extent how far can I go. This is not within my domain. This is my domain. So that everybody can comply. Also education on how does an individual contribute to a bigger vision. What do you need to know as individual as a person, what do you know as individual of that unit regarding the vision and mission to get people do their work (VP2).

I think there is need for one to be given an audience even if it's the chief inspector, this is what is expected of you (P2).

The above captions indicated a gap on the induction of staff into new positions. From personal observation, normally, the TTCs recruited lecturers from schools where they would be serving as either primary or secondary teachers. These lecturers, upon serving in the colleges, were then promoted to HODs without formal training in new positions. This is further supported by literature that academic leaders assume leadership positions without prior preparation.

However, there were varied opinions on how and when these leaders should be trained. Some suggested induction or orientation, and some continuous professional development through workshops, seminars and so forth. Here are some of the excerpts to support the finding:

I think the challenge is lack of education on academic leadership. So maybe we need to be educated on the academic leadership (HOD1).

I think the training aspect itself needs to be imposed so that people can become motivated (HOD5).

HOD5 suggested compulsory training of the college leaders.

I think and I believe that once individuals are promoted to these leadership roles, the training manuals should be developed. The newly appointed college leaders should be subjected to some kind of training so that they do not take long time to be effective on the job. It becomes very easy. For now these leaders are promoted there and they are expected to find their way out with no even one day or one hour training period I think empowerment with regard to training erhh inductions in the new role and expectations should be done to the leaders..... Therefore I am saying at least some kind of training. It could be a short course, it could be a manual, it could be err one month, it could be an online course but some kind of training can help these people to be effective as leaders in teaching and learning the colleges (VP1)

The above quote (VP1) suggests the development of a training manual and a short course of about a month. While VP2 and HOD4 suggested continuous professional development. Here is a comment:

Leadership workshop at constant intervals would also be useful on the roles of the leaders either HODs, vice principals or principals in teaching and learning (VP2)

Well in my opinion I think having workshops now and again as per need is something that can help us to be on toes, and to have the expertise and the knowledge that we actually have we continue with the work we have to do. So actually I think from time to time so that we improve because there is always room for improvement. So yeah such opportunities should be there for leaders to learn more and improve themselves. People should be encouraged to develop themselves in the aspect of leadership (HOD4)

I think it's important that responsibilities are clearly discussed. Also in-service workshops. I think are necessary because sometimes there is a thin line being a leader and being a dictator. When you are leading people you know you are working with people. And when you are dictating it's like you always pouring down things on people, not expecting any feedback from them. One needs regular workshops on such (HOD6).

I think when you are in leadership you need in-service workshop and professional development, the leadership styles. Need a meeting where you are going to share on how to mitigate a situation in your college (P2).

The teachers and students shared the same sentiments with college leaders by suggesting training of the college leaders. For instance, students in College A said:

I think the leaders are supposed to attend workshops for training about the leadership (SB6).

Also, the teachers in College A suggested that their leaders needed to undergo programmes that would build their capacity:

The solution is to workshop the people who get leadership positions. Make them understand fully what their responsibilities are. Make them fully understand that it is important not to confuse leading me with kuphatsa (management) (LA3).

The above quote shows that the colleges had a gap in the academic leadership development of leaders. This is not unique to the selected TTCs. Formal training for academic leadership is often non-existent (Naheed & Mohsin, 2018). It has been widely accepted that academic leaders need preparatory training to deal with diversified challenges in HE (Pani, 2017).

Furthermore, the participants shared views vary on how the leaders wanted to be trained. Three options emerged from the data; that is, short-term training, continuous development and self-development. Four of the participant college leaders preferred short-term training like short courses and workshops. For instance, VP1 had this to say:

It could be a short course, it could be a manual, it could be err a one month it could be an online course but some kind of training can help these people to be effective as leaders in teaching and learning in higher institutions and colleges (VP1).

This was supported by the lecturers from both colleges. Here are comments from the focus groups:

Maybe to capacitate the leaders through workshops and through in-service on the aspect of leadership (LA2).

We need to do capacity building with regards to the leaders which can involve the reward because of the conduct (SLB1).

This finding affirms the previously expressed gap in preparation as well as the need for induction of the college leaders for executing their academic leadership roles.

On the other hand, four of the college leaders suggested continuous academic leadership development. For instance, HOD3 said:

There is a very important one of life-long learning. Promote that. Like I know it our government when it comes to the ministry, it does not reward any other professional development...So the institution needs to instil the principles of lifelong learning. For instance, we are promoted without training but the principles of lifelong learning enable us to surf the internet and get information. So that we understand the role we are in. We shouldn't wait for somebody to come up with a workshop to come up with the training that will enhance us (HOD3).

This was also supported by students in College B who emphasized that the training should be continuous. Here are focus group extracts to support this claim:

I think it's important that as a leader you should continue to develop yourself. Leadership changes so if you continue to lead, you must continue to develop for your leadership to be effective (SB5).

I think leaders should not be content that I am already a leader, but they should continue training so that they are up-to-standard to change the world (SB2).

This finding suggests that leaders should understand the dynamic nature of HE. Undoubtedly, in their academic leadership, college leaders should be capable of working in a dynamic environment. Bush (2015) agrees with the finding and defines academic leaders as people who are responsible for the growth and evolution of all HEIs. Additionally, academic leaders need to act dynamically, handle multiple tasks and deal with varied people (Gigliotti & Ruben, 2017), surely, this requires a deeper understanding of what academic leaders' roles entails. Similarly, Bellibas et al (2016) claim that the roles of HODs as academic leaders are of crucial importance within today's dynamic academic environment.

Meanwhile, three college leaders advocated for self-development. To support this statement:

I do believe strongly in self-improvement, Err in self-upgrading, in researching, in reading in line with your responsibilities. You will never reach a situation

where somebody will call you and say come I want to teach you how to be a leader where you are. It's rarely occurring so you must be self-motivated to deliver (P1).

The admission by P1 that they ought to self-improve agrees with Stefani (2015) who argues that there is a need for deliberate intention to build the capacity and capability of leaders. Also, Pani (2017) claims that there is a relationship between the quality of leadership and the performance and outcome of organisations. So, for the TTCs to improve their performance, the quality of leadership must be improved. Academic leadership development is one way of improving leadership.

Floyd (2016) argues that academic leaders, need to be prepared for their role by providing them with leadership and management skills to deal with the difficulties of the job. The college leaders further expressed several areas where they needed training. These include leadership and management, use of technology, interpersonal skills, staff motivation, research as well as teaching and learning skills.

A majority (seven leaders) of them recommended training on leadership and management. For leadership was on leadership styles or approaches, leadership roles, as well as understanding what is expected of them.

Understanding what leadership is all about. Understanding what management is all about. Because when you look into the situation you are just thrown in the deep end. You learn through trial and error. You sometimes bounce and sometimes you bounce back the hard way. You know. So the training. I don't know I think short term training as a leader so that you understand what it means to be a leader. And also understanding some leadership styles because sometimes the conflict is because of the different err perceptions of leadership styles and people will think you are wrong with that particular style (HOD3).

It can be said from the words of HOD3 among other interviewees that the college leaders acknowledged the existence of a deficiency in their understanding of their academic leadership role and their capacities to execute their leadership. Additionally,

three leaders suggested training on the use of technology at the level of leadership. Here is are two excerpts from the interviews:

We must be trained on issues centering around technology, the use of technology which is now is at the level of a leader things you would need to do as a leader. What sort of software should you be able to manipulate (HOD5)?

Right now I would say it is important to empower leaders on online training, use of online training or online usage errrh with regard to performing duties. How to implement online activities, the use of open and online education resources (VP1)

The excerpt from HOD5 indicates that college leaders were ready to embrace technology. In light of changing the HE landscape, there is a need to embrace technology (Goldstein, Miller & Courson, 2014). Arvindekar and Mackasare (2012) suggest that academic leaders should embark on developing computer-based learning materials as well as digital libraries to expose students to audio-visual cases. Perhaps this was also influenced by that the data was collected during the Covid-19 pandemic which necessitated online teaching and learning in the TTCs.

The need to embrace technology also transpired from students' focus group interviews in College A when they were asked how leadership could be enhanced. Here is what the students said:

The leaders to be digitally educated before they can implement the strategy which are forcing us to perform tasks we have never seen before. We need to find confidence in them before we can do this thing on our own (SA3).

Five leaders proposed training on interpersonal skills such as relationship building, coordination skills, conflict resolution skills, and communication skills. Here is evidence from some of the leaders:

We need training on Interpersonal skills, coordinating skills. The new leader there, should know that she is coordinating how many departments and how the coordinating should be done as early as possible before mistakes start to

show up. Coordination skills erhh, the leadership roles, specific instructional leadership roles, what is expected (VP1).

Helping people develop skills like you know good communication skills. I think even the relationship building skills if we have good relationship with colleagues, with the outside service providers (HOD3).

Mhhh err conflict resolution for example. When there are conflicts within the departments. That's an area that I think err they need to be prepared on (HOD5).

In my opinion, the training needs that the college leaders expressed were diverse and these communicated the difficulties they faced in their academic leadership role. As mentioned earlier, Floyd (2016) affirms that academic leaders, need to be prepared for their role by providing them with leadership and management skills to deal with the difficulties of the job.

The leaders suggested that government should have supported them with professional development. To support this HOD5 said:

First, before I am appointed I should be prepared for that position... I think err government should try to have a clear programme for staff development staff professional development... But the issue of professional development is very crucial...I think government really needs to develop a professional development programme, which could also probably be aligned to remuneration... There should be you know the process where government acknowledges any professional growth (HOD5).

From the excerpt above, there is a suggestion that government should have rewarded staff learning. Since the leaders did not have the authority or power to use the funds as mentioned earlier, they expressed their wish that the government could have supported the provision of incentives for learning.

5.8.2 Establishing autonomy

Four of the college leaders proposed that establishing college autonomy would enhance their academic leadership of teaching and learning. At the time of the interviews, the TTCs were fully controlled by government procedures and rules and regulations. Therefore, in this context, autonomy refers to being independent as colleges that is having more control over resources through a governing body.

To support that the colleges need autonomy, one principal commented that autonomy would empower them with resources and decision-making. The principal from College A made this comment:

We do need some autonomy of some sort. Autonomy does not suggest a delink. We are still linked. But empowered with the resources with finances and with decision-making processes. Where we have challenges we will always enquire and consult (P1).

The vice principal from College B supported the need for autonomy and he said:

So one way we can do is probably if the government or the ministry can give some amount of autonomy in terms of decision-making and authority where the principal or vice principal can lead an institution that will take a decision and comply with it (VP2)

The vice principal of the college further stated some of the anticipated impacts of autonomy. The impacts include ease of implementing decisions and timely recruitment of staff. Here is the evidence:

In my opinion, teacher training colleges should be given certain powers to the leadership of the institution. To advertise, shortlist and recruit within a reasonable time. No external body should interfere so much... Also what we need here we need I don't know what they call it regulation, something that can establish colleges separating colleges from schools because as we speak the government policies and documents they view a college and a high school similar. Now this deprives the leaders of certain powers to make decisions at their own pace. They always depend on the government bureaucracy to be

successful and implement decisions. Decisions in the colleges are not easy to implement because the process is very long. Even purchasing of teaching and learning material through the tendering system it really takes long. You make six weeks trying to purchase something to be used long time ago and also fail at the end... but the ideal situation would be, let the colleges have a certain autonomy or another body be set out to focus on operations of colleges in terms of employing staff for colleges, processing requests for colleges as opposed to TSC (VP1).

HOD6 also supported autonomy by stating that it would reduce hierarchy and bureaucracy that delayed the procurement of teaching and learning materials. Here is a direct quote from the HOD:

I think the college can improve if it became bit err independent to say when we need materials we get them. Not to say when you need materials it has to go through steps and steps, offices and offices it takes long. So I think it's because we are not independent, it has in effect (HOD6).

Principal 2 suggested a governing board as a solution for establishing autonomy. The principal said:

I think the institution needs a to have a board which for instance is going to hire people because the bureaucracy when you involve government then you know you are not going anywhere (P2).

This suggestion was supported by the focus groups from students and staff from College A. Here are some of the captions to support the claim:

I think that leaders should be at liberty to exercise fully, fully their powers. This is going to give them a chance to be able to fully implement the necessary changes around their environment without having to go and consult maybe other stakeholders around the school (SA1).

It would be of great help now the institution can be become an independent institution on its own instead of being an affiliate to the University of Eswatini. It's too affiliated. It has to take care of everything that it does from err it's more

like it's asking permission every time it takes decisions for itself. It's like we are not independent (SA3).

The findings confirm that leaders in the TTCs needed autonomy to exercise power and implement the decisions they make. This claim is supported by (Pityana, 2010) who claims that academics value autonomy. This finding implies that the selected college leaders lacked control over resources which made it difficult to provide the teaching and learning resources and subsequently achieve their goals.

5.8.3 Timely provision of resources

From the data, the four leaders suggested the timely release of teaching and learning resources would enable their academic leadership. To support this, VP1 emphasized the timely disbursement of funds:

The financial support. That means how I wish the college could have money as early as possible but as it appears now colleges do not have money because the students who are there, their tuition fees are not paid timely by the sponsors as a result the college runs without money for quite a long period of time. Making it very difficult to function (VP1).

HOD6 supported this and mentioned that it would enable them to get resources on time. Here is a direct quote:

Government must avail resources readily. No delay. I have noticed that there is always a delay. We must have our own budget and manage it. Then we will know how to actually prioritise on what we need for teaching and learning. When we have our budget we can always align needs to what is actually available. For example we may need a printer, we need a scanner (HOD6).

The above captions revealed that the release of funds for teaching and learning resources was delayed. Since these were government colleges, this finding reflects the negative impact of the government bureaucracies, and hierarchies as well as the dependency of the colleges on government for funding. Most students were sponsored by the government through the Ministry of Labour and Social Security. Hence, the data

propose a timely release of funds to get the teaching and learning materials in time too.

5.8.4 Developing staff morale

This subtheme indicated that staff need motivation. However, there were varied views on staff motivation. Some participants supported self-motivation. For instance, HOD3 said:

Yes. And then may be look at other things that can motivate the staff so that they don't just look into the remuneration. May be help them shift their focus on the remuneration to the product that they are producing. The kind of the result, the kind of product they produce at the end of the day. Instead of looking at what they are paid for that. I think that can help in improving the teaching and learning effectiveness in college. Working around the issues of motivation. Just motivating them to work for the sake of working not for the sake of being paid. The paying is secondary (HOD3).

VP2 and HOD2 supported the need for motivating the staff to do their work. They said:

Another key thing is err how you use motivation to get things done (VP2)

There is need for motivating staff in our departments that they do their work (HOD2).

The above quotes show that the staff had low morale. This was also found in the strategic plan for College B. This is in line with literature that often in HE, excellence in teaching and learning is not rewarded. That is, promotions were not usually based on teaching and learning excellence. Thus, the reward system for teaching and learning remains underdeveloped. In line with this, promotions in TTCs are based on seniority that is years of service rather than excellence in teaching and learning. Even upon upgrading themselves, there was no incentive for upgrading their qualifications.

5.9 Document analysis

Two college official documents, namely; the strategic plans and calendars (almanacs) were utilized as another method of collecting data. Data from these two documents

were utilized to fill in the gaps that could have been left in the interviews and focus group interviews. This is supported by Wood, Sebar & Vecchio (2020) who claim that document analysis seeks convergence and corroboration. Themes were identified from both documents.

5.9.1 Almanacs

The almanac is a calendar of events and activities for the colleges. The respective colleges' almanac was used to examine any planned activities to enhance teaching and learning and identify the tools and routines that enhanced the culture of teaching and learning.

The findings revealed that the almanac from both colleges consisted of several activities, actions and routines which supported teaching and learning in the colleges. Most of the activities for College A and B were similar. Similar activities included: orientation of year 1 students, morning assembly, HODs meetings, academic staff meetings, and committee meetings (procurement, research, graduation, teaching practice, internal assessment, and external assessment). The almanacs also indicated the opening and closing of the college and breaks, activities like teaching and learning, teaching practice, examinations and external moderation of examinations. In short, the colleges use the almanac to highlight priority activities of the college and to coordinate them. It also indicated that meetings are utilised for engagement the committee meetings indicate the distribution of work among college staff.

The following differences were noted, college A had research seminars in their schedule, and workshops with cooperating schools were indicated. While College B had students' extracurricular activities like culture day, athletics and music as well as sporting activities.

In summary, the findings indicate that in both colleges, the college leaders use meetings as means of communication and engaging staff. This is in line with the principle of dialogue in the LfL framework. However, it could not be ascertained what is discussed in through meetings. The findings also revealed that there was monitoring of teaching and learning through assessment meetings. The quality of teaching and learning is controlled through moderation internal and external.

5.9.2 Strategic plans

The strategic plan for College A indicated the vision and mission as well as eight strategic focus areas. The vision and mission articulated focus on leadership in teaching, research and community service. The mission also focused on access, quality, relevant and affordable education. The thematic areas include finances and legislation; human resources; facilities and infrastructure, programmes: curriculum and teaching; quality assurance and professional development; management leadership and governance and diversity as well as gender and partnership.

The focus of this study was on academic leadership of teaching and learning therefore I present the challenges and proposed strategies that focus on academic leadership of teaching and learning. Several challenges were found. These are low staff morale, dependence on government for resources, out-of-date library resources, inadequate collaborations and partnerships with stakeholders, inadequate staff, inadequate professional development programmes, unclear promotion criteria, inadequate infrastructure, irrelevant programmes, unclear decision-making process, lack of governance structure, lack of employee orientation, and lastly unclear communication mechanism.

To address these issues, it was proposed that the following would be done: diversification of income sources, establishing semi-autonomy, reviews of salaries, professional development through workshops, establishing a clear procedure to recruit staff and promotion criteria, diversifying programmes and increasing infrastructure.

The strategic plan for College B indicated the vision and mission as well as five strategic focus areas. The vision and mission focused on relevant, diverse and quality education. The focus areas were learning and programmes: organisational transformation, resource mobilisation, and capacitation; stakeholder relations and image and information communication technology.

The challenges faced by College B include a shortage of human resources; lack of professional, and interpersonal skills, lack of in-service, communication challenges and demoralised staff; shortage of infrastructure, lack of equipment of dysfunctional

equipment, delayed deliveries, lack of control over financial resources, lack of a diverse programme, absence of a board of governance and lack of finances.

The proposed strategies to address these challenges include: recruiting highly qualified staff, recruiting more staff, lobbying for salary increments for staff, investing and expanding on the infrastructure, introducing new programmes, lobbying for the introduction of a board/council, mobilise resources and lobbying legislation that shall recognise the college as a public enterprise.

The challenges presented by both colleges were similar and were in line with what was found in the interviews. The common challenges were: the shortage of staff, lack of finances, unclear governance of the colleges, irrelevant curriculum, and unclear communication. The proposed strategies were establishing recruitment of staff, semi-autonomy, and diversification of income (resource mobilisation). These also came from the interviews.

5.10 Interpretation of findings

From the above findings, several implications and discussion points arose. Firstly, the findings revealed seven roles of academic leadership that teaching and learning in TTCs. These are supervision and monitoring of teaching and learning; providing teaching and learning resources; defining and communicating the vision; administrative role, management of teaching and learning time, motivating the staff and meeting staff needs. Lecturers agreed with the leaders, while students viewed the principal as a public relations officer and decision-maker. They also viewed the vice principal as a person responsible for ensuring discipline and adherence to college regulations. The study revealed that most of the roles are shared among the leaders, subsequently supporting the principles of shared leadership and shared accountability.

Firstly, supervision and monitoring of teaching and learning were viewed as a role shared among all leaders by all the participant groups. This finding was contrary to the

autonomy needed by academics in HE. Apart from providing teaching and learning equipment and materials, the lecturers in both colleges expressed that they expected the college leaders to provide adequate and relevant personnel. While few college leaders considered providing human resources as their academic leadership role, the lecturers believed that this was a major role for the principals. Therefore, this result reflects a discrepancy between expectations by the teachers and the principals' understanding of their role. Probably the reason why the principals did not perceive providing personnel as their role, was because it came out in the interviews that recruitment is done by Teaching Service Commission (TSC). Hence, the principals did not see it as their role.

This study revealed that principals define college vision and goals and communicate them to the students and staff. This finding is in line with Bana and Khaki (2015) who explored how principals understood their roles in government elementary colleges of education and found that as an academic leader, one of the roles of the principal is to shape the vision of academic success of all students. This finding is also supported by Singh & Purohit (2011) who assert that academic leaders are responsible for setting institutional /departmental direction.

The study further revealed that college leaders are expected to do administrative roles such as budget and implementing the budgets, procurement of teaching and learning materials and providing personnel. Similarly, in Pakistan government principals in elementary TTCs revealed that they see themselves as administrators (Bana & Khaki, 2014). The role of principals of colleges is thought to be managerial or administration than leadership (Hossain & Mozumder, 2019). Also, in their administrative and managerial function, Branson, Franken and Penney (2016) claim that HODs are responsible for human resource and financial management such as promotions, staff leaves, budgeting, procurement, and expenditures.

The study also revealed that principals are expected to motivate the staff and meet their needs. Similarly, Mukan, Havrylyuk & Stolyarchuk (2015) claim that academic leaders are responsible for motivating the staff by supporting them and meeting their needs. This finding concurs with Thakur (2014) who examined the roles of principals in Colleges of Education in Maharashtra state and found that among other roles, the

principals motivate the staff by rewarding and providing incentives (Thakur, 2014). Also, lecturers consider meeting their needs like accommodation, psychosocial support, and relations as a responsibility for the leaders. Likewise, a study conducted in TTCs in Ghana revealed that lecturers consider the goal attainment and fulfilment of their needs as prominent tasks for leaders (Supermane, Tahir & Aris, 2018). These two roles support LfL theory which considers agency as fundamental in learning. In this case, agents are the lecturers who are directly involved in the teaching and learning. This finding further suggests that college leaders had an indirect influence on teaching and learning in the TTCs.

While the lecturers want motivation, they were reluctant to provide details on the motivation aspect. This could have been influenced by the fact that the study was collected during a period of political unrest in the country. Also in 2018, the government issued a circular freezing promotions.

As already mentioned, students expect vice principals to ensure discipline. This finding implies that the students expect the vice principals to ensure that the college climate was conducive for teaching and learning to take place by ensuring discipline. Similarly, it is the role of leaders to create an enabling environment for flourishing academics in their teaching role (Herman et al., 2018). This is also in line with the LfL principle on conditions for learning.

Above findings suggest that these roles were shared or distributed among the principals, vice principals, and HODs. This is in line with the principle of LfL that leadership and accountability are shared. Therefore, the researcher conclude that academic leadership of teaching and learning in the TTCs was a shared activity.

The findings further reflect that the participants from both colleges perceived that principals were responsible for defining the college vision and communicating with staff and students. This finding is in line with literature which reveals setting direction as one of the key roles of leadership in any institution. This finding was further supported by the students from both colleges who view the principal as a decision-maker and as an authority figure. This could suggest the hierarchical structure of the TTCs as well as their limited participation in decision-making.

Students expressed inadequate involvement in decision-making. This therefore expresses a distance between the leaders and students yet the students were the target beneficiaries of teaching and learning. If leaders were distant from the students who were direct beneficiaries of teaching and learning, how would these leaders understand students' needs?

Regarding how college leaders influenced teaching and learning, the following four major approaches were identified: These are; providing teaching and learning materials, professional development, participatory decision-making, and monitoring teaching and learning. The most predominant was providing teaching and learning materials. These materials were chiefly materials Information Technology (IT) based like the internet, Learning Management Systems (LMS), IT gadgets (computers), books and libraries. Similarly, Scott and Scott (2011) claim that leaders should ensure teaching resources infrastructure and technology are in place.

The second approach through which leaders influenced teaching and learning is through professional development. It transpired that they achieved this through induction and mentorship of new lecturers, and workshops. Professional development motivates the teaching staff towards the capacity to achieve the vision of the institutions (Phillips, Bassell, Fillmore & Stephenson, 2018).

Thirdly, leaders influenced teaching and learning through participatory decision-making. This is in line with the principle of dialogue in LfL theory. Participatory decision-making enables learning to occur. Saroyan et al (2011) suggest student and staff involvement in decision-making. While the leaders engaged in participatory decision-making to enhance the culture of teaching and learning, there was no mention of students' participation in the decision-making. On the other hand, the findings showed that students wanted to participate in decision-making. This indicates less involvement of students in decision-making related to teaching and learning. Furthermore, the literature indicates limited research on students' views on leadership

in HEIs yet they are central to the leadership of teaching and learning, yet their perspective of leadership is hardly studied (Richards, 2011).

The study further revealed that college leaders monitor teaching and learning through class attendance of both staff and students, checking assessments and syllabus coverage and periodic meetings. The almanac of the two colleges revealed monthly meetings for the college leaders and assessment meetings. However, there was a unique finding that one vice principal conducted class visits. This is contrary to autonomy and it conflicts with academic freedom.

Also, in the TTCs, promotions were not usually based on teaching and learning excellence. Promotions can serve as incentives to motivate the staff. Thus, the reward system of teaching and learning remains underdeveloped. In line with this, promotions in TTCs are based on seniority, which is years of service rather than excellence in teaching and learning. Even upon upgrading themselves, there is no incentive for upgrading your qualifications. This implies that professional development is not rewarded. Salary scales are based on posts/positions not qualifications.

The findings revealed seven major challenges. These were: negative attitudes, unethical conduct, insufficient resources, bureaucracy, lack of autonomy, lack of prior preparation for the leadership role, and unclear guiding policies. The absence of formal training on academic leadership of teaching and learning was the mostly rated challenge. This confirms the literature claims that often academic leaders were not prepared before they assumed leadership roles. Although leaders are expected to do both management and leadership roles, they lacked preparation for human and financial resources management including interpersonal relationships and conflict management (Berg & Jarbur, 2014). Most postgraduate degrees are research-based. The absence of preparation or training invariably indicates an academic leadership development gap.

While a majority of the college leaders claimed not to have received any prior training on academic leadership, four college leaders acknowledged informal leadership preparation in forums like meetings, workshops and understudying other their

processors. This finding stresses the significant role played by activities like meetings as a professional development activity. According to the theory of LfL, meetings are a form of dialogue. According to Macbeath (2006), dialogue enables sharing of ideas and learning, subsequently, it is an informal training of these leaders.

Seven college leaders claimed the existence of policies guiding the academic leadership roles, although there was no mention of a specific guiding policy or document. These cloudy findings regarding the existence of policy or guiding documents indicated a gap in clear policies that guide academic leadership of teaching and learning.

From the findings, four main strategies were proposed to enhance academic leadership of teaching and learning. These were professional development, establishing autonomy, timely provision of resources, and staff motivation. Most participants suggested professional development of the leaders in their roles as a major strategy to enhance leadership. Furthermore, the majority of them expressed a need for training in leadership and management. This finding indicated inadequate expertise in leadership, consequently a gap in academic leadership development. This is not unique to the TTCs. Often, the leaders in HEIs are appointed based on academic qualifications and work experience rather than leadership and management skills.

Still on professional development, the participants suggested either short-term training, continuous development or self-development. The continuous professional development suggests that leaders understand the dynamic nature of HEIs. Undoubtedly, in their academic leadership, college leaders should be capable of working in a dynamic environment. Continuous academic leadership development is one way of adapting to improve their leadership. Jovanovic and Ciric (2016) claim that transformational leadership is instrumental in creating a positive school climate for all educational processes.

Still on professional development, the findings also stressed the induction of staff into new positions. From personal observation, normally, the TTCs recruit lecturers from schools where they would be serving as either primary or secondary teachers. These lecturers upon serving in the colleges would then be promoted to HODs without formal training in new positions. This indicates an absence of induction in the TTCs. It has

been widely accepted that academic leaders need preparatory training to deal with diversified challenges in HE (Pani, 2017).

There was a suggestion to establish autonomy in the colleges to reduce hierarchy and bureaucracy which subsequently lead to delayed teaching and learning materials deliveries. Ren and Li (2013) further affirm that academic freedom with autonomy in HE is of central value. On the issue of developing staff morale, the findings revealed that staff need motivation. Similarly, in a study conducted in selected South African HEIs, it was found that teaching and learning excellence awards raised the profile of teaching in a move away from the dominance of research (Behari- Leek & Mckenna, 2017). The current remuneration system in the TTCs does not provide incentives for teaching and learning excellence.

5.11 Chapter summary

This chapter presented the data, interpreted and discussed the findings. From the data gathered, more male leaders participated in the study. On the lecturers' side, a majority were females. The students were dominated by males.

The findings revealed that principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students believed that principals were responsible for supervising and monitoring the teaching and learning process, defining the vision, and administrative roles. These roles were shared among the principals, vice principals and HODs. Similarly, literature claimed that principals were viewed as chief administrators to manage the finances, they also defined the vision and mission of the institutions and are responsible to meet the staff needs. The vice principals were perceived to be responsible for coordinating activities within the college, managing teaching and learning time as well as ensuring discipline in the college. On the other hand, HODs were viewed as supervisors of departments and they provided teaching and learning materials. Most of the teaching and learning took place in the department. Therefore, this is in line with the literature which reveals that HODs are in the first line of leadership of teaching and learning in HE.

The study further revealed that college leaders influenced teaching and learning in the college by providing teaching and learning materials, professional learning support,

motivating the staff, involving them in decision-making, effectively communicating, and lastly monitoring teaching and learning. This invariable indicated that college leaders have an indirect effect on teaching and learning.

While executing their leadership roles, it emerged that college leaders faced numerous challenges which included staff negative attitude, unethical conduct, shortage of resources as well as the bureaucracy associated with acquiring teaching and learning resources, lack of autonomy, lack of prior preparation when assuming academic leadership task and lastly, unclear policies guiding academic leadership of teaching and learning. The attitude of the staff suggests an inadequate understanding of how to handle the behaviours of their colleagues due to little or no preparation to assume the leadership role by the college leaders. The bureaucracy is typical of government departments and this explains why the participants suggested college autonomy as one of the strategies to improve leadership. Suggested strategies to enhance academic leadership for the improvement of teaching and learning in the TTCs included professional development of leaders particularly workshops and timely provision of resources, establishing some form of autonomy as well as incentivising teaching and learning excellence. The next chapter, therefore, presents the summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to explore the academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected teacher training colleges of Eswatini. This chapter presents the summary of findings, limitations of the study, suggestions for future research and lastly the conclusion.

6.2 Summary of findings

The summary of findings is drawn from the themes as guided by the following research questions: a) what are the perspectives of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two selected TTCs regarding the academic leadership roles of college leaders in teaching and learning? b) How do college leaders of the two TTCs create a culture of teaching and learning? c) Which challenges are facing academic leadership of teaching and learning in the two colleges? d) What strategies are necessary to improve academic leadership of teaching and learning at the two selected TTCs?

6.2.1 Theme 1: Academic leadership roles of college leaders

This theme considered the academic leadership roles of college leaders in teaching and learning from the perspectives of principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students. The findings revealed that the principals, vice principals and HODs, lecturers and students from both colleges held similar views regarding the academic leadership roles of the college leaders. However, there was a slight variation of opinion among the students and leaders.

Firstly, supervision and monitoring of teaching and learning; providing teaching and learning resources such as equipment, infrastructure and allocation of human resources, defining and communicating the vision, administrative role emerged as four common academic leadership roles that influence teaching and learning as practised by college leaders. These four were common among the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students from both colleges.

On the other hand, leaders and lecturers from both colleges agreed that motivating the staff and meeting staff needs were academic leadership roles influencing teaching and learning. The study revealed that the principals motivated the lecturers by providing resources that facilitated teaching and learning and attending to their (lecturers) needs. Interestingly, only students from College A viewed the role of principals as decision-making. Additionally, students from both colleges viewed principals as authority figures and hence perceived the key role of the principal as decision-making. On another note, students from college A felt that they were not listened to, indicating that they were not involved in decision-making

6.2.2 Theme 2: Creating the culture of teaching and learning

This theme identified four measures and activities that college leaders engaged in, to influence teaching and learning in the two TTCs. Firstly, the findings revealed that a majority of the leaders provided support materials that aided teaching and learning and this was one way to promote teaching and learning. These resources included the internet, a Learning Management System, information technology gadgets, books and a library.

Secondly, most of the leaders enhanced teaching and learning by professionally developing their staff mainly through workshops. The findings further revealed the college leaders were informally oriented and provided peer mentoring of newly appointed lecturers in their respective departments. Peer mentoring was described as a process whereby the new staff is attached to a lecturer who had experience in teaching that particular course and was meant to provide support.

Thirdly, the findings showed that the college leaders involved their staff in decision-making that pertained to teaching and learning. To support this claim, it came out that the leaders created opportunities for participatory-decision making through meetings, mostly at the departmental level. Evidence of these meetings was further supported by the respective colleges' almanac which reflected academic staff meetings, committee meetings, monthly HODs meetings, departmental meetings, and assessment meetings to mention a few. Contrary to that, there was no mention of students' participation in the decision-making, yet they were directly affected by the decisions taken by the leaders.

Lastly, the findings revealed that in both colleges, the leaders monitored teaching and learning. This included monitoring class attendance, delivery of teaching, staff attendance as well as student assessment. Seemingly, this role was mostly carried out by HODs. It came out that the vice principals also monitored teaching and learning especially the attendance of staff.

Notably, there was diversity in how these leaders monitored teaching and learning. For instance, one vice principal mentioned that he visited the classrooms and observed if there were teachers in the classrooms. The other vice principal mentioned that they did randomly check staff attendance in classes. Three of six HODs mentioned that they checked students' assessments particularly, assignments, and tests and also checked syllabus coverage. This indicates that the assessments were also used as evidence that teaching and learning took place in the classroom.

6.2.3 Theme 3: Challenges facing academic leadership

This theme focused on constraints hindrances and barriers faced in the leadership of teaching and learning. Several challenges emerged from the study. Some are context related (internal and external) and some are human-agency-related. These are presented in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 shows that four of the challenges were context related indicating that the colleges' environment was constraining to academic leadership for quality teaching and learning activities. Context-related challenges were insufficient resources, bureaucracy, lack of autonomy and unclear guiding policies. Other factors were human agency or human-related. These were; negative attitudes, unethical conduct and lack of preparation.

Firstly, the findings revealed that most leaders faced a challenge of staff attitudes, which were negative attitudes and territorialism- lecturers want to work independently. This could indicate the inability of the leaders to work with different characters. It could also indicate the need for academic freedom by the lecturers.

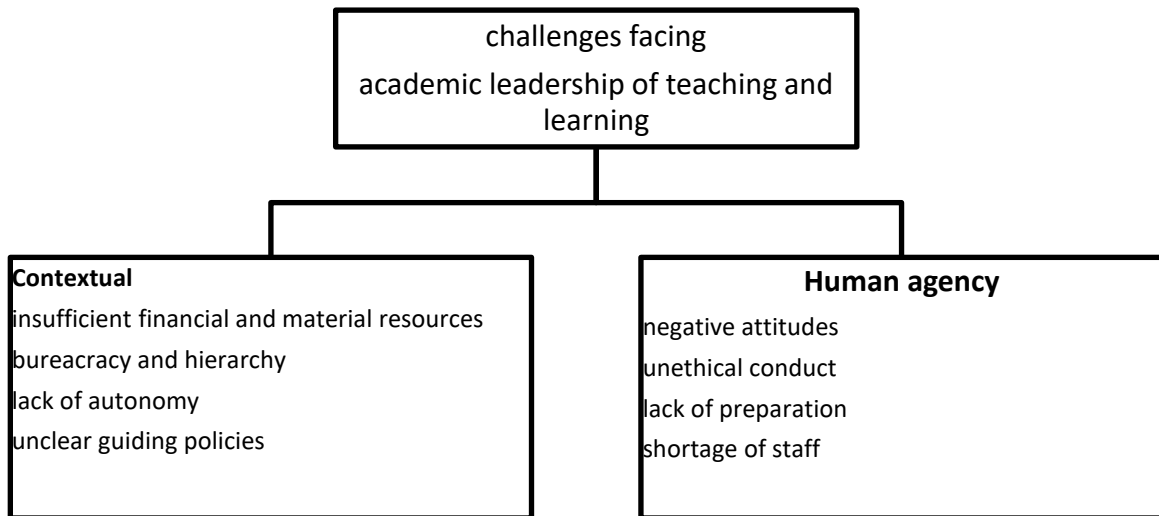


Figure 6.1 Summary of challenges facing academic leadership of teaching and learning.

Secondly, the findings revealed that the lecturers were uncooperative and unprofessional indicating unethical behaviour. The common behaviour is absenteeism. To address the challenge of uncooperative and unprofessional behaviour, it came out that leaders engaged and talked to the lecturers. They also mentioned that they put disciplinary measures. If the matter was not resolved it would be dealt with using the hierarchy structure.

Thirdly, insufficient resources came out as the most common challenge among all the participants. This included inadequate financial resources and it delayed payment of teaching and learning materials. This was said to have negatively impacted practical subjects. Also, students expressed concern that funds were insufficient and as a consequence, it negatively affected their learning environment and caused delayed procurement of teaching and learning equipment. Still on the financial resources, the data revealed a delayed disbursement of funds in the TTCs. To address this challenge, it came out that the leaders improvised and this went to the extent of using personal funds.

Still on the resources, the findings further showed a shortage of teaching and learning material resources as a barrier to academic leadership of teaching and learning. Examples of these material resources referred to include internet and library materials. The findings also showed that the shortage of teaching and materials was sometimes caused by delayed deliveries during procurement processes. The lecturers confirmed the shortage of learning support materials as a hindrance to teaching and learning.

Shortage of teaching staff shortage was also identified as another resource constraint for both colleges. The college leaders felt that the shortage of lecturers was caused by structural issues such as unfavourable policy environments like the freezing of posts by the government due to high wage bill. Adding another layer of difficulty to the shortage of teaching staff was that these colleges did not have control over the hiring and replacement of the posts because they were not directly involved in hiring the staff. The shortage of staff was indicative of some of the hindrances towards attaining the teaching and learning goals of the colleges. In the cases of shortages of lecturers, the findings revealed that HODs adjusted the workloads to suffice the shortage of staff. This may lead to work overload and subsequently, burnout.

Bureaucracy was cited by six of ten leaders as another challenge. The leaders expressed frustration associated with the bureaucracy, particularly on the procurement of teaching and learning materials. They felt the hierarchy was long and resulted in delayed deliveries of teaching and learning materials. The findings further showed that bureaucracy further affected teaching staff recruitment. It came out that it took longer to replace teaching personnel. The hiring was done by TSC. While leaders expressed frustration with the bureaucracy within government systems, students in College A made a similar observation. However, the students' concern was about the hierarchy within the institution. They expressed that it created distance between them and the administration.

Lastly, the college leaders acknowledged that the TTCs' lack of autonomy was a challenge to their leadership. The two colleges were dependent on the government. One principal even mentioned that the lack of autonomy limited decision-making and

implementation of those decisions. The findings showed that while the principals were in top management in the TTCs, they were expected to take decisions yet they had little power to implement those decisions. They did not have the authority to do so since they were controlled by the government. The leaders seemed helpless about the situation.

A majority of the college leaders (seven of ten) had not received formal preparation for their academic leadership responsibility. However, a few college leaders (four out of ten) acknowledged forums like meetings, workshops and understudying their processors as informal preparation. The findings further revealed that understanding and execution of the leadership roles were heavily influenced by their work experience in the colleges and job adverts rather than formal training or preparation. This indicates a leadership training gap in the TTCs.

The findings further revealed varied views on the guiding documents or policies for academic leadership practice. Seemingly the policies were spread in various documents as subcomponents ranging from international, national, institutional, and departmental policy documents. This demonstrates an absence of a clear guiding policy for teaching and learning in the colleges.

6.2.4 Theme 4: Strategies for enhancing academic leadership of teaching and learning

This theme focused on identifying ideas, opinions, views, plans and approaches that could be employed by the college leaders to enhance their influence on teaching and learning in the TTCs. The findings generated five key strategies that were proposed by the participants.

Firstly, the findings revealed that almost all the participants suggested professional development of the leaders in their roles. Furthermore, the participants suggested that this could be either short-term training - short courses and workshops, continuous development- lifelong learning and, lastly self-development- self-upgrading.

A majority (seven of ten leaders) recommended training on leadership and management was key. With regard to leadership, the focus was on leadership styles or approaches, leadership roles, as well as understanding what was expected of them. Additionally, three leaders suggested training on the use of technology, developing computer-based learning materials, and digital libraries to expose students to audio-visual cases. The need to embrace technology also transpired from students' focus group interviews in college A. Moreover, five leaders proposed training on interpersonal skills such as relationship building, coordination skills, conflict resolution skills, and communication skills.

The leaders suggested that government should have supported them by offering them professional development. There was a suggestion that government should have rewarded staff learning. Since leaders did not have the authority or power to use the funds as mentioned earlier, they expressed their wish that the government could have supported the provision of incentives for learning.

The leaders felt that everyone, the leaders and lecturers should understand their role in teaching and learning. An observation made by the researcher about the system was that, normally, the TTCs recruited lecturers from schools where they were serving as either primary or secondary teachers. From the findings, induction is ad hoc. These lecturers upon serving in the colleges were promoted to HODs without formal training into new positions. Hence this indicates the absence of a clear induction policy.

Secondly, four of the college leaders proposed that having some form of autonomy would have enhanced their academic leadership of teaching and learning. Currently, the selected TTCs were fully controlled by government procedures, rules and regulations. Therefore, in this context, autonomy referred to being independent as colleges, which is having more control over resources through a governing body. The leaders envisaged that autonomy would reduce hierarchy and bureaucracy and subsequently ease the procurement of teaching and learning materials. One of the principals proposed setting up a governing body as a solution for establishing autonomy. This suggestion was supported by the focus groups from students and staff from college A.

Thirdly, the findings revealed that four leaders suggested timely provision of resources especially funds would enable their academic leadership. The timely release of funds would imply timely procurement of teaching and learning resources. Subsequently, this would reduce the frustrations of staff related to the unavailability of teaching and learning materials.

The development of staff morale was cited as another strategy. From the data, it was suggested that the staff members should be motivated to do their work. Also, the document analysis of the two college strategic plans indicated low staff morale, suggesting the need for staff motivation. Motivation in this context is considered to encourage the lecturers to do their work and implement the college vision. While intrinsic motivation was stressed, it was clarified that the motivation should not be based on remuneration but the motivation to see work done. On the other hand, the strategic plans revealed that low morale is caused by low income, hence salary reviews were proposed to improve staff morale.

Lastly, from the strategic plans, strengthening collaboration and partnerships with stakeholders was found to be a key strategy to enhance the leadership of the two colleges. It came out that it would enable resource mobilisation.

Summary

In summary, the findings revealed that college leaders, lecturers and students viewed supervision and monitoring of teaching and learning, providing teaching and learning resources, defining and communicating the vision, and an administrative function as the four common roles of college leaders that influence teaching and learning. Also, the leaders and lecturers from both colleges agreed that staff motivation and, meeting staff needs were academic leadership roles influencing teaching and learning. Still the lecturers, considered vice principals as coordinators of college programmes and activities. On the other hand, only students viewed the role of principals as decision-making. The students further expressed that they felt not being listened to. The findings further revealed that they considered ensuring conduct as one of the roles of vice principals.

Secondly, the findings revealed that a majority of the leaders provided teaching and learning support materials, professionally develop their staff, are involved staff in decision-making, and monitor teaching and learning as a means to influence teaching and learning. This indicates that college leaders indirectly influence student learning in the TTCs.

Thirdly, the college leaders faced numerous challenges in their leadership function. These were staff attitudes (negative attitude and territorialism), unethical behaviour (, uncooperative and unprofessional behaviour insufficient resources (funds, delayed disbursement of funds, shortage of teaching and learning support resources, shortage of teaching staff) bureaucracy and lack of autonomy.

Lastly, enhancing academic leadership of teaching and learning would require key strategies such as professional development of the leaders on their roles and, establishing the autonomy of the government colleges, timely disbursement of funds, staff induction, and motivation of staff to do their work as well as strengthening collaboration and partnership

6.3 Contribution of the study

The study revealed the viewpoints of academic leadership roles by those in leadership and the led. This allowed the identification of similarities and disparities in role expectations. For instance, for the lecturers, the disparity was the coordination role, while for the students, the point of departure was decision-making and maintaining discipline. Including the opinions of the leaders especially the students allowed their voices to be heard on leadership matters that affect their learning. This confirms shared or distributed leadership and shared accountability as postulated by the LfL theory.

This study contributed to the body of existing knowledge by uncovering how college leaders influence teaching and learning in Eswatini TTCs. The findings reveal that the college leaders indirectly influence teaching and learning by professionally developing the lecturers through workshops and mentoring new lecturers; providing them with teaching and learning materials; involving them in decision-making through meetings, and lastly monitoring the teaching and learning processes through attendance, student

assessments and syllabus. Subsequently, these are mediating factors between academic leadership and teaching and learning as shown in Figure 6.2. These findings revealed that college leaders influence teaching and learning indirectly hence the mediating factors as reflected in Figure 6.2

The study revealed the contextual and human agency factors that influence college leaders from influencing teaching learning (figure 6.2). It further revealed how delayed resources impact on quality of teaching and learning. The study also stressed the significance of professional development, particularly the induction of leaders upon their appointment. The study further uncovered how the existing incentive system, particularly the seniority-promoting criteria currently negatively influences the motivation of staff in their endeavour of learning and teaching. From the theory perspective, these factors indicate the fundamentals (human agency and context) as well as the conditions of learning.

The study further revealed recommended five strategies (professional development, establishing autonomy, timely disbursement of funds, developing staff morale and strengthening collaborations and partnerships with stakeholders) that would enable academic leadership. These suggest required improvements to create a conducive environment for academic leadership practice.

The findings of the study findings are summarised in a conceptual framework as shown in figures 6.2 and 6.2 and indicated that upon appointment, college leaders need induction so they understand their role to influence teaching and learning. It also reflects that in academic leadership roles, there are contextual and human agency-related factors that influence their leadership in teaching and learning. Most of the contextual factors are external.

The figure further depicts that college leaders influence teaching and learning indirectly through teaching-learning materials, professionally developing their staff, involving their staff in decisions that affect teaching and learning as well as monitoring teaching and learning. Lastly, lecturers had a direct influence on the teaching and learning of students because they were always in contact with them in the classrooms.

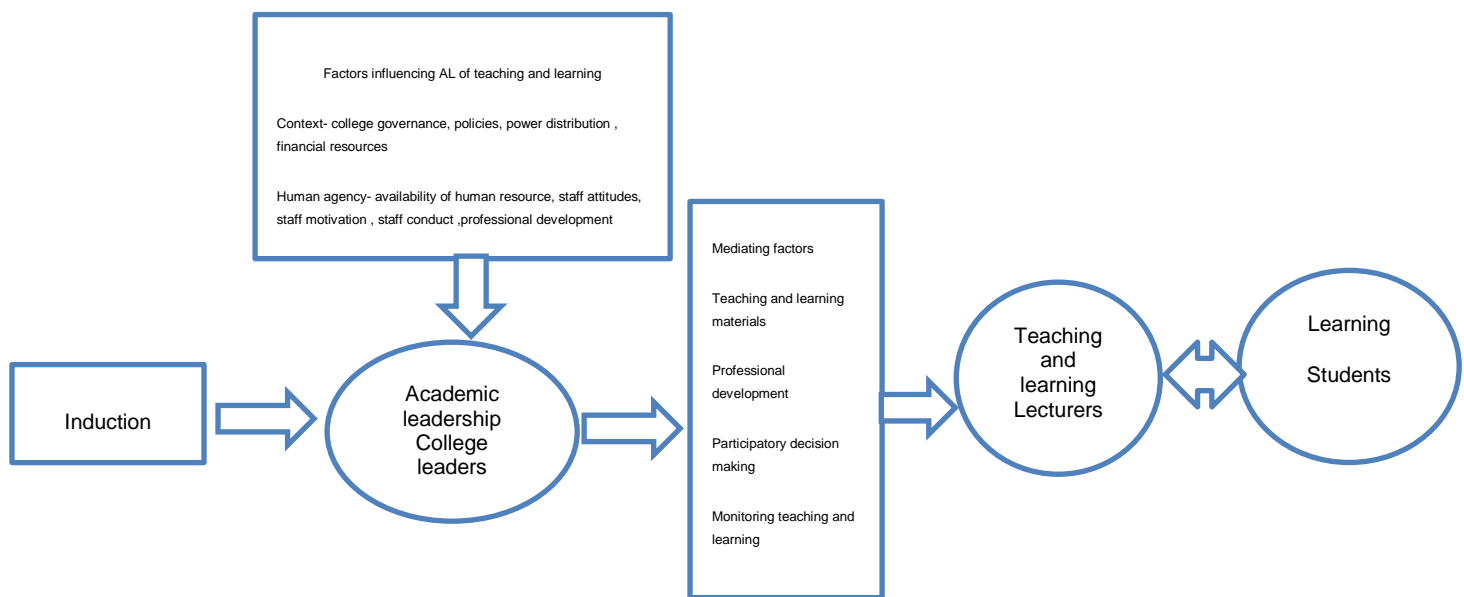


Figure 6.2: Conceptual framework of academic leadership of teaching and learning

6.4 What the study has achieved

The study explored academic leadership of teaching and learning in two TTCs. The underlying purpose of the study was to explore the academic leadership roles of college leaders and analyse their implications towards influencing teaching and learning. The insights gained from these implications would provide a guide on leadership practice and provide policy direction to enhance teaching and learning in the TTCs.

The perspectives of students allowed the communication of their needs and expectations and their voice on leadership matters to be listened to. These insights would serve as feedback to the college leaders and would subsequently influence their leadership practice. This study's findings revealed a limited interaction between the students and leaders and an absence of a student feedback mechanism. Consequently, the engagement of students allowed students to share their views too. The researcher observed that generally, students were hardly given the chance to

share their views regarding leadership in teaching and learning, yet they were the main targets for teaching and learning.

The study revealed that students had a similar understanding of the role of academic leadership in teaching and learning to those of teachers as well as those of leaders. Also, they felt left out of the decisions that directly affected their learning. For this study, the students were direct beneficiaries of teaching and learning so if their voices were not listened to, their teaching and learning needs would not be addressed. However, if they were engaged, they could contribute towards the enhancement of leadership of teaching and learning.

The perspectives from lecturers provided feedback and communication of expectations. Lecturers who partook in this study were directly involved in teaching and learning yet they felt less involved in decision-making that pertained to teaching and learning. So the study provided feedback to improve staff involvement since they were in direct contact with the students.

Identifying the challenges was intended to air the problems that hindered quality teaching and learning to guide policy on the needed support. Additionally, the proposed strategies were intended to gain insights into how required support and interventions to improve leadership practice for quality teaching and learning.

6.5 Suggestions for future research

The thrust of the study was to explore academic leadership in teaching and learning. The researcher had hoped that the data would enable leaders of the colleges to gain in-depth insights and draw their attention to focus their leadership on roles and activities that directly influenced and positively impacted teaching and learning. However, the study indicated an understanding of leadership roles. It also communicated expectations by lecturers and students and further revealed the challenges encountered in the leadership of teaching and learning and how to address them.

The study did not examine the interactions and daily experiences of the leaders, students and lecturers to augment the perceptions of the roles of academic leadership in teaching and learning. Also, the study utilized qualitative methods and few

participants. This researcher, therefore, recommends that there ought to be other researchers who conduct similar research but utilize quantitative methodologies, employing questionnaires and using observations as such would enrich their studies on this matter.

The study yielded diverse views and opinions regarding the research area. While this study provided an understanding of academic leadership of teaching and learning of a small group of participants with diverse characteristics and the colleges were positioned far apart, using a more diverse and larger sample size in future is recommended.

The absence of staff incentives or rewards for teaching and learning implies a need to strengthen research on effective teaching and learning in the TTCs. This would provide a guide on how to incentivise teaching and learning and thus promote teaching and learning excellence in the TTCs.

Lastly, sharing of leadership among those who are not in leadership positions is encouraged. Other researchers can explore academic leadership by leaders who are not in formal leadership positions and examine how they influence teaching and learning and further develop a model on how to share the leadership.

6.6 Limitations of the study

This study was conducted in two government teacher training colleges in Eswatini with a sample of 34 participants. The focus was to explore and gain insights into the understanding of academic leadership roles of principals, vice principals and HODs in teaching and learning. The sample did not represent all colleges in the country. Hence the views were limited to the views of the participants concerning the data analysis at a specified time.

Considering the small sample size, the findings cannot be generalized beyond the two colleges. Hence the reader should use the findings with caution. While the findings may not be applicable in other contexts, the researcher did her best to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings.

On another note, the data were collected during the COVID-19 era when major changes in teaching and learning were taking place. Like there was a shift from face-to-face learning to online learning. And the study focused on the leadership of teaching and learning.

Also, there were COVID-19-related regulations and these limited data collection. This affected the time frame for collecting data because the country was under a complete lockdown when the researcher was supposed to collect data. Hence data collection was delayed.

Lastly, some of the respondents did not want to expand and clarify some of the points.

6.7 Implication for policy and practice

The study illuminated several policy and practice issues on academic leadership of teaching and learning.

The study revealed that four academic leadership roles were common among the participants. There were minor differences in opinions. The identified roles could be used as a stepping stone towards developing academic leadership guidelines.

Seemingly, these roles are shared or distributed among the principals, vice principals and HODs. While sharing leadership is welcomed as a solution to leadership challenges in HIM, the finding suggests a need for role clarity to possibly minimize conflicts associated with the roles. The study revealed an absence of guidelines on the academic leadership roles of the college leaders in the TTCs. This researcher, therefore, proposes the development of clear guidelines on who does what in each cadre. These guidelines could be used as a tool for the professional development of leaders.

Students aired that they were not involved in decision-making regarding teaching and learning yet decision made directly affect them. Also, the study revealed that lecturers were inadequately involved in leadership decisions related to teaching and learning, yet they implement those decisions. It is suggested that more activities that would encourage interactions of leaders with students and staff for leaders understand their

needs to be undertaken. Also, leaders ought to be more visible and this implies that they need to balance between their administrative roles and their leadership role of teaching and learning.

Additionally, the study indicates mostly contextual issues like funds and resources as major barriers. Giving the TTCs some form of autonomy to financial, material and human resources would enable leaders to have control over these necessary resources that support quality teaching and learning. Also, the timely disbursement of funds would enhance would enable the timely procurement of teaching and learning resources. These are policy issues. It is recommended that the government of Eswatini should consider these structural changes to enhance quality teaching and learning in the TTCs.

From the findings, the majority of the participants suggested professional development of the leaders in their roles. While the job description and adverts would remain an important guide for the development of the academic leadership guidelines, this researcher proposes that college leaders should be oriented on leadership positions so that they would establish a solid ground and have a clear understanding of their roles. Considering the dynamic nature of HE, continuous professional learning of these leaders is imperative.

6.8 Recommendations

The study revealed a common understanding of the academic leadership role in teaching and learning by the participants. While the identified roles could be used as a stepping stone towards developing an academic leadership programme. Most of the identified roles lean towards administrative leadership than academic leadership. These administrative roles could be carried at the expense of focus on leadership of teaching and learning. It is therefore recommended that leaders should be subjected to professional preparation on academic leadership before they assume their leadership position.

Secondly, it transpired from the study that there was no formal induction on academic leadership for these leaders. Therefore, this researcher's recommendation is the introduction of an orientation programme intended for leaders when they assume leadership positions so that they would be effective in their leadership role for improved quality teaching and learning. Since the HE context is dynamic, the researcher further recommends continuous professional development of college leaders.

Seemingly, these roles were shared or distributed among the principals, vice principals and HODs. While sharing of leadership is encouraged, this researcher recommends the development of academic leadership guidelines to enhance role clarity to reduce and avoid role conflicts.

Students aired not being listened to and not involved in decision-making regarding teaching and learning, yet decisions made directly affect them. With this consideration, it is recommended that colleges ought to establish a clear student feedback mechanism.

For the issues of limited funds, and delayed disbursement of funds, it is recommended that the government should consider some structural changes in the governance of the colleges like giving some degree of autonomy to the colleges to reduce hierarchy and bureaucracy. This is anticipated to allow independent decision-making and implementation of those decisions. Such decisions would include allowing procurement of teaching and learning resources at the college level, hiring personnel within the colleges, and mobilising and controlling funds within the TTCs.

Lastly, there was a lack of clear policy guiding the appointment of leaders. This suggests a need for a review of the recruitment policy that would guide appointment and promotion instead of promotion by seniority. Seniority only recognises experience and foregoes leadership expertise. If a clear recruitment policy is put into place, it would clarify the progression criteria and incentives instead of the seniority.

It could not be ascertained how teaching and learning were supervised and monitored in the TTCs. Subsequently, this indicated an absence of a clear teaching and learning

policy and absence of a feedback mechanism. It is therefore recommended that the colleges should have a clear policy of teaching and learning to guide supervision and monitoring of teaching and learning.

6.9 Conclusion

Generally, the literature suggests a lack of clarity on the academic leadership roles in teaching and learning. For the Eswatini TTCs, this problem is further aggravated by a lack of critical induction programmes to introduce newly appointed leaders into the leadership and management space. As a result, the leaders of these colleges assumed their leadership roles and responsibilities without a solid base. They were expected to find their way into leadership and subsequently spend their entire leadership practice without a clearly defined support system.

The absence of a clear support system in the form of academic leadership training, workshop and mentorship added another layer of difficulty. On the other hand, these leaders were expected to produce quality teachers. Unless a clear support system was put into place, the expectation to understand and execute the leadership and subsequently provide quality teaching and learning might remain a mirage in these TTCs.

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Abukabar, A. & Ahmed, S. (2017). The effect of transformational leadership style on the performance of universities in Nigeria. *PJERE*, 2(1), 59-76. Access date January 6, 2020, SAGE Publications, Inc., Thousand Oaks
- Adams, D., & Yusoff, N.N.M. (2019). The rise of leadership for learning: Conceptualization and practices. *International Online Journal of Educational Leadership*, 3(1), 1-3.
- Adhabi, E., & Anozie, C.B. (2017). Literature review for the type of interview in qualitative research. *International Journal of Education*, 9(3), 86-97. <http://doi.org/10.5296/ije.v9i3.11483>
- Akuengwi, B.A. & Nwi-ue, F.D. (2017). Providing academic leadership in Universities in Cross River state, Nigeria: Assessment of Departmental Heads' effectiveness. *Asian Journal of Education and Training*, 3(1),18-24.
- Alharahsheh, H.H. & Pius , A. (2020). A review of key paradigms: positivism VS interpretivism. *Global Academic Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(3),39-43. DOI:10.36348/gajhss2020.v02i03.001
- Andoh-Arthur, J. (2019). Gatekeepers in Qualitative Research.In book:SAGE Research Methods foundation Publisher: SAGE Publications Ltd, London UK
- Alvesson, M. & Ashcraft, K.L. (2012). Interviews. In: Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges Access Date: January 6, 2020 SAGE Publications, Inc. City: 55 City Road DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526435620.n14>
- Andy-Wali, H.A. & Wali, A.F. (2018). Lecturer's leadership practices and their impact on students experiences of participation with implication for marketing higher education services. *Higher education for the future*,5(1),40-60. Sage publications. DOI:10.1177/2347631117738640
- Anfara, V.A., & Mertz, N.T. (2015). Theoretical frameworks in qualitative research (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Anney, V.N. (2014). Ensuring the Quality of the findings of Qualitative Research: Looking at Trustworthiness Criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 5(2), 272-281.
- Anthony, S.G. & Antony, J. (2017). Academic leadership-special or simple. *International Journal of productivity and performance management*, 66(5), 630-637
- Arntzen, E. (2016). The changing role of deans in higher education- from leader to manager. *Universal journal of educational research*, 4(9), 2068-2075
- Arvindekar, U.V. & Mackasare, S. (2012). A study of academic leadership styles at private management institutions: A transformational leadership perspective. *The federation of Universities Journal of higher education*, VII (1),42-52
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C., & Sorensen, C. (2010). Introduction to research in education 8th edition Wadsworth Cengage learning: Canada.
- Nguyen, L. & Barry, R.J. (2015). Academic Leadership: A Critical Literature Review and Implications for Human Resource Development. Retrieved from <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3396545> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3396545>
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L.C., Sorensen, C. (2010). Introduction to research in education 8th edition Wadsworth Cengage learning: Canada
- Aslam, H.D., Suleman, Q., Zulfiqar, Z., Shafaat, M. & Sadiq, R. (2014). Analysing the perceived effectiveness of academic leadership in schools of Bahawalpur, Pakistan. *International Journal of leadership and development*, 4(1),146-168.
- Australian Institute for Teaching and school leadership (AITSL) (2020). Leadership for learning: A review of school leadership literature. Melbourne.
- Avalos, B. (2011). Teacher professional development in teaching and teacher education over 10 year. *Teaching and teacher education*, 27(1),10-20. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.08.007>

- Ayee, J.R.A. (2014). *Academic Leadership in Africa*. Palgrave Macmillan. USA. Pp 237-267.
- Babbie, E. (2011). *The Basics of social research* (5th ed). Wadsworth Cengage Learning: USA.
- Bana, Z. & Khaki, J. (2015). Exploring leadership practices of principals of government elementary education in Pakistan. *International Journal of leadership in Education*. 18(4), 464-486. DOI:10.1080/13603124.2014.948073
- Bashir, I., & Khalil, U. (2017). Instructional Leadership at University Level in Pakistan: A Multi Variable Based Comparative Study of Leadership Styles of Heads of Academic Departments. *Bulletin of Education and Research*, 39(1), 175-186.
- Bashman, L.M. (2012). Transformational leadership characteristics necessary for todays leaders in higher education. *Journal of international education research*, 8(4), 343-348.
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press Inc.
- Behari-Leek, K., & S. McKenna. (2017). "Generic Gold-standard or Contextualized Public Good? Teaching Excellence Awards in Postcolonial South Africa." *Teaching in Higher Education*. doi:10.1080/13562517.2017.1301910.
- Belias, D. & Koustelious, A. (2014). Transformational leadership and job satisfaction in the banking sector: *A review*. *International Review of Management and Marketing*, 4(3), 187-200.
- Bellibas, M., Ozaslan, G., Gumus, E., & Gumus S, (2016). Examining department chairs needs in performing academic leadership in Turkish universities. *Education and science*, 16(184), 91-103.
- Bengry, A. (2018). Accessing the research field. In Flick, U. *The sage handbook of qualitative data collection* (pp. 99-117). London: SAGE Publications Ltd doi: 10.4135/9781526416070

- Bengtsson, M. (2016). How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *Nursing plus open* 2, 8-14
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.npls.2016.01.001>
- Berg, C. H. & Jarbur, C. (2014). Leadership and leadership development in academia. Conference of European schools for advanced engineering education and research (CESAER).
- Berndtson, O. (2013). 21st century academic leadership: from the lecture hall or the boardroom. *A paper based on Virginia Bottomleys address to the world academic summit 2013 in Singapore*. Retrieved from
<http://www.ordgersbernston.com>
- Bess, J.L. (1988). Collegiality and bureaucracy in the modern university: the influence of information and power on decision making structures. Teachers college press, New York. ERIC publications.
- Bhore, S.J. (2013). A summary report of the workshop on the academic leadership training in the AIMSR University, Malaysia. *Journal of young pharmacists*, 5:67-69
- Billot, J., West, D., Khong, L., Skorobohacz, C., Roxa, T., Murray, S. & Gayle, B. (2013). Followership in Higher education: Academic teachers and their formal leaders teaching and learning enquiry. *The ISSOTL journal*, 11(2). Accessed 22 October 2019 from
http://www.jstor.org/stable/10.2979/teacherlearningu.1.2.91?seq=1&cds=pdf-references#reference_tab_contents
- Black, S.A. (2015). Qualities of effective leadership inn higher education. *Open journal of leadership*, 4, 54-66. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ojl.2015.42006>
- Block, B.A. (2014). Leadership: A supercomplex phenomenon. *Quest*, 66(2), 233-246.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00336297.2013.879535>

- Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S.K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods* (5th ed) Boston: Pearson.
- Bolden, R., Gosling, J., O'Brien, A., Peters, K., Ryan, M. & Haslam, A. (2012). *Academic leadership changing conceptions identities an experiences in UK higher education. Research and development series.* Leadership foundation for Higher education: London
- Bolman, L. G. & Gallos, J.V. (2012). *Reframing academic leadership.* San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bowen, G.A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative research journal*, 9(2), 27-40. DOI:10.3316/QRJ0902027
- Bradley, A.P., Grice, T. & Paulsen, N. (2017). Promoting leadership in Australian Universities. *Australian university review*, 59 (1) 97-105.
- Branson, C.M., Franken, M., & Penney, D. (2016). Middle leadership in higher education: A relational analysis. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 44(1), 128–145. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143214558575>
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2013). Teaching thematic analysis: Overcoming challenges and developing strategies for effective learning. *The Psychologist*, 26(2), 120-123
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Brinkmann, S. & Kvale, S. (2017). Ethics in qualitative psychological research. In: *The sage handbook of qualitative research in psychology.* Sage publications Ltd; London. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526405555>
- Brooks, R., Reiele, K. & Maguiere, M. (2015). Theory and practice. In: *Introduction to educational research: a critical thinking approach.* Access Date: January 6, 2020 Publishing Company: SAGE Publications Ltd: London DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781473909762>

- Bryman, A. (2007). Effective leadership in Higher education; a literature review. *Studies in Higher education*, 32(6), 693-710.
- Burton, D. & Barlett, S. (2009). "Research Paradigms and Social Perspectives" in Key Issues for Education Researchers. Access Date: January 6, 2020 SAGE Publications Ltd City: London DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446269480.n2>
- Bush, T. (2014) Instructional leadership in centralised contexts: rhetoric or reality? *Education management administration and leadership*, 42(1), 3-5
- Bush, T. (2015). Organisational Theory in education: how does it inform school leadership? *Journal of Organisational theory in Education*, 1(1), 35-47.
- Carl, N.M. & Ravitch, S.M. (2018). Interviews in The sage encyclopaedia of educational research, measurement and evaluation, Frey, B.B. (ed).
- Casares, J.D., Hannigan, T.D.A., Hinton, J. Phelps, A. (2012). The future of teaching and learning in higher education. In: The sage handbook of social research methods, Alasuutari P., Bickman, L. & Brannen, J. (eds). Sage publication Ltd: London. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446212165>
- Case, J.M. (2015). Emergent interactions: thinking the relationship between teaching and learning. *Teaching in higher education*, 20(6),625-625. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2015.1052787>
- Castillo-Montoya, M. (2016). Preparing for interview research: the interview protocol refinement framework. *The qualitative report*, 21(5), 811-831. Retrieved from <http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol21/iss5/2>
- Cendon, E. (2018). Lifelong Learning at Universities: Future Perspectives for Teaching and Learning. *Journal of New Approaches in Educational Research*, 7(2), 81-87. <https://doi.org/10.7821/naer.2018.7.320>
- Cetin, M.O., & Kinik, F.S.F. (2015). An analysis of academic leadership behaviour from the perspective of transformational leadership. 11th International strategic

management conference. *Procedia social and behavioural sciences*, 207: 519-527

Chauhan, R.K. (2017). Perception and practices of academic leadership in technical schools. *Journal of training and development*, 3, 22-32, <http://dx.doi.org/10.3126/jtd.v3i0.18227>

Chilvers, L., Bortolotto, M.C. , Alfaio-Tugia, S., Cooper, A.L. & Ellison, S. (2018). The reality of middle management roles: a case study of the associate head of school experience in New Zealand University. *Journal of Higher education policy and management*, 40(5), 430-441. <http://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2018.1501636>

Cipriano, R.E. & Riccardo, R.L. (2014). What a chair wants, what a chair needs: ideal training approaches. *The department chair*. 3-4

Clavien, P.A. & Deiss, J. (March, 2015). Ten tips for choosing an academic chair. *Nature*, 519, 19. Macmillan publishers limited.

Coates, H., Dobson, I.R., Goedegebuure, L., & Meek, L. (2010). Across the great divide: What do Australian academics think of university leadership? Advice from the CAP survey. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 32(4), 379-387.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge: Tylor & Francis.

Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) (2014). *Benchmark Best Practices: Departmental leadership*. Harvard University. Graduate School of Education.

Cox, B., McIntosh, K., Rason, R. & Terenzini, P.T. (2011). *A culture of teaching: policy, perception and practice in higher education*. Florida state Universities libraries: Stone building.

Crano, W.D. & Brewer, M.B. (2002). *Principles and methods of social research*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates

- Creswell, J. (2014). *Research design*. (4th ed). Sage:London
- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications
- Crowe, S., Creswell, K., Robertson, A., Huby, G., Avery, A., Sheikh, A. (2011). The case study approach. *BMC Research methodology*, 11, 100
<http://www.biomedcentral.com/1471-2288/11/100>
- Davis, A., van Rensburg, M.J & Venter, P. (2016). The impact of managerialism on the strategy work of university middle managers. *Studies in higher education*, 41(8), 1480-1494 DOI:10.1080/03075079.2014.981518
- Day, C., & Gu, Q., & Sammons, P. (2016). The Impact of Leadership on Student Outcomes: How Successful School Leaders Use Transformational and Instructional Strategies to Make a Difference. *Educational Administration Quarterly*. 52. <http://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X15616863>.
- De Wit, H. (2011). Globalisation and internationalization of higher education: Introduction to online monograph. *Revista de Universidad Sociedad del Conocimiento (RUSC)*, 8(2):214-248. retrieved from <http://rusc/uoc.edu/ojs/index.php/rusc/article/view/v8n2-dewit/v8n2-dewit-eng>
- Debowski, S. & Darwin, A. (2009). Enhancing the student experience through improved higher education leadership and practice, in *The student experience, proceedings of the 32nd HERDSA annual conference, Darwin, 6-9 July 2009*: pp4-12.
- Detsky, A.S. (2011). A leader must be able to make a decision that often involves considering multiple conflicting points of view. *Journal of General Internal medicine*, 26(1),88-90.
- deVaus, D.A. (2001). *Research design in Social research*. London: Sage Publications
- Dima, A.M., & Ghinea, V. (2016, November). A model of academic leadership. In *European Conference on Management, Leadership & Governance* (p. 61).

- Dirkse van Schalkwyk, R., Davis, A. & Pellissier, R. (2013). The impact of leadership practices on service quality in private higher education in South Africa. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 10, 223-238.
<https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483384443>
- Doyran, F. (2012). *Research on Teacher Education and Training*. USA: Athens Institute for Education and Research.
- Drew, G. (2010). Issues and challenges in higher education leadership: engaging for change. *Australian Educational Researcher*, 37(3), 57-76. Retrieved from <http://link.springer.com.ezproxy.federation.edu.au/article/10.1007/BF03216930>.
- Drugus, D. & Landoy, A. (2014). Leadership in Higher Education. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Braşov, Series V: Economic Sciences*, 7(56:2), pp. 125-132. Retrieved from :
<http://webbut.unitbv.ro/Bulletin/Series%20V/Series%20V.html>
- Dube, P., Maradze, A., Ncube, C.M., Ndlovu, S. & Shava, G.N. (2022). Review of leadership styles in Higher Education: *A theoretical Approach*. *Indiana Journal of Arts and Literature*, 3(4), 30-35.
- Dunn, A.L., Moore L.L., Odom, S.F., Bailey, K.J. & Briers G.A. (2019). Leadership Education beyond the classroom: Characteristics of students affairs leadership educators. *Journal of leadership education*, 18(4), 94-109
DOI:10.12806/V18/14/R8
- Durie, A.D. & Beshir, E.S. (2016). Leadership Effectiveness in Higher education Institutions: The IPA Approach. *Arabian Journal of Business and management review*, 6(5) 1-4.
- Eales-Reynolds, L.J. & Rugg, E. (2009). *Engendering a culture of quality enhancement in teaching and learning- lessons learned*. University Westminster, London UK

- Elshafie, M. (2013). Research Paradigms: The Novice Researcher's Nightmare. *Arab world English journal*, 4(2), 4-13.
- Emmel, N. (2013), 'Purposeful sampling', in *Sampling and choosing cases in qualitative research: a realist approach*, SAGE Publications Ltd, London, pp. 33-44, [Accessed 27 January 2020] doi: 10.4135/9781473913882.
- Establishment Circular of 3 of 2018. Government of Eswatini: Eswatini.
- Estermann, T. & Kupriyanova, V. (2018). Efficiency, leadership and Governance: Closing the gap between strategy and execution. A USTREAM report. European University Association: Brussels.
- Evans, L. (2015). A changing role for university professors? Professional academic leadership as it is perceived by 'the led'. *British Educational research journal*, 41(4), 666-685. <http://doi.org/10.1002/berj.3163>
- Evans, L. (2017). University professors as academic leaders: professorial leadership development needs and provision. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 45 (1), 123-140. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143215578449>
- Fahimirad M., Idris, K. & Kotamjani, S.S. (2016). Effective Academic leadership of Learning and teaching in Malaysian Higher Education. *International Journal of Human Resource studies*, 6(4), 67-83. Retrieved from: <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijhrs.v6i4.10337>
- Faryadi, Q. (2018). PhD Thesis writing process: a systematic approach- How to write your literature review. Creative education. <http://09.2912-2919.10.4236/ce.2018.916219>
- Featherson, J. (2008). Qualitative research. In 21st Century Psychology: A Reference Handbook, Davis, S. F. & Buskist, W. (ed). SAGE Publications, Inc., Thousand Oaks DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781412956321.n11>
- Fitzgerald, M. (2015). EDIN: Leadership in Academic and Educational Development. *All Ireland Journal of Higher Education*, 7(1), 2181-2189

- Flick, U. (2013). Mapping the field. In: The sage handbook of qualitative data analysis. Sag publication: LA
- Flick, U. (2018). Doing qualitative data collection- charting the routes. In the sage handbook of qualitative data collection, Flick, U. (ed)
- Floyd, A. (2016). Supporting academic middle managers in higher education: do we care? *Higher Education Policy*, 29(2), 167-183.
- Frost, D. (2009) Researching the connections- developing a methodology. In: Macbeath and Neil Dempster (2009) editors. Connecting leadership and Learning: principles for practice. Routledge. NewYork Pp 64-73
- Fry, H., Ketteridge. S. & Marshall, S. (2009). Teaching, supervising and learning in HE. In A hand book for teaching and learning in HE: enhancing academic practice 3rd edition, Fry, H. Ketteridge, S.& Marshall, S. (eds). Routledge: Tylor and Francis group: New York.
- Gedminiene, M. & Kaminskiene, L. (2016). Educational Leadership in Higher education: A scientific literature review. *Journal of humanities and social sciences*, 21(3), 93-98.
- Gentles, S., Charles, C., Ploeg, J. & McKibbon, K.A. (2015). Sampling in qualitative research: insights from an overview of the methods literature. *The qualitative report*, 20(11),1172-1789. Retrieved from <http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol20/iss11/5>
- Geschwind, L, Aarrevaara, T., Berg, L. N. & Lind, J. K. (2019). The changing roles of academic leaders: decision making, power and performance. *In Reforms, organisational Change and performance in Higher education*. Pinheiro et al (eds) http://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-11738-2_6.
- Gigliotti, R.A. & Ruben, B.R. (2017). Preparing Higher Education Leaders: A conceptual, Strategic and operational approach. *Journal of leadership education*,16(1) 96-114.

- Ginns, P., Kitay, J., & Prosser, M. (2010). Transfer of academic staff learning in a research-intensive university. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 15(3), 235–246. [[Taylor & Francis Online](#)], [[Web of Science ®](#)], [[Google Scholar](#)]
- Goldstein, K.L., Miller, A. & Courson, J. (2014). Reinventing leadership in higher education a confidential survey of college presidents. Leaders connecting leaders. Witt Kieffer.
- Ministry of Education and Training (2020). Eswatini National Open and Distance Learning Policy. Governement of Eswatini.Eswatini.
- Grant, C. & Osanloo, A. (2015). Understanding, selecting and intergrating a theoretical framework in dissertation research: creating the blueprint for your “house”, volume 4(2) DOI:10.5929/2014.4.2.9
- Groccia, J.E. (2012). A model for understanding university teaching and learning. In Groccia, J. E., Alsudairi, M.A.T., Buskist .W, (eds), *Handbook of college teaching and university teaching: A global perspective* , pp2-15. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Gurung, R. A. (2014). Academic leadership properties for the 21st century: Irian case study. King Saud University: Global partnership
- Guruz, K. (2011). University autonomy and academic freedom: a historical perspective. *International Higher education*, 63(13-14).
- Hackmann, D.G. & Wanat, C.L. (2016). Doing the work or sharing the work? The educational leadership program coordinators role. *International journal of educational reform*, 25(2), 100-124.
- Hallinger, P. & Heck R.H. (2010). Leadership for learning: does Collaborateive leadership make a difference in school improvement. *Educational management administration & leadership*, 38(6) 654-678. sagepub.co.uk/journalspermissions.nav DOI:10.1177/1741143210379060

- Hallinger, P. & Heck, R.H. (2010). Collaborative leadership and school improvement: understanding the impact on school capacity and student learning. *School leadership and management*, 30(2), 95-110.
- Hallinger, P. & Heck, R. (2009). Distributed Leadership in Schools: Does System Policy Make a Difference? DOI: 10.1007/978-1-4020-9737-9_6
- Hallinger, P. (2010). Leadership for Learning: What We Have Learned from 30 Years of Empirical Research? Paper presented at the Hong Kong School Principals' Conference. The Hong Kong Institute of Education, Hong Kong.
- Hallinger, P. (2010). Developing instructional leadership. In *Developing successful leadership* (pp. 61-76). Springer, Dordrecht.
- Hallinger, P. (2011). "Leadership for learning: lessons from 40 years of empirical research", *Journal of Educational Administration*, 49(2), 125-142. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09578231111116699>
- Hallinger, P. (2007). Leadership for learning: reflections on the practice of instructional and transformational leadership. <http://www.researchgate.net/publication/228378280> Mahidol University, Thailand
- Hallinger, P., & Murphy, J. (1985). Assessing the instructional leadership behaviour of principals. *Elementary School Journal*, 86(2), 217–248.
- Hamidifar, F., & Ebrahimi, M. (2016). Academic Leadership in a Private University: An Iranian Case Study. *International Education Studies*, 9(5), 193-203.
- Hamilton, L. & Whittier, C. (2014). Ethics in Research. In: *Using case study in education research*. Sage publications Ltd: London. DOI:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781473913851>
- Haradhan, M. (2018). Qualitative research methodology in social sciences and related subjects. *Journal of economic development, environment and people*, 7(1),23-48 <http://mpira.ub.uni-muechen.de/85654/>
- Harling, K. (2002). An overview of case study. Winfred Laurier university: Canada

- Harper, D. & Thompson, A.R. (2012). *Qualitative research methods in mental health and psychotherapy: a guide for students and practitioners*. Hoboken: NJ : Wiley
- Healey, M., Jordan, F., Pell, B. & Short, C. (2010). The research-teaching nexus:A case of students' awareness, experiences and perceptions of research. *Innovtions in Education and Teaching international*,47(2),235-246. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14703291003718968>
- Hendrickson, R.M., Lane, J.E., Harris, J.E. & Dorman, R.D. (2013). *Academic leadership and governance of higher education: a guide for trustees, leaders, and aspiring leaders of two and four year institutions*. Stylus publishing: Sterling, Virginia.
- Herbert, R.D. & Higgs, J. (2004). Complementary research paradigms. *Australian journal of physiotheraphy*, 50,63-64.
- Herman, N., Bitzer, E., Leibowitz, B. (2018). Professional learning for teaching at research –intensive university: the need for a careful environment. *South African Journal of higher education*, 32(6), 99-116. <http://dx.doi.org/10.20853/32-6-2647>
- Hidayah, N., Sule, E.T., Wirasasmita, Y. & Padmasdisastar, S. (2015). How to develop strategic leadership in higher education institution? *International journal of economics, commerce and management*, II(5), 1164-1175. <http://ijecm.co.uk/>
- Hoekstra, A. & Newton, P. (2017). Departmental leadership for learning in vocational and professional education. *Empirical research vocational education and training*, 9:12 doi 10.1186/s40461-017-0057-0
- Hofmeyer, A., Sheingold, B.H., Klopper, H.C., Warland, J. (2015). Leadership in learning and teaching in Higher Education: Perspectives of Academics in non-formal -leadership roles. *Contemporary Issues in Education research*, 8 (3), 181-192. Retrieved from http://hsrc.himmelfarb.gwu.edu/son_nurs_facubs/175
- Hogan, A.M. (2018). Moving from administrativia overload to leadership competency development. *The journal of faculty development*, 32(1),25-30.

- Hoque, S.S. & Alam, S.M.S. (2010). The role of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in developing Higher education- a case of Bangladesh. *International education studies*, 3(2),97-106
- Hossain, M.Z., & Mozumder, M.A.K. (2019). Prospects of Principal Leadership in Schools and Colleges in Bangladesh. *Open Journal of Social Sciences*, 7(9), 44-50.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0013161X03253412>
- Hunter, M.G. (2011). *Creating interview protocols*. University of Lethbridge, Alberta: Canada.
- Ibrahim, S. (2017). The relationship between administrative academic staff's leadership styles and their level of emotional intelligence: a case study in UiTM Sarawak
- Illeris, K. (2007). *How we learn: Learning and non-learning in school and beyond*. Routledge.
- lordache-Platis, M. (2017). Strategies for academic leadership productivity in higher education institutions; business education case. Proceedings of the 11th international conference on business excellence. DOI:10.1515/picbe-2017-0027
- Ismail, N., Kinchin, G. & Edwards, J.A. 2018, 'Pilot Study, Does It Really Matter? Learning Lessons from Conducting a Pilot Study for a Qualitative PhD Thesis', *International Journal of Social Science Research*, 6(1), 1 - 17.
- Jacob, S.A. & Furgerson, S.P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *The qualitative report*, 17(6), 1-10. Retrieved from <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR17/jacob.pdf>
- Jones, A. (2014). *Leading University Teaching: Exploring the uses of higher education research*. SRHE research grant Final report. Glasgow Caledonian University.
- Jones, A. (2014). *Leading University Teaching: Exploring the uses of higher education research*. *SRHE Research Grant Final Report*.

- Jooster, K., Frantz, J. & Waggie, F. (2018). Challenges of academic healthcare leaders in higher education context in South Africa. *Educational management administration and leadership*, 46(4), 692-708. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1741143216688465>
- Jovanovic, D. & Ciric, M. (2016). Benefits of transformational leadership in the context of education. *The European proceedings of social and behavioural sciences*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2016.09.64>
- Joyce, P., & O'Boyle, C. (2013). Sustaining academic leadership in higher education. *Emerging issues in higher education*, 111, 69-81.
- Kandiko, C.B. & Mawer, M. (2013). Students expectations and perceptions of higher education. A project report on a study of UK higher education commissioned by the quality assurance agency.
- Kandola, B. (2012). Focus groups. In: *Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges*. Access Date: January 6, 2020. SAGE Publications, Inc. 55 City Road <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526435620.n15>
- Karadag, N. (2017). The senior managers opinions on the academic leadership process. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, 10(4), 79-92.
- Karadag, N. (2017). The Senior Managers' Opinions on the Academic Leadership Process. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, 10(4), 79-92.
- Katitia, D.M.O. (2015). Teacher education preparation program for the 21st century: Which way forward for Kenya. *Journal of education and practice*, 6(24), 57-63.
- Kawar, T. I. (2012). The impact of leadership on student learning. *International journal of business and social science*, 3(8), 319-322.
- Keczer, G. (2014). Management and organisational characteristics of educational institutions. *Education practice and innovation*, 1 (2), 106-111.
- Kedraka, K. & Rotidi, G. (2017). University pedagogy: A new culture in emerging Greek higher education. *International journal of higher education*, 6(3).

- Kelly, R. (2010a). Changing roles for Chairs. Academic leadership qualities for meeting today's higher education challenges. A magna publication. Faculty focus special report: pp 9.
- Kelly, R. (2010b). Creating a culture of leadership. Academic leadership qualities for meeting today's higher education challenges. A magna publication. Faculty focus special report. pp13-14.
- Kezar, A.J.M. & Holcombe, E.M. (2017). Shared Leadership in Hogher Education : Important Lessons from Research and Practice. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Kim, Y. (2010). The pilot study in qualitative inquiry. Identifying issues and learning lessons for culturally competent research. *Qualitative social work*, 10(2), 190-206. www.sagepubications.com DOI:10.11771473325010362001
- Kivunja, P.C. & Kuyini, A.B. (2017). Understanding and applying research paradigms in educational context. *International journal of Higher education*, 16(5), 26-41.
- Kligyte, G. & Barrie, S. (2014). Collegiality: leading us into fantasy – the paradoxical resilience of collegiality in academic leadership. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 33:1, 157-169, accessed 3.08.2019 from <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2013.864613>
- Koen, M.P. & Bitzer, E.M. (2010). Academic leadership in Higher education: a participative perspective from one institution. *Academic leadership: the online journal*, 8(1). <http://scholars.fhsu.edu/alj/vol8/iss1/8>
- Kori, E. (2016). Challenges to academic freedom and institutional autonomy in South African universities. *International journal of teaching and education*, IV(1), 45-53. DOI:10.20472?TE.2016.4.1.004
- Kovats, G. (2018). The change of organisational structure in higher education institutions in Hungary: a contingency theory analysis. *International review of Social research*, 8(1), 74-86. Retrieved from: <http://doi.org/10.2478/irsr-2018-0009>

- Krueger, R.A. & Casey, M.A. (2000). Focus groups. A practical guide for applied research(3rd edition). Thousand Oaks,CA: Sage publications.
- Lai, K. (2011). Digital technology and the culture of teaching and learning in higher education. *Australian Journal of educational Technology*, 27(8), 1263-1275.
- Laksov, K.B. & Tomson, T. (2016). Becoming an educational leader- exploring leadership in medical education. *International Journal of leadership in education: theory and practice*. DOI:10.1080/1360312432015.1114152
- Lee, B. (2012). Using Documents in Organizational Research in Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges. SAGE Publications, Inc., 55 City Road. DOI <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526435620.n22>
- Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. (2015). Practical Research planning and design. (11th ed). Pearson education: Edinburgh gate, England.
- Lees, N.D. (2013). Creating a culture of continuous improvement through departmental leadership. *The departmental chair*. pp 3-6. DOI:10.1002/dch
- Leithwood, K. & Levin, B. (2010). Understanding how leadership influences student learning. In International encyclopaedia of education 3rd ed. Peterson, P., Baker, E. & McGaw, B. (eds). Elsevier Ltd: Oxford. DOI:10.1016/B978-0-08-044894-7.00439-5
- Leithwood, K. (1994). The move towards transformational leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 49(5), 8–12
- Leithwood, K., Day, C., Sammons, P. & Harris, A. & Hopkins, D. (2006). Successful School Leadership What It Is and How It Influences Pupil Learning.
- Leithwood, K., Louis, K. S., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). Review of research: How leadership influences student learning. Wallace Foundation. Retrieved December 19, 2017, from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/NR/rdonlyres/E3BCCFA5-A88B-45D3-8E27-B973732283C9/0/ReviewofResearchLearningFromLeadership.pdf>

- Lincon, Y.S. & Guba, E.G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury park, CA: Sage
- Linton, M., Coast, J., Williams, I., Copping, J. & Owne-Smith, A. (2019). Developing a framework of quality indicators for healthcare business cases: a qualitative document analysis consolidating insight from expert guidance and current practice. *BMC Health Services Res* 19, 433. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-019-4269-9>
- Lopez, V. & Whitehead, D. (2013). Sampling data and data collection in qualitative research. Chapter 7. <http://www.researchgate.net/puplication/255950308>
- Lune, H. & Berg, B.L. (2017). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences* (9th edition). Pearson.
- Mabry, L. (2012). Case study in social research. In: *The sage handbook of social research methods*. Alasuutari P , Bickman, L and Brannen J (eds). Sage publication ltd: London. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446212165>
- [Macbeath , J. \(2006\). A focus on learning \(principle 1\). In Macbeath J. & Dempster N.\(ed\) \(2006\). Connecting leadership and learning: principle for practice.](#)
- [Macbeath, J. \(2012\). Leadership for learning Concepts, principles and practice. The Cambridge network](#)
- Macbeath, J. & Townsend, T. (2011). Leadership for learning: paradox, paradigms and principles. In: Townsend, T. & MacBeath, J. (ed). *International handbook of leadership for learning part 1*. pp 1-25.
- Macfarlane, B. (2016). Collegiality and performativity in a competitive academic culture. *Higher education review*, 48(2), 31-50.
- Mack, L. (2010). The philosophical underpinnings of educational research. *Polyglossia*,19(1) 5-11.
- Mack, N., Woodsong, C., Macqueen, G.C. & Namley, C. (2005). Qualitative research methods overview. Module 1 qualitative research methods: a data collector's field guide. *Family health international*.

- Mahlalela, M.A. (2017). A strategic management model for transforming selected Swaziland's teacher training colleges into learning organisations. *University of South Africa, Pretoria*.
- Mainardes, E.W, Alves. H. & Raposo, M. (2011). The process of change in university management from the ivory tower to entrepreneurialism. *Transylvanian review of administrative sciences*, 3(3), 124-149.
- Majid, M.A., Othman, M. Mohamad, S.F., Lim, S.A.H. & Yusof, A. (2017). Piloting for interviews in qualitative research: operationalization and lessons learnt. *International journal of academic research in business and social studies*, 7(4) DOI:10.6007/IJARBSS/v7-i4/2916 [URL:http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v7-i4/2916](http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v7-i4/2916)
- Marks, M. & Printy, M. (2003). Principal Leadership and School Performance: An Integration of Transformational and Instructional Leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 39, 370-397.
- Marshall, S.J., Orrell, J., Cameron, A., Bosanquet, A. & Thomas, S. (2011). Leading and managing learning and teaching in higher education. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 30(2), 87-103, DOI: 10.1080/07294360.2010.512631. Accessed on 03.08.19 from <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2010.512631>
- Marvasti, A.B. (2004). Qualitative research in sociology. Introducing qualitative methods, SAGE Publications, Ltd, London, [Accessed 27 January 2020], [doi: 10.4135/9781849209700](https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849209700).
- McGinn, M.K. (2015). Considering ethics for social science research. In: *The sage handbook of research management*. Sage publications ltd, London. Accessed 6 January 2020. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781473914933>
- McInnis, C., Ramsden, P., & Maconachie, D. (2012). *A handbook for executive leadership of learning and teaching in higher education*. Office for Learning and Teaching, Department of Industry, Innovation, Science, Research and Tertiary Education.

- Mertens, D.M. (2018). Ethics of qualitative data collection. In : the sage handbook of qualitative data collection, Flick,U (ed). Sage publications Ltd. 55 city road. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526416070>
- Middlehurst, R. (2012). Leadership and management in higher education: A research perspective. *Maastricht School of Management Working Papers*, (2012/47).
- Miller, M.T., Mamiseishvili, K. & Lee, D. (2016). Administrative hierarchy and faculty work: examining faculty satisfaction with academic leadership. *Journal of academic administration in higher education*, 12(1):1-7.
- Ministry of Education & Training (2014). *The National Education and Training improvement Plan (NETIP I)* Mbabane: Government of Swaziland.
- Ministry of Education and Training (2011). The Ministry of Education and Training sector policy. Government of Swaziland: Mbabane.
- Ministry of Education and Training (2018a). The Ministry of Education and Training sector policy. Government of Swaziland: Mbabane.
- Ministry of Education and Training (2018b). *The National Education and Training improvement Plan (NETIP II)* Mbabane: Government of Swaziland.
- Ministry of Education and Training (2019). *Ministry of Education and Training annual financial report of 2018/2019*. Mbabane: Government of Swaziland.
- Ministry of Education and Training (June, 2019). *Ministry of Education and Training first quarterly report of 2018/2019*. Mbabane: Government of Swaziland.
- Morgan, D. & Hoffman, K. (2018). 'Focus groups', In: *The sage handbook of qualitative data collection*, SAGE Publications Ltd, 55 City Road, London, pp. 250-263, viewed 27 January 2020, doi: 10.4135/9781526416070.n16
- Morris, L. V. (2015). Management and leadership in colleges and Universities. *Innovation higher education*, 42:1-3. [http://dx. doi10.1007/s10755-015-9352-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10755-015-9352-5)

- Moser, A. & Korstjens, I. (2018). Series: Practical Guidance to qualitative research. Part 3: Sampling, Data collection and analysis. *European Journal of general practice*, 24, 9-18. <http://doi.org/10.1080/13814788.2017.1375091>
- Mukan, N, Havrylyuk, M. & Stolyarchuk, L. S. (2015). Theoretical framework of leadership in higher education of England and Wales. *Comparative professional pedagogy*, 5(1), 39-45.
- Munir, H. & Iqbal, M. Z. (2018). A study of relationship between leadership styles of principals and job satisfaction of teachers in colleges for women. *Bulletin of education and research*, 40(2), 65-78.
- Murphy, J., Elliott, S. N., Goldring, E., & Porter, A. C. (2007). Leadership for learning: A research-based model and taxonomy of behaviours. *School leadership and management*, 27(2), 179-201. DOI: 10.1080/13632430701237420
- Mushemeza, E. D. (2016). Opportunities and challenges of academic staff in higher education in Africa. *International journal of higher education*, 5(3), 236-246. DOI:10.5430/ijhe.v5n3p236
- Naheed, K. & Mohsin, M.N. (July- December, 2018). Role of Academic Leadership in Raising Quality of Education at Tertiary Level in Pakistan. *A Research Journal of South Asian Studies*, 33 (2), 555 – 568.
- Namamba, A. & Rao, C. (2017). Preparation and professional development of teacher educators in Tanzania: Current practices and prospects. *Journal of education and practice*, 8(8), 136-145.
- Ng Foo Soeng, D. (2019). Instructional leadership. In: *Instructional leadership and leadership for learning in schools*, Townsend, T. (ed). Palgrave studies on Leadership and Learning in teacher education http://doi.org.10.1007/978-3-030-23736-3_2
- Ngulube, P., Mathipa, E.R. & Gumbo, M.T. (2019). Theoretical and conceptual framework in the social sciences. In Mathipa, ER & Gumbo, MT. (eds). *Addressing research challenges: Making headway in developing researchers*. Mosala-MASEDI Publishers & Booksellers cc: Noordwyk, pp. 43-66.

- Nguyen, T.T. (2016). Variations in decision- making approach to tertiary teaching: A case study in Vietnam. *International journal of instruction*, 9(1):79-92
DOI:10.12973/iji.2016.917a
- Nguyen, L.A. (2015). Academic leadership: critical literature review and implications for HRD. University of Minnesota. Retrieved from <http://www.researchgate.net/publications/308904486>
- Nica, E. (2013). The importance of leadership development within higher education. *Contemporary readings in law and social justice*, 5(2), 189-194.
- Nieuwenhuis, J. (2016). Qualitative Research Designs and Data-Gathering Techniques. In: Maree, K. ed. *First Steps in Research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers. pp. 72-100
- Northouse, P.G. (2016). *Leadership theory and practice* (6th ed). Sage publishers: USA.
- O'Connor, P. (2010). Effective teaching and learning in higher education: a United Kingdom perspective. *The ITB journal*,11(1), DOI:10.2127/D7K15Q
<http://arrow.dit.ie/itbj/vol11/iss1/8>
- O'Leary, Z. (2014). *The essential guide to doing your research project* (2nd ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications, Inc.
- Okpe, A. A. & Onjewu, M. A. (2016). The abolishment of teacher training colleges and its implications on ELT in Nigeria. *Procedia-Social and behavioural science*, 323,307-310. International conference on teaching and learning English as an additional language, GlobELT 2016, 14-17 April, 2016, Antalya, Turkey.
- Otara, A. (2014). The challenges and future of public higher education leadership in Kenya. *Journal of higher education policy and management*, 36(2),183-134.
- Otara, A. (2015). The academic dean and the challenges of meeting changing expectations in competitive higher education environment in Africa. *Journal of Higher Education in Africa/Revue de l'enseignement supérieur en Afrique*, 12(1), 133-150.

- Palaniandy, S. (2017). Collegiality versus Instructional Support. *Journal of the international society for teacher education*, 21(2), 50-56.
- Pani, A. (2017). Academic leadership: concept, attributes and practices. *University news*,55(49) December 4-10, 17-25
- Pate, J.C. & Angell, L.R. (2013). Factors community colleges faculty consider important to academic leadership. *Kentucky Journal of Higher education policy and practice*, 2(1), 1-13.
- Pelonis, P., & Gialamas, S. (2010). An international perspective of academic leadership. *International Schools Journal*, 30(1), 72-85.
- Pepper, C. & Giles, W. (2015). Leading in middle management in Higher education. *Management in education. British Educational leadership, management & administration society (BELMAS)*. Sage publications Inc, DOI:10.1117/0892020614529987
- Peters, M.A. (2013). Managerialism and the neoliberal university: prospects for new reforms of open management in higher education. *Contemporary readings in law and social justice*, 5(1), 130-135.
- Pham, L. (2018). Qualitative approach to research. A review of advantages and disadvantages of three paradigms: positivism, interpretivism and critical inquiry. [http:// www.Researchgate.net/publication/324486854](http://www.Researchgate.net/publication/324486854)
- Pharm, D.K.M. & Brazeau, G.A. (2011). Lessons learned from experiences in academic leadership. *American journal of pharmaceutical education*,75(8), 148:1-2.
- Phillips, C., Bassell, K., Fillmore, L. & Stephenson, W. (2018). Transforming leaders into stewards of teaching excellence: building and sustaining an academic culture through leadership immersion. *Contemporary issues in education research*, 1(11), 1-10.

- Pienaar, J.W. & Cilliers, F. (2016). The janus effect: contradictory demands placed on the academic chairperson. *South African journal of higher education*, 30(2), 184-204 <http://dx.doi.org/10.20852/30-2-579>
- Pityana, N.B. (2010). The University Vice-Chancellor and Academic Freedom Roundtable on Academic Freedom held at Rhodes University from 17 – 19 February 2010.
- Price, L. & Kirkwood, A. (2013). Using Technology for Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: A Critical Review of the Role of Evidence in Informing Practice. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 33, 549-564. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2013.841643>
- Prilipko, E.V. (2019). Advancing leadership and followership education with a leader-follower unity model. *Journal of higher education theory and practice*, 19(3), 145-152
- Printy, S. (2010). Principals' influence on instructional quality: insights from US schools. *School Leadership & Management*, 30(2), 111-126, DOI: 10.1080/13632431003688005
- Quinlan, K.M. (2014). Leadership of teaching for student learning in higher education: What is needed? *Higher education Research and development*, 33(1), 32-45. <http://doi:10.1080/07294360.2013.864609>
- Radler, D. & Bocianu, I. (2017). Accelerated teaching and learning: roles and challenges for learners and tutors. *eLearning & Software for Education*, 2.
- Raja, R. & Nagasubramani, P.C. (2018). Impact of modern technology in education. *Journal of applied and advanced research*, 39(1), 33-35 <http://dx.doi.org/10.21839/jaar.2018.v3S1.165>
- Ramsden, P. (1998). Managing the Effective University. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 17(3), 347-370.
- Ramsden, P. (2007). Learning to teach in higher education. Cornwall: TJInternational Ltd.

- Reid, A., Brown, J., Smith, J., Cope, A., & Jameson, S. (2018). Ethical dilemmas and reflexivity in qualitative research. *Perspectives on medical education*, 7. 10.1007/s40037-018-0412-2
- Ren, K. & Li, J. (2013). Academic freedom and university autonomy: A higher education policy perspective. *Higher Education Policy*, 26(4), 507-522.
- Richards, D. (2012). Leadership for Learning in Higher Education: The Student Perspective. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 40(1), 84–108. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1741143211420617>
- Riffat, N. & Umaira, Y. (2016). Leadership Practices and Organizational Commitment of University Teachers and Head of Departments. *Journal of Educational Sciences & Research Spring*, 3 (1). Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/316878695_Leadership_Practices_and_Organizational_Commitment_of_University_Teachers_and_Head_of_Departments [accessed Feb 18 2020].
- Robinson, J. (2019). Focus Groups. In: Atkinson, P., Delamont, S., Cernat, A., Sakshaug, J.W. and Williams, R.A. (eds). *SAGE Research Methods :an Encyclopedia*. SAGE. Doi:[10.4135/9781526421036821959](https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526421036821959)
- Robinson, V., Lloyd, C., & Rowe, K. (2008). The Impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44(5), 564–588.
- Robinson, V.M.J. (2009). *Fit for purpose: An educationally relevant account of distributed leadership* (pp. 219-240). Springer Netherlands.
- Robinson, V. (2011). *Student-centered leadership*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Robison, O.C. (2013). Sampling in interview-based qualitative research: A theoretical and practical guide. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 11(1), 25-41 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2013.801543>

- Rosdal, T. (2015). Challenges of leadership in Higher education Institutions. Paper presented in track 1 to the EAIR 37th forum in Krems, Austria
- Ruben, B.D. & Gigliotti, R.A. (2017). Are Higher education institutions and their leadership needs unique? The vertical versus the horizontal perspective. *Higher education review*, 49(3), 27-52.
- Ruben, B.D. & Gigliotti, R.A. (2017). Preparing higher education leaders: a conceptual strategic and operational approach. *Journal of leadership education*, 16, 96-114, DOI>101206/V16/11/T1
- Ruben, B.D., De Lisi, R., & Gigliotti, R.A. (2018). Academic leadership development programs: Conceptual foundations, structural and pedagogical components, and operational considerations. *Journal of Leadership Education*, 17(3).
- Sagintayeva, A. (2014). Academic leadership: a missing link in Higher education governance in times of change. *Panel session 4: Faculty perspective on successful university*, pp 75-80. Retrieved from <https://nur.nu.edu.kz/bitstream/handle/123456789/270/ACADEMIC%20LEADERSHIP.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Salleh, I.S., Ali, N.S.M., Mohd-Yusof, K. & Jamaluddin, H. (2017). Analysing Qualitative Data Systematically using Thematic Analysis for Deodoriser Troubleshooting in Palm Oil Refining. *Chemical engineering transactions*, 56, 1315-1320. A publication of the Italian association of chemical engineering. www.aidic.it/cet DOI: 10.3303/CET1756220
- Sammut-Bonnici, T. & McGee, J. (2014). Case Study, volume 12. Strategic Management <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118785317.weom120012>
- Samsujjaman (2017). Principle and significance of teacher education. *International journal of engineering development and research*, 5(2), 1995-2000.
- Saroyan, A., Getahum, D. & Gebre, E. (2011). Understanding leadership: Perceptions of department chairs and faculty. Paper presented at the *Annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association*, New Orleans: Louisiana April 8 – 11, 2011.

- Saunders M.N.K. (2012). 'Choosing research participants' in Symon G and Cassell C (eds) *The Practice of Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges*. London: Sage (pp 37-55) Access Date: January 6, 2020. SAGE Publications, Inc. 55 City Road DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526435620.n3>
- Saunders, M.N.K. (2012). 'Choosing research participants' In Symon, G. & Cassell, C. (eds) *The Practice of Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges*. London: Sage 37-55.
- Savours, B. & Keohane, N. (2019). *Leading skills- exploring leadership in further education colleges- papers 1: Social market foundation: London*
- Scholars at risk, (2017). *Promoting Higher education values: a guide for discussions* Scholars at risk network.
- Schwinghammer, T. L., Rodriguez, T. E., Weinstein, G., Sorofman, B. A., Bosso, J. A., Kerr, R. A. & Haden, N. K. (2012). AACP Strategy for addressing the professional development needs of department chairs. *American journal of Pharmaceutical education*, 76(6): 1-8.
- Scotland, J. (2012). Exploring the philosophical underpinnings of research: Relating ontology and epistemology to the methodology and methods of scientific , interpretive, and and critical research paradigms. *English Language teaching*, 5(9), 9-16. <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt>
- Scott, D. E., & Scott, S. (2011). *Effective university teaching and learning. Online publication.* <https://www.ucalgary.ca>.
- Seale, C. (2011). Qualitative issues in qualitative enquiry. In: SAGE Qualitative research methods. Atkinson, P. & Delamont, S. (ed) Access Date: January 6, 2020. SAGE Publications, Inc. Thousand Oaks <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9780857028211>
- Seitz, V. & Nicole, M.N. (2014). *The role of academic values in Higher education convergence in Romania: A new approach.*

- Shah, M. (2012). The importance and benefits of teacher collegiality in schools- a literature review. *Procedia social and behavioural sciences*, 46, 1242-1246. Elsevier. Doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.282
- Shah, S. R. & Al- Bargi, A. (2013). Research paradigms: researchers' worldviews, theoretical frameworks and study designs. *Arab world English journal (AWEJ)*, 4(4), 252-264
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2004), 63-75
- Siddique, A., Aslam, H. D., Khan, M., & Fatima, U. (2011). Impact of academic leadership on faculty's motivation and organizational effectiveness in higher education system. *International journal of academic research*, 3(3).
- Simon, M.K. & Goes, J. (2013). *Dissertation and scholarly Research: Recipe for success*. Seattle, W.A: Dessertations Success LLC.
- Simons, H. (2012). Whoa are we? Studying ourself? In: *Case study research in practice*. Sage publications Ltd: London. Accessed 22 April 2019: DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/97814462683>
- Singh, A. & Purohit, B. (2011). Fracas over privatisation, quality assurance and corruption in Indian higher education. *Journal of Education and practice*, 2(11), 17-26
- Smithson, J. (2012). Focus groups. In: *The sage handbook of social research methods* Alasuutari, P., Bickman, L. & Brannen, J. (eds). Accessed 6 Jan 2020 Sage publications Ltd : London. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135978144621265>
- So, R. W. (2016). *Academic leadership in a dynamic environment*. Hange Seng Management College.
- Solis, C. (2015). Beliefs about teaching and learning n university teachers: revision of some studies. *Propositos representaciones*, 3(2):227-260. Retrieved from <http://dx.org/10.20511/pyr2015.v3n2.83>

- Stewart, D.W. (2014). Focus groups. In the sage encyclopaedia of educational research measurement and evaluation, Frey B (ed). Accessed 6 January 2020. Sage publications Ltd, Thousand oaks. DOI:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139>
- Stewart, D.W. (2018). Focus Groups. In: The SAGE Encyclopaedia of Educational Research, Measurement, and Evaluation, Frey, B.B. (Ed). Access Date: January 6, 2020, SAGE Publications, Inc. City: Thousand Oaks. <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781506326139>
- Supermane, S., Tahir, L.M. & Aris, M. (2018). Transformational leadership in teacher education. *International Journal of academic research in progressive education and development*, 7(1), 111-118. <http://dx.doi.org/10.6007/IJARBSS/v8-i3/3925>
- Suter, W.N. (2014). Qualitative data analysis and design. In: Introduction to educational research: a critical thinking approach. Thousand oaks: sage publications inc. DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483384443>
- Swaffield, S. & MacBeath, J. (2009). Researching Leadership for Learning across International and Methodological Boundaries. AERA Annual Meeting, San Diego, CA.
- Symon, G. & Cassel, C. (2012). Assessing Qualitative Research. In: Qualitative Organizational Research: Core Methods and Current Challenges Access Date: January 6, 2020 SAGE Publications, Inc. 55 City Road DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526435620.n12>
- Taherdoost, H. (2016). Sampling methods in research methodology: how to choose a sampling technique for research. *International journal of academic research in management (IJARM)*, 5(2):18-27 <http://www.researchgatenet/publication/319998246>
- Teacher Training Colleges regulations (2018). Board of Affiliated Institutions. University of Eswatini.

- Tessier, S (2012). From fieldnotes, to transcripts, to tape recordings: Evolution or combination. *The international journal of qualitative methods*, 11(4)446-460. DOI:10.1177/160940691201100410
- Thakur, G.R. (2014). Transformational and transactional leadership of principals in colleges' of education. *European academic research II* (3), 4428-4442. www.euacademic.org
- The University of Auckland, (2010). Teaching and learning in a research-led university. *Commentary on issues of higher education and research. Issue 5*. The University of Auckland, New Zealand
- Thomas, O.R. & Hodges, I.D. (2013). Research ethics and ethics review. In: *Designing and managing your research project: core skills for social and health research*: Sage publications; London pp:83-104. Accessed 22 April 2019. DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/978144628>
- Tierney, W. & Lanford, M. (2018). Institutional culture in higher education. In: *Encyclopaedia of international higher education systems and institutions*, Shin, J.C. & Tiexeira, P. (eds). Retrieved from http://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-9553-1_544-1
- Times of Swaziland, 13th May 2015. Ngwane Teachers' College Vice Principal Vacancy advertisement. Mbabane. Swaziland.
- Todorut, A.V. (2017). Approaches of leadership in Higher education. *Proceedings of the 11th international management conference*. The role of management in the economic paradigm of the XXIst century. November 2-4, 2017 Bucharest, Romania, pp823-828.
- Toepoel, V. (2017). Ethical considerations. In: *Doing surveys online*. Accessed 22 April 2019. Sage publications Ltd: 55 City road. Pp39-52. DOI:<http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781473967243>
- Tuli, F. (2010). The basis of distinction between qualitative and quantitative research in social science: Reflection on ontological, epistemological and methodological

- perspectuves. *Ethopian Journal of Education and Sciences*, 6, 1-12
<http://doi.org/10.4314/ejesc.v6i1.65384>
- Türkkahraman, M. (2012). The role of education in the societal development. *Journal of educational and instructional studies in the world*, 2(4), 38-41.
- UNESWA, (2019). University of Eswatini calendar 2019/2020.
- Vardi, I. & Quin, R. (2011). Promotion and scholarship of teaching and learning. *Scholarship of teaching and learning*, 30(1), 39-49
<http://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2011.536971>
- Wan, S.W.Y. (2014). Distribute leadership in higher education: Hong Kong academics perceptions and practices. In: Kwan, A., Wong, E., Kwing, T., Lau, P. & Goddy, A. (eds), *Research and Development in Higher education: Higher education in a globalised world*, 37, 323-341. Hong Kong, 7-10 July 2014 Higher education research and development society of Australasia Inc: Australia.
- Wang, J., Lin, E., Spalding, E., Odell, S.J. & Klecka, C.L. (2011). Understanding teacher education in the Era of globalisation. *Journal of teacher education*, 62(2), 115-120 DOI:10.1177/0022487110394334
- Wang, V.X. & Sedivy-Benton, A.L. (2017) Leadership misplacement: how can this affect institutions of higher learning? *New horizons in adult education and human resource development*, 28(3), 14-25.
- Wiley, C. (2014). Academic leadership in learning and teaching in higher education: a personal reflection on one programme director's professional development. *Learning at city journal*, 4(4), 39-49.
- Wood, L.M., Sebar, B. & Vecchio, N. (2020). Application of rigour and credibility in qualitative document analysis: lessons learnt from a case study. *The Qualitative report*, 25(2), 456-470. <http://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2020.4240>

- Woodard, H.C., Shepherd, S.S. & Crain-Dorough, M. & Richardson, M.D. (2011). The globalisation of higher education through the lens of technology and accountability. *Journal of educational technology*, 8(2), 16-24.
- Xu, Y. & Patmor, G. (2012). Fostering leadership skills in pre-service teachers. *International journal of teaching and learning in higher education*, 24(2), 252-256. Retrieved from <http://www.isetl.org/jitlhe/>
- Yeigh, T. & Lynch, D. (2017). Reforming initial teacher education: a call for innovation. *Australian journal of teacher education*, 42(12). Retrieved from <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol42/iss12/7>
- Yemini, M., Hermoni, J., Holzmann, V., Shokty, L., Jayusi, W. & Natur, N. (2017). The implementation of internationalisation in Israel teacher training colleges. *European Journal of education*, 52, 546-557. DOI:10.11111/ejed.12239
- Yin, R.K. (2009). Case study research design and methods (4th ed). New Delhi: Sage
- Zahran, R., Pettaway, L.D., Waller, L.R. & Waller, S. (2016). Educational leadership: challenges in United Arab Emirates. *The global e-learning journal*, 5(1),1-8
- Zgaga, P. (2013). Higher education research and higher education policy in south East Europe. *European Journal of Higher education*, 3(3) 280-294. DOI:10.1080/21568235.2013.819671
- Zepeda, S., Parylo, K. & Klar, H. (2017). Educational Leadership for learning. The Wiley International Handbook of educational leadership. pp 227-252 DOI:10.1002/9781118956717.ch13
- Zvavahera, P. (2013). The Effect of Leadership on Service Delivery in Universities. *Research in Higher Education Journal*, 21.
- Zziwa, G. (2014). Does the organisational culture affect the management of universities in Uganda? An empirical analysis. *International Journal of educational administration and policy studies*.159-169. Doi.10.589

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Ethical clearance letter

UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2020/07/08

Ref: **2020/07/08/53320301/14/AM**

Name: Ms NP Mhlongo

Student No.: 53320301

Dear Ms NP Mhlongo

Decision: Ethics Approval from
2020/07/08 to 2025/07/08

Researcher(s): Name: Ms NP Mhlongo
E-mail address: futhi78@yahoo.com
Telephone: +268 7802 0760

Supervisor(s): Name: Dr T.S. Mkhwanazi
E-mail address: mkhwats@unisa.ac.za
Telephone: 012 352 4166

Title of research:

**EXPLORING ACADEMIC LEADERSHIP OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN SELECTED
TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN ESWATINI**

Qualification: PhD 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 2020/07/08 to 2025/07/08.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2020/07/08 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:

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached.
2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.



3. 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.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
5. 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.
6. 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.
7. 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.
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2025/07/08**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2020/07/08/53320301/14/AM** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,



Prof AT Motlhabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
motlhat@unisa.ac.za

Prof PM Sebate
EXECUTIVE DEAN
Sebatpm@unisa.ac.za

Appendix B: Request Letter to Director of Education

P. O. Box 6400
Manzini

20th August 2020

The Director of Education
Dr N.Dlamini
Ministry of Education and Training
P.O.Box 39
Mbabane
Eswatini

Dear madam,

Re: Permission to conduct research

I am kindly requesting for permission to conduct research in government teacher training colleges. This is my Doctor of Philosophy in Education thesis, which I am pursuing with the University of South Africa (Unisa). The thesis is entitled: **Exploring academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges.**

The study seeks to explore and gain an in-depth understanding of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in selected Eswatini TTCs. The specific objectives are: The specific objectives of this inquiry are to:

1. Study the perspectives of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two teacher training colleges(TTCs) concerning their academic leadership role of college leaders in teaching and learning.
2. Solicit views of academic leaders of the two TTCs on how they create the culture of teaching and learning
3. Examine challenges facing these college leaders regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning
4. Find out necessary strategies to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning at two TTCs.

It is hoped that the study will hence better understanding of leadership for effective teaching and learning in the teacher colleges and perhaps improve professional practices of the senior management team and subsequently those of educators and students.

I intend to conduct individual face- to- face interviews with principals, vice principal, HODs, and focus group discussions with senior lecturers, lecturers and students of the respective colleges. I intend to audio record all the sessions upon getting individual informed consent from the participants. The interviews will be 45 minutes to 1 hour while the focus group will be 1 to 1.5hours session. Confidentiality of the interviews will be upheld and identities of the informants will not be revealed. The informants will be told before the interview that participation is voluntary.

I hope my request will meet your consideration. Thanking you advance for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,
Ntombifuthi P. Mhlongo

Appendix C: Letter of Permission to collect data from the Director of Education

The Government of the Kingdom of Eswatini



Ministry of Education & Training

Tel: (+268) 2 4042491/5
Fax: (+268) 2 404 3880

P. O. Box 39
Mbabane, ESWATINI

24th August, 2020

Attention:

Head Teacher:

William Pitcher College	Ngwane Teachers College
Eswatini College of Technology	

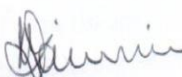
THROUGH

Hhohho, Manzini and Shiselweni Regional Education Officers

Dear Colleague,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA FOR UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA (UNISA) – MS. NTOMBIFUTHI P. MHLONGO

1. The Ministry of Education and Training has received a request from Ms. Ntombifuthi P. Mhlongo, a student at the University of South Africa (UNISA) that in order for her to fulfill her academic requirements at the University she has to collect data (conduct research) and her study or research topic is: "Exploring Academic Leadership of Teaching and Learning in Selected Teacher Training Colleges in Eswatini". The population for her study comprises of thirty four participants, senior lecturers, lecturers, SRC Executive Students, principals vice principals and HOD's from the colleges mentioned above. All details concerning the study are stated in the participants' consent form which will have to be signed by all participants before Ms. Mhlongo begins her data collection. Please note that parents will have to consent for all the participants below the age of 18 years participating in this study.
2. The Ministry of Education and Training requests your office to assist Ms. Mhlongo by allowing her to use above mentioned schools in the Hhohho, Manzini and Shiselweni regions as her research site as well as facilitate her by giving her all the support she needs in her data collection process. Data collection is one month.



DR. N.E. DLAMINI
DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING



cc: Regional Education Officer – Hhohho, Manzini and Shiselweni
Chief Inspector – Tertiary
Head Teacher of the above mentioned school
Dr. T.S. Mkhwanazi – Research Supervisors

Appendix D: Request letter to college principals

P. O. Box 6400

Manzini

19 November 2020

The Principal

Dear Sir,

Re: Permission to conduct research

I am kindly requesting for permission to conduct research at your college. This is my Doctor of Philosophy in Education thesis, which I am pursuing with the University of South Africa (Unisa). The thesis is entitled: **Exploring academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges.**

The study seeks to explore and gain an in-depth understanding of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in selected Eswatini TTCs. The specific objectives are: The specific objectives of this inquiry are to:

5. Study the perspectives of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two teacher training colleges (TTCs) concerning their academic leadership role of college leaders in teaching and learning.
6. Solicit views of academic leaders of the two TTCs on how they create the culture of teaching and learning
7. Examine challenges facing these college leaders regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning
8. Find out necessary strategies to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning at two TTCs.

It is hoped that the study will hence better understanding of academic leadership for effective teaching and learning in the teacher colleges and perhaps improve professional practices of the senior management team as well as lecturers and students.

I am requesting the participation and that of the vice principal; two HODs; two Senior lecturers, four lecturers, six students. For the HODs and senior lecturers, I request your assistance to include one with more than two years' experience in the position, as well as representation of different gender, age and work experience. For students, I prefer the SRC executive including the president and director for academics.

I intend to conduct individual face-to-face interviews, incumbent principals, vice principal, HODs and focus group discussions with the senior lecturers, lecturers and students of your college. I intend to audio record all the sessions upon getting individual informed consent from the participants. The interviews will be 45 minutes to 1 hour while the focus group will be 1 to 1.5 hours per session. Confidentiality of the interviews will be upheld and identities of the informants will not be revealed. The informants will be told before the interview that participation is voluntary.

I hope my request will meet your consideration. Thanking you advance for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully,

Ntombifuthi P.Mhlongo

78020760 (cell)

250504677 (work); Email:futhi78@yahoo.com

Appendix E: Informed Consent forms

CONSENT FORM FOR INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

I.....hereby give my consent to participate in the research study entitled: **Exploring academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges.**

I am aware that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw when I no longer feel comfortable to continue with the interview. I am aware that the information I give will be only used for the study. I understand that the information will be treated with privacy and kept confidential and my name will not be revealed. I also permit to be audio recorded and that I will be allowed to verify the information I would have given.

I append my signature as a sign of my consent to participate in the above-cited study.

Signature of participant..... Date.....

Researcher SignatureDate.....

CONSENT FORM FOR FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS

I.....hereby give my consent to participate in the research study entitled: **Exploring academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges.**

I am aware that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw as and when I no longer feel comfortable to continue with the interviews. I am aware that the information I give will be only used for the study. I understand that the information will be treated with privacy and kept confidential and my name will not be revealed. I also permit to be audio recorded. I fully understand that information discussed in the focus group meeting is confidential and private. So I will not share it with friends and colleagues.

I append my signature as a sign of my consent to participate and keep the information confidential in the above-cited study.

Signature of participant..... Date.....

Researcher signature.....Date.....

Appendix F: Invitation letter to participants for individual interviews

P. O. Box 6400

Manzini

30 November 2020

Dear participants

Re: Request for your participation in a Doctoral research interview

I am kindly requesting you to participate in a face-to-face interview for my Doctor of Philosophy in Education thesis, which I am pursuing with the University of South Africa (Unisa). The thesis is entitled: **Exploring academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges.**

The study seeks to explore and gain an in-depth understanding of academic leadership concerning teaching and learning in selected Eswatini TTCs. The specific objectives are: The specific objectives of this inquiry are to:

1. Study the perspectives of the principals, vice principals, HODs, lecturers and students of two teacher training colleges(TTCs) concerning their academic leadership role of college leaders in teaching and learning.
2. Solicit views of academic leaders of the two TTCs on how they create the culture of teaching and learning
3. Examine challenges facing these college leaders regarding their academic leadership role in teaching and learning
4. Find out necessary strategies to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning at two TTCs.

The interviews will gather information regarding your views and experiences regarding academic leadership in teaching and learning in your college. The data will only be utilised for the study. Participation in the study is voluntary. Confidentiality of the interviews will be upheld and your identity will not be revealed. I intend to audio record the sessions for purposed of data analysis.

I herewith attach a consent form which I am requesting you to fill should you decide to participate in the study.

Thanking you advance for your participation.

Yours faithfully,

Ntombifuthi P.Mhlongo

Appendix G: Interview schedule for college leaders

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR COLLEGE LEADERS (Principals, vice principals and Heads of Departments)

Academic leadership roles

1. Based on your experience, what is your academic leadership role in teaching and learning in the college?
2. What informs your leadership role in teaching and learning?
3. As a college leader, what policies or instruments guide you in your academic leadership role in teaching and learning?
4. How have you been professionally empowered or developed prepared for the leadership role?

Creating Culture of teaching and learning

5. In your opinion what is a healthy or good culture of teaching and learning in a college/department?
6. As a leader, what measures have you put in place to promote a culture of teaching and learning?
7. How do you support teaching and learning in your department/college?
8. What professional support do you offer teaching staff to develop as college teachers?
9. How do you promote excellence in teaching and learning in your college/department?
10. How do you orient new lecturers on teaching and learning?
11. How do you manage/ monitor teaching and learning in your college/ department?

Challenges facing academic leaders

12. Based on your experience, what are the challenges that constrain/hinder your leadership in teaching and learning?
13. What measures have you taken to address or overcome the challenges?

Enhancing academic leadership in teaching and learning

14. In your opinion, how can your college improve academic leadership in teaching and learning?
15. What kind of support is needed to improve academic leadership in teaching and learning in your department/college?

16. Is there anything that you consider important concerning academic leadership roles in teaching and learning in your college that you wish to share with me?

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

1. What is your gender.....
2. What is your level of education?.....
3. Position held.....
4. The number of years held in the current position?..... (years).
5. Teaching experience in the college (where applicable).....(
years)

Thank you for providing the information

Appendix H: Invitation letter to participants for focus group interviews

P. O. Box 6400

Manzini

30 November 2020

Dear Participant,

Re: Request for your participation in Doctoral research focus group discussion

You are kindly requested and invited to participate in a focus group discussion of the study entitled: **Exploring academic leadership in teaching and learning in selected Eswatini Teacher Training Colleges.**

The focus group discussion intends to gather your views and experiences regarding academic leadership in teaching and learning in your college. The data will only be utilised for the study. Participation in the study is voluntary. Please be assured that the confidentiality of the discussions will be upheld and your identity will not be revealed. I intend to audio record the sessions for purposes of data analysis. The meeting is intended to last for 1 to 1.5 hours.

The details regarding the Focus group meeting are as follows:

Date:

Venue:

Time:

I herewith attach a consent form which I am requesting you to fill should you decide to participate in the study.

Thanking you advance for your participation.

Yours faithfully,

Ntombifuthi P.Mhlongo

78020760 (cell)

Appendix I : Focus group interview schedule for lecturers

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR LECTURERS

1. As lecturers, what do you understand to be the leadership role or duties or responsibilities of HODs, vice principals and principals in teaching and learning at your department or college?

Possible follow-up questions

- In your observation, how do these college leaders (principal, vice principal and HODs) influence the teaching and learning?
 - What can you say about leadership by the college leaders at your college?
2. As lecturers how do these college leaders support you to realise effective teaching and learning?

Possible follow-up

What kind of support do you get from your principals, vice principals and HODs to enhance your learning experience in the college?

3. How do the principal, vice principal and HODs ensure that effective teaching and learning takes place in the college?

Possible follow-up

- How do college leaders monitor and assess teaching and learning?
 - How do college leaders get feedback on teaching and learning?
4. Based on your observations what hinders college leaders (HODs, vice principals and HODs) from promoting or influencing effective teaching and learning in the college?

5. In your opinion what do you think can be done to improve leadership that will enhance teaching and learning in the college?
6. Is there anything that you consider important concerning leadership in teaching and learning in your college that you wish to share with me?

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

6. What is your gender.....
7. What is your level of education?.....
8. Position held.....
9. The number of years held in the current position?..... (years).
10. Teaching experience in the college (where applicable).....(
years)

Thank you for providing the information

Appendix J: Focus group interview schedule for students

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR STUDENTS

1. As students, what do you understand to be the leadership role or duties or responsibilities of HODs, vice principals and principals in your learning at your department or college?

Possible follow-up questions

- How do you feel about leadership provided by principals, vice principals and HODs especially regarding your learning?
2. As students how do these college leaders support you to realise effective learning?

Possible follow-up

What kind of support do you get from your principals, vice principals and HODs to enhance your learning experience in the college?

3. How do the principal, vice principal and HODs ensure that effective learning takes place in the college?

Possible follow-up

- What activities do the leaders engage in that enhance your learning at the college?
 - How do you provide feedback to college leaders regarding your learning?
4. Based on your observations what do you think are the problems facing college leaders (HODs, vice principals and HODs) from promoting effective teaching and learning in the college?
 5. In your opinion what do you think can be done to improve leadership that will enhance your learning in the college?
 6. Is there anything that you consider important concerning leadership in teaching and learning in your college that you wish to share with me?

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

1. What is your gender.....
2. Year of study.....
3. Programme of study.....
4. Area of specialisation.....

Thank you for providing the information

Appendix K: Document analysis check list

DOCUMENT ANALYSIS CHECKLIST

Documents	Analysis to carried out	Comments
1. Almanac	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Evidence of activities/actions supporting teaching and learning• Routines related to teaching and learning	
2. Strategic plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Vision and mission regarding teaching and learning• Planned activities supporting teaching and learning• Identification of people responsible for those activities• Major issues/ challenges facing colleges that relate to leadership in teaching and learning• Proposed strategies to address the teaching and learning challenges	

Appendix L: Turnitin report

Turnitin Originality Report

Processed on: 21-Dec-2022 20:36 SAST
 ID: 1985595487
 Word Count: 65645
 Submitted: 1

all chapters By Prudence Ntombifuthi Mhlongo

Similarity Index	Similarity by Source
14%	Internet Sources: 11% Published Works: 5% Student Papers: 5%

< 1% match (Internet from 19-Oct-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27713/dissertation_vilakati_pp.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 30-Aug-2017) http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/23119/thesis_mahalela_am.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=3
< 1% match (Internet from 28-Dec-2018) http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/23241/thesis_uiseb_l.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27125/thesis_seherrie_ac.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 19-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/10066/dissertation_makhitha_ts.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 23-Sep-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27470/thesis_vuha_a.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 09-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/19835/dissertation_magagula_tn.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 19-Nov-2019) http://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/23792/thesis_maluleka_jr.pdf?sequence=
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26972/dissertation_kekana_km.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=3
< 1% match (Internet from 23-Sep-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27112/thesis_amadasun_deo.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 19-Oct-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27367/dissertation_mapdzamombe_n.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27451/dissertation_mathebula_e.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/25204/thesis_berhani_%20dendena%20sona.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 19-Oct-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/27361/dissertation_moloto_pm.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 22-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/26865/dissertation_mogale_kc.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1
< 1% match (Internet from 21-Nov-2022) https://uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/22071/thesis_ali_ac.pdf?isAllowed=y&sequence=1

Appendix M: Editing declaration



STMBondvo editing services.(Pty) Ltd

148 Aramburg (Mpumalanga) Cell: 060 346 7091 email:mhlekazist@gmail.com

Proof of editing

STMBondvo editing services
148 Aramburg
Mpumalanga
South Africa
Cell.: 0603467091

Date: 05 January 2023

This is to certify that I have edited the PhD thesis of the following candidate:

Names and Surname: Ntombifuthi Prudence Mhlongo

Student number: 53320301

Title: Exploring academic leadership of teaching and learning in selected teacher training colleges
in Eswatini.

Dr ST Maseko
Director
STMBondvo editing services

Confidentiality: In editing academic documents, I understand that I have access to confidential data, that information contained in documents is confidential and for that, I agree not to divulge, publish, make known to unauthorized persons or to the public the data in documents.

Appendix N: Sample of transcript used to illustrate data analysis

Researcher: err As a Vice principal, what are the challenges that constrain you in executing your academic leadership role in teaching and learning in your institution?

Participant: One challenges there, the challenge err revolves around **shortage of finances to purchase**. (there was a disturbance from someone coming in the office).

In my experience the challenges that we have always had err were **shortage of funds** at a later stage where as institution, **we could not buy sufficient teaching and learning materials to give to our lecturers**. As as a result erhh this process was affecting heavily practical subjects such as Consumer science and Agriculture leading to lack of practicals and you find that lecturers now and again would complain. At **times these inputs or learning materials would be delivered very late**, giving lecturers short time for conducting practicals and this normally has a bearing on the time. Some lecturers would ask for more time yet the time we have is fixed.

Now another another challenge that we experience of **late were shortage of lecturers**. You see, now there is a policy it is not very easy to replace a retired lecturer or retired teacher. For that reason it takes time to replace a lecturer. You will find that this **course has no lecturer**. As a result alternatives must be made now because courses are offered per semester. When you have to defer a course to the next semester due to the absence of a lecturer, it pauses as a very big challenge progress of the institution.

Shortage of teaching staff. Shortage of teaching staff has always been a big challenge in the operation of the office of the vice principal. Because while you are trying to ensure that everything is done on time, but such challenges keep on surfacing.