THE PERFORMANCE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL HEADS AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS: A CASE STUDY OF SIX SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ZIMBABWE.

By

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Promoter: Professor S. Rembe

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DECLARATION

I hereby solemnly declare that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis entitled “The Performance of Secondary School Heads As Instructional Leaders: A Case Study of Six Secondary Schools in Zimbabwe” is my original work. It has not been submitted to any other institution of higher learning for the award of any other degree or qualification. Where I have used information from the published or unpublished work of other scholars, I have acknowledged such sources both in the text and in the list of references.

_________________________________________  ________________________________
Signature                                      Date
ABSTRACT

The main objective of the study was to establish the extent to which secondary school heads in Hurungwe Education District in Zimbabwe were performing their duties as instructional leaders. The study was triggered by the fact that concern had been raised by parents and other stakeholders that heads contributed towards the decline of ‘O’ level results in the district. Pointers were that heads were not performing instructional leadership roles properly, hence the poor performance in the district. It was therefore in view of the above, that this study sought to find out how heads performed instructional leadership roles. The study was located in the interpretive paradigm and hence followed the qualitative approach and case study design. Purposive sampling technique was followed to identify participants, namely; 12 teachers, 6 heads and 2 education officers from the District Office.

The study was underpinned in the instructional leadership model by Hallinger (2008). The model advocates for heads to carry out their instructional leadership roles following the three dimensions which include defining the school vision and managing the instructional program and developing the school learning climate program. Heads have to identify the vision, mission statement with the help of the entire school community. Emphasis is on making sure that the vision, mission and goals of the school are clearly crafted.

The study found out that heads consulted the school community when designing the vision, mission and goals of the schools; however the reviewing of the vision and mission statements of the school were inconsistent. Similar observations were made on curriculum selection when there were consultations with most members of the school community; however the voices of students were not included.

Developing the school instructional programmes in the schools is yet another dimension followed by heads. This is when curriculum activities are monitored by the head and the school management body. The study found that under this dimension, heads had multifaceted and complex roles which they carried out in schools. It emerged that heads were in most cases unable to balance the times they spent on
teaching with other duties and mostly sacrificed teaching times by carrying out other chores during teaching times.

Heads of schools under study mainly spent more time on administrative roles than instructional leadership roles. It emerged that schools under study generally carried out supervision on subordinates through class visits and book inspection and other informal observations such as Three Minute Walk (TMW). The study further established that whilst heads of schools carried out supervision amongst subordinates, they did not wholly follow clinical supervision stages as advocated by Cogan and GoldHammer (1993) and Pajak (2003). In addition, heads under study inclusive of HODs were not keeping records such as reports on class visits, and book inspection reports for future reference.

Heads mainly followed the top down traditional methods of supervision as they carried out their duties as opposed to the modern approaches that include clinical supervision.

The last dimension was the need for heads to identify and create a conducive learning atmosphere in the school. The study found out that heads attempted to create a favourable learning environment through empowering HODs in running departmental affairs. Some heads delegated and distributed leadership chores to senior teachers who included deputy heads, senior women or senior master and HODs. The formation for example of committees such as staff development committees, social welfare committees assisted in making informed decisions in the schools. The study therefore concluded that heads of schools in most cases did not perform their duties to expected standards due to several highlighted challenges. The major challenges stated included that heads did not have adequate time to perform their roles due to overloaded responsibilities. They also bemoaned inadequate provision of both teaching and learning recourses in schools.

However some of the recommendations made by the study included that:

- The heads should delegate and distribute leadership to other members of the school community in order to shed off their load.

- The department of education should appoint two deputies to relieve the head of some of the management duties, while the other assists in the academic
matters. Such a move will remove pressure on the head, overload of responsibilities and make the head more effective in the teaching and class management roles.

- More teaching and learning resources should be availed in schools.
- Heads should spend more time on instructional leadership roles so that heads concentrate more on most important roles that enhance student learning.
- Heads should follow current supervisory practices such as clinical supervision and refrain from following the top down approach. Students ought to be actively involved in decision making in the school if a total conducive environment is to prevail in the school.
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I would like also to express my multiplied profound gratitude to the heads and teachers who participated in the study. Their cooperation and assistance in responding to set questions were greatly appreciated.

My appreciation is extended to my dear wife Precillah who was my pillar of strength and my in laws Mr I. and Mrs D. Nxele who stood on my side inclusive of the four daughters, Sheron, Shelter, Shalene and Shamane.

My gratitude is also extended to colleagues who include Maiguru Jenny Shumba for her guidance and motivation, Doctor Mabhena Mpofu, Joyce Matwasa, Simon Taukeni, Denias Muzenda, Elizabeth Meke and Faith Tlou for their professional guidance support and encouragement when things got tough.
DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my wife Precillah, daughters, Sheron, Shelter, Shalene and Shamane.
## ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘A’ Level</td>
<td>Advanced level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA</td>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bsc</td>
<td>Bachelor of Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBA</td>
<td>Cost Benefit Analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D/Head</td>
<td>Deputy Head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECEC</td>
<td>Early Childhood Education and Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDI</td>
<td>Foreign Direct Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human Immune Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H-T</td>
<td>Hoy-Tarter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jnr/Tr</td>
<td>Junior Teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDC-M</td>
<td>Movement for Democratic Change-Mutambara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDC-T</td>
<td>Movement for Democratic Change-Tsvangirai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M.Ed</td>
<td>Masters in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBWA</td>
<td>Management by Wondering Around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoESAC</td>
<td>Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAPH</td>
<td>National Association of Primary School Heads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NASH</td>
<td>National Association of Secondary School Heads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Governmental Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘O’ Level</td>
<td>Ordinary Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDM</td>
<td>Participative Decision Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIT</td>
<td>Putting it together</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RBM</td>
<td>Result Based Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>SDA</td>
<td>School Development Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SDC</td>
<td>School Development Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snr/Tr</td>
<td>Senior Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>TALIS</td>
<td>Teaching and Learning International Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TL</td>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMW</td>
<td>Three Minute Walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations’ International Children’s Emergency Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNWHO</td>
<td>United Nations World Health Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZANU-PF</td>
<td>Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front</td>
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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The study investigated the performance of heads of schools as instructional leaders in six rural secondary schools of Hurungwe Education District in Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe. This chapter commences by discussing the background to the study in an effort to contextualise the problem under study. In doing so, it outlines the socio-economic, socio political and the educational background of Zimbabwe. In this chapter, the writer further outlines the statement of the problem, the main research questions and objectives of the study, the assumptions of the study and the significance of the study. Lastly, it provides the delimitation, definition of terms and chapter outline.

1.2 BASIC FACTS ABOUT ZIMBABWE

1.2.1 Socio-economic and political background

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country in the Southern African region. It shares borders with South Africa in the South, Botswana in the South West, Zambia in the North West and Mozambique in the East. The country's economy is agro-based and has a vibrant tourism sector (UNESCO 2000). According to Zimbabwe Central Statistical Office (CSO) the population is approximately 13 million people of which 48% are male and 52% female (Central Statistical Office 2000). The growth rate is estimated at 4.31% as at October 2011 (Index Mundi 2011-10-25).
More than two thirds of the population resides in rural areas where resources are, in most cases, inadequate to sustain the social services needed to address the economic development of the country (Rembe 2006). There is a growing rural-urban imbalance where the majority of people who live in rural areas are disadvantaged. Life expectancy in Zimbabwe is estimated to be 37 for men whilst that of women is 34. This is reported to be the lowest in the world (UNWHO 2006). The low life expectancy is attributed partly to poor health, HIV and AIDS epidemic and malnutrition which are persistent in some parts of the country (Rembe, 2006).

The social and economic problems that persisted in Zimbabwe were exacerbated by developmental challenges encountered from 2000. The challenges included the 1999/2000 Cyclone Eline floods; droughts of 2001/2002, 2004/2005, and 2006/2007; and the prevalence of unstable and volatile political situation (CSO 2009). The factors fuelled economic instability in the country which resulted in hyperinflation that reached 231 million percent in July 2008 (CSO 2009). The latter had negative effects on provision of basic social services such as education, health, water and sanitation.

The allegations of human rights abuse in Zimbabwe resulted in a volatile political environment and worsening economic conditions. Zimbabwe suffered isolation from the international community and imposition of limited economic sanctions. As a result, the GDP growth rate declined by 46% crippling further the economy (CSO 2009).

However the signing of the Global Political Agreement between the three political parties that included MDC-T, MDC-M and ZANU PF marked the formation of the Inclusive Government in September 2008 (Chitiyo, 2011; CSO, 2009; Ruhanya, 2010). In 2009, the country introduced multi currencies which stabilised the micro economic environment of the country. Despite this positive trend, meaningful recovery of the economy is still being hampered by weak aggregate demand and lack of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and limited balance of payment (Zimbabwe Multiple Indicator Monitoring Survey 2009:1).
Although Zimbabweans generally accessed health and education services and economic opportunities since independence, the majority of the people still encounter serious challenges of poverty and unemployment, and at times, political violence in some areas of the country (Peta, 2011). The political instability and economic challenges that Zimbabwe faced affected the smooth running of schools: for example, parents failed to pay fees; teachers were harassed because of their political affiliation and, at times removed from schools thus creating manpower shortages (Peta, 2011). Heads of schools would not be able to purchase resources to facilitate effective teaching when parents fail to pay fees for their children. These negative developments adversely affected the delivery of quality education in schools resulting in the production of poor results in some of the schools (Kanyongo, 2005).

1.2.2 The education system in Zimbabwe

Upon attaining independence in 1980, the education system in Zimbabwe was viewed as a means of enhancing the social and economic transformation of the country. The government took a number of measures to redress the education system (Masuko 2003). Among the following are measures taken to provide education to all citizens (EFA 2000 Assessment Team 2000):

(i) Basic education was declared a human right;
(ii) Primary education was made free and compulsory;
(iii) The age limit for entry into primary schools was waved to benefit those who had missed out on education due to the liberation war;
(iv) Massive national programmes were launched to build new schools and to renovate those that were destroyed during the war;
(v) The provision of primary education was designated a joint effort between the Government and local authorities (rural district and urban councils), and non-governmental organisations (NGOs), churches, trusts, the private sector and individuals. These actors were responsible for the building and ownership of primary schools.

The Statistics for 2000 revealed that there were 4,741 primary schools and 1,555 secondary schools (EFA 2000 Assessment Team (2000). According to Rembe
(2006:4), “there was an increase of over 200% in the enrolment across the whole system”. During the first ten years of independence, the total number of secondary schools increased from 2401 in 1979 to 4504 in 1998, an increase of 87.6% whilst primary schools increased from 819586 to 2,274,178 during the same period, an increase of 177.5% (Ministry of Education Sport and Culture, 2001). There were also other notable successes which included the attainment of racial equity in education and an increase in the number of educated personnel serving in the private and public sectors (Kanyongo, 2005). The country has achieved male literacy rate of 94.2%, and female literacy rate of 87.2%. The overall literacy rate is 90.7% (United Nations Development Program UNDP (2003).

The Education Assessment Team Report, HEAT (2002:8) observed that after independence “the education system was changed in order to accommodate the new ways of thinking focused on current socio cultural values and socio-economic order prevailing.” However, in order to accommodate the changes, the curriculum was restructured and teachers had to be trained so as to enable them implement the new curriculum. This entailed introduction of new teaching methods and assessment procedures. Consequently, the changes in the education system also entailed production of quality and relevant teaching materials, especially for primary schools (HEAT, 2001).

However, in the process of implementing the above reforms, there was a mismatch between the economy and the education system since the expansion could not be sustained by available financial, material and human resources (Zvobogo, 2000). Chifunyise (1998) observed that the expansion of enrolment in both primary and secondary schools could not match the supply of inputs such as text books and there was generally lack of supervision in schools by both heads of schools and education officers. This was also compounded by the economic challenges mentioned above (CSO, 2009).

1.2.2.1 Responsibilities of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture

Immediately after independence, the responsibility of education in Zimbabwe was under one Ministry. However, since 1998, it was placed under two Ministries,
namely, the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture (MoESC), and Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (MoHTE) (HEAT, 2001).

The Ministry of Education Sport and Culture in Zimbabwe is charged with the responsibility of overseeing the general management and the delivery of education from Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) to High School. With the ECEC, the community is mainly in-charge of the general running of the centers to make sure that teachers are appointed and provisions are available for the children. The children in ECEC are of the 0-5 age groups. The primary school runs from Grade 1 to 7 at the end of which an examination is written. The secondary school education takes four years leading to the Ordinary Level Certificate (O-Level). A further two year course after O-Level leads to the award of Advanced Level Certificate (A-Level) which enables graduates to proceed to tertiary training at colleges or universities. Tertiary education is made up of all universities, technical colleges, polytechnic colleges; teacher’s training colleges and vocational skills training centers. However tertiary education falls under a separate Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education. The same Ministry is also in charge of the development of the informal sector.

1.2.2.2 Management in the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture

In order to monitor the activities in the education sector, the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture has four divisions (HEAT Report 2002:9):

(i) The Schools Division: is responsible for the day to day operation of the school following a set of structures that include the Head Office, Provincial Offices, District Offices and schools. The Division monitors all activities in schools which include curriculum implementation, supervision, and it also ensures quality provision of inputs, processes and outcomes.

(ii) The Human Resources Division: is in charge of human resource and planning of all personnel issues which include administration, monitoring and presiding over conditions of service for teachers and professional conduct.

(iii) The Research, Policy and Development Division: is responsible for gathering, processing and dissemination of information to be used in policy
development. It is also in charge of the overall performance of the system and the coordination of cross sectional issues, inclusive of donor linkage activities.

(iv) *The Finance Division:* is in charge of all financial transactions in the Ministry which cover resources, budgets and expenditures.

### 1.2.2.3 School Management

At the school level, the heads of schools are tasked to ensure that the expectations by the above divisions of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture are implemented at school level in order to provide quality education to all Zimbabwean citizens (MoESC 2001). Decentralisation of activities within the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture was implemented in schools after the amendment of the 1987 Education Act in 1991. This was regarded as a way of involving people at the grass roots in running school affairs (MoESC, 2001).

It was also seen as a way of introducing cost recovery measures in schools where parents were required to contribute and become partners in school financing (EFA, 2000; Gwarinda, 1994). The government of Zimbabwe introduced Education Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 which established School Development Committees (SDCs) for non-government schools. Statutory Instrument 70 of 1993 established School Development Associations (SDA) in government schools. According to the above statutory instruments, SDCs and SDAs are empowered to set, collect and administer development levies in the school. Both statutes, however, put emphasis on the need for the school bodies to work closely with the head of the school so that activities are run efficiently (MoESC, 1992).

In addition to the appointment of the SDCs and SDAs which assist in the governance and management of school affairs, heads of schools work with school management teams which consist of the deputy head, senior master, senior woman and heads of Departments (HODs) to ensure that there is effective teaching and learning and improved learner performance (MoESC, 1993).
1.3 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

The responsibilities of heads in providing the required management and leadership in schools in Zimbabwe are outlined in the Handbook on School Administration for Heads provided by the Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture (MoESC, 1993). There being no other revised version of the handbook, the 1993 version therefore remains a referral document which guides heads of schools in their daily operations in schools to date.

The duties are outlined as administrative and professional (MoESC 1993 19-22) are detailed below:

1.3.1 Administrative Duties

1.3.1.1 Monitoring the enrolment of the school by controlling the transfers, suspensions and exclusion of students. It is the head’s prerogative to recommend the suspension or exclusion of students depending on the gravity of the misbehaviour of students as stipulated in policy P35 (MoESC: 1993:114) cited in Hand Book on School Administration.

1.3.1.2 Establishing the best possible rapport between the school and the responsible authority, staff, students and the community through inclusive participative decision making (PDM). Involvement of the school community in decision making contributes to good working relations and thus creates a good environment which is necessary for the achievement of set goals.

1.3.1.3 Making a deliberate effort to acquaint the staff with Public Service Regulations. This is made possible through holding systematic continuous teacher development workshops on ministerial rules and regulations. It is also necessary to hold meetings more often in addition to the ones held at the beginning and at the end of term as stipulated by the MoESC (1993). Heads of schools need to also
make sure that buildings are inspected more often so that they are repaired when necessary.

1.3.1.4 Public Relations. The head act as the chief public relations officer of the school so that the image of the school is not unnecessarily tarnished. The danger in tarnishing the image of the school could result in parents failing to support school activities or even withdrawing their children from the school.

1.3.1.5 School Funds and Property. Heads of schools collect and disburse school funds through the finance committees selected in schools. They also look after the movable and immovable property of the schools such as text books and buildings and make sure that they are well maintained.

1.3.2 Professional duties

1.3.2.1 Managing Curriculum Implementation. This is supposed to be done by choosing the most appropriate curriculum and ensuring its proper implementation.

1.3.2.2 Teaching, supervision of teaching and non-teaching staff to ensure adherence to rules and regulations governing employment conduct. Heads of schools teach in order to lead by example through carrying out demonstration lessons. Supervision of other subordinates is made easier where heads demonstrate to teachers how they should conduct lessons and display expert power by explaining rules and regulations that guide teachers in the execution of their duty.

1.3.2.3 Inspecting pupils’ exercise books since they are indicators of the quantity, quality and suitability of the work taught to pupils in the school. Heads are supposed to periodically sample exercise books from teachers and write reports as a way of maintaining acceptable standards in the school.

1.3.2.4 Carrying out class visits in order to collect data on the progress made by teachers in an effort to meet set standards and goals of the school. The supervision of teachers if carried out more often and systematically is of paramount importance since observations made by heads could be used as indicators of possible teacher continuous professional development within the school (on-site) or outside (off-site).
1.3.2.5 **Exercise book inspection.** The head might only know that children in given forms are being taught properly and given adequate exercises by sampling exercise books from teachers in the school. The head ought to scrutinise students’ exercises more often in order to guide teachers accordingly.

1.3.2.6 **Ensuring that the necessary teaching and learning resources are available in the school.** Heads of schools ought to avail adequate resources to schools if meaningful learning has to take place. In emphasising the importance of resources in the implementation of school based management (SBM), Gamage *et al.* (2009) remarked that the success in achieving student progress and quality education can only be realised when there is adequate provision of resources.

As stated above, schools heads are also supposed to teach timetabled lessons (MoESC, 2006). Circular Number A/230/6 of 2006 issued by the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture instructed all heads of schools (both primary and secondary) to teach time tabled lessons. Heads of schools with an enrolment of nine hundred and sixty (960) pupils and above are required to teach five (5) periods per week, whilst those with two hundred (200) pupils and below are required to teach eighteen (18) periods per week. In order to ensure compliance, heads’ teaching preparation books that include schemes and record of marks are checked three times per year by education officers during performance appraisal reviews (MoESC, 2009).

However, there have been concerns raised by a number of stakeholders that school heads in Zimbabwe tended to concentrate more on routine administrative than professional duties which focus on instructional leadership roles (MoESC, 1996; Malone, 2004). Concerns have been raised in the media that Circular Number A/230/6 of 2006 issued by the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture was a way of compelling heads to balance the above activities (UNICEF, 2012). However, despite the Circular, it was alleged that many of them were not teaching. In other words, many of them remained non-teaching heads (Raath, 2008). They claim that such school heads are not conversant with classroom practices and are unable to provide the required support to teachers. Harden’s (1988) study on heads of schools confirm
that if heads of schools as instructional leaders teach in the classroom too, they get attuned to students and teachers problems that contribute to school ineffectiveness and lack of improvement in student performance.

Informally, parents, teachers and the media attributed poor students’ performance, especially at Ordinary Level, to failure by school heads to perform adequately their roles as instructional leaders (NASH, 2001). Among the issues raised are that clinical supervision and class visits are done haphazardly without proper planning and required feedback to the teachers.

Concerns were also raised regarding school heads not having been adequately equipped with required skills to conduct staff development activities at the school level (on-site staff development programmes (Banya, 2003). School heads do not recognise expertise of different teachers and do not encourage teachers to work as teams especially in planning their work and providing support and assistance to those who experience problems in the classroom (NASH, 2010). Teachers and parents have complained that school heads have failed to provide basic resources which are essential in learning despite the fact that parents pay required fees (Ngwenya, Baird, Boonstopel, & Padera, 2008).

Consequently, some school heads have admitted informally that the pass rate at Ordinary Level has declined in their schools partly because they have not been able to concentrate on their instructional leadership role as stipulated in the Ministerial Handbook of School Administration (National Association of Secondary School Heads, 2011). Among the districts where concerns were raised was Hurungwe Education District where this study was conducted. Hurungwe Education District is situated in Mashonaland West Province in Zimbabwe. It is in the north west of Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe. It has 91 secondary schools with 20 077 students and 1 008 teachers (Hurungwe Education District Statistics, 2009).

The pass rate results obtained at Ordinary Level for this District from 2003 were on the average 14.3%; in 2004, 13.4% and in 2005, 12.3%. In 2006, 2007 and 2008 the results for the district were 9%, 9.2% and 8.1% respectively (Hurungwe Education Statistics, 2009). For the past six years, students’ performance at Ordinary Level in Hurungwe Education District has been on the decline. Until 2005, the pass rate at
Ordinary Level was 13% on the average. The pass rate decreased to 9% from 2006 onwards (Hurungwe Education Statistics, 2009). The national average pass rate in Zimbabwe is pegged at 21% annually (MoESC, 2006). All schools in Zimbabwe that score an average of 21% or better are deemed to have done well in comparison with the national average pass rate (MoESC, 2006).

Stakeholders have identified other factors which might contribute to poor performance in schools, among others, unqualified teachers, poverty, inadequate financial and human resources (Masuko, 2003). However, while they acknowledged that these factors play a role, they singled out heads of schools not performing their role as instructional leaders as being the major factor that contributed to poor performance in schools in Hurungwe Education District (Makuvaro, 1997). Hence this study examined performance of school heads as instructional leaders in Hurungwe Education District. Studies have acknowledged the fact that provision of instructional leadership by school heads is one of the most significant factors in enhancing school and student performance (Walker and Scott, 2000; Jenerrette and Sherretz, 2007; Gamage, Adams & McCormack, 2009). Instructional leadership is the action taken by school heads to promote growth in students’ learning (Hallinger, 2008). The school head brings the school vision and goals to realisation by encouraging educational achievement and also by ensuring that instructional quality becomes the main concern of the school (Gamage et. al., 2009; Stronge, 1988).

1.3.3 Conceptualising instructional leadership

Instructional leadership can be examined by looking at three dimensions, namely, defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme and promoting a positive school learning climate (Hallinger, 2008; see Figure 1). PIMRS (Principal Management Rating Scale).
Defining the school mission is the first dimension and it entails framing and communicating school goals (Hallinger, 2008). School heads work with members of the school community to ensure that there is a clear vision, mission and goals which focus on academic advancement of the students. Formulation of vision, mission and goals is a collaborative process between the school head and other members of the school community. However, the responsibility of the head remains that he/she ensures that vision, mission and goals of the school are there and are publicised or communicated widely to members of the school community (Hallinger, 2008; Poirier, 2009).

The second dimension is managing the instructional programme. It includes supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress (Hallinger, 2008). It focuses on the core business of the school head which is development of the academic programme and ensuring that teaching
and learning yield required outcomes (Hallinger, 2008). Although it is a collaborative process with other members of the school community, the school head holds a key leadership responsibility in the process.

The third dimension is promoting a positive school learning climate. It includes protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers and providing incentives for learning. It entails ensuring there is good climate that provides appropriate support for teachers to focus on the goals. School heads move from complete control to shared leadership, collaboration, collegiality and empowerment and also ensure development of a positive school culture (Hallinger, 2008; Poirier, 2009).

According to Cotton, (2003), Botha, (2004), Gamage et. al. (2009) and Leithwood, (2009), the above three dimensions can be defined further by outlining the following roles that can be used by school heads as instructional leaders, namely;

- Establishing a vision and setting goals and ensuring that they are communicated clearly to all members of the school community;
- Accommodating discussion of instructional issues including curriculum and instruction;
- Encouraging collaborative planning process and team work;
- Enabling classroom observations and feedback to teachers; maintaining high visibility;
- Supporting teacher autonomy, risk taking and shared decision making (distributed leadership);
- Providing professional development opportunities and supporting resources;
- Protecting instructional time; monitoring student progress and sharing findings;
- Using student progress data for programme improvements; and
- Recognising and celebrating of student and staff achievements.

The above roles are discussed in detail in Chapter 2. However, concerns have been raised by some stakeholders that school heads do not perform their roles. It is against this background that the study examined
performance of school heads as instructional leaders in Hurungwe Education District.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The responsibilities of heads in providing required management and leadership in schools in Zimbabwe are outlined in the Handbook on School Administration for Heads provided by the Ministry of Education, Sport Arts and Culture (MoESC, 1993).

The study was triggered by the fact that concerns had been raised by parents, media and other stake holders that heads contributed towards the decline of ‘O’ level results in the district. Pointers were that heads were not performing instructional leadership roles properly in some schools Orozco (2001), hence the poor performance in the district. It was also alleged that heads gave more time to administrative routine duties than instructional roles. Claims by the media also stated that circular number A/230/6 of 2006 by Ministry of Education Sport and Culture was introduced as a way of ensuring that heads teach since some of the heads were not teaching (Hove, 2011). Among the districts where concerns were raised was Hurungwe Education District (Refer to Background to the Problem). Hence, the study examined the performance of school heads as instructional leaders in Hurungwe Education District in an effort to establish how they performed their duties.

1.5 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

How do rural secondary school heads in Hurungwe Education District perform their instructional leadership roles?

1.5.1 Sub-Questions

1.5.1.1 How much time is devoted to instructional leadership roles by heads of
schools?

1.5.1.2 What areas of instructional leadership do school heads perform?

1.5.1.3 What measures have been put in place by the schools and the MoESC to ensure school heads perform their roles as instructional leaders?

1.5.1.4 What challenges do school heads experience in performing instructional leadership roles?

1.5.1.5 Do heads of schools understand what instructional leadership entails?

1.6.1.6 What can we learn from the findings of the study regarding performance of school heads and instructional leadership model?

1.6 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to investigate the performance of school heads as instructional leaders in Hurungwe Education District.

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

(i) To find out the extent to which school heads are performing instructional leadership roles.

(ii) To find out the time spent by school heads in performing instructional leadership roles.

(iii) To identify areas of instructional leadership performed by school heads.

(iv) To ascertain measures that have been put in place by schools and the MoESC to ensure that heads of school perform their roles as instructional leaders.

(iv) To find out if heads of schools understand what instructional leadership
entails.

(v) To establish out the challenges that secondary school heads experience in performing instructional leadership roles.

1.8 ASSUMPTIONS

The study was based on the assumption that:

(i) Secondary school heads do not perform some of their roles properly due to insufficient time.

(ii) Heads of schools do not delegate authority to other members of the school community and therefore are not able to perform their instructional leadership responsibilities adequately.

(iii) Secondary school heads do not have adequate support from schools and MoESC to in order for them to carry out their instructional leadership roles properly.

(iv) Heads of schools do not understand what instructional entails.

1.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is envisaged that the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture may use the findings of this study to formulate policies and make informed decisions pertaining to how heads of schools perform instructional leadership roles in schools. Furthermore, the findings and recommendations of this study would benefit education officers in Hurungwe Education District and other districts in the country on how best they can assist heads of schools in the performance of their instructional leadership roles. In this regard, the findings may remedy the low performance registered in Hurungwe Education District which was a source of concern by various stakeholders.
The findings of the study would also benefit heads and teachers since they might shed light on how best schools could take advantage of collaboration, teamwork and carry out staff development activities in schools. The findings of the study may also assist in determining how heads of schools perform instructional leadership roles in schools with the view to making informed improvements. The current findings may offer a model or basis for pursuing further studies in other districts of the country and beyond.

1.10 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in six rural secondary schools in Hurungwe Education District in Mashonaland West Province-Zimbabwe. Participants comprised of six heads of schools, twelve teachers and two education officers from the District Education Office.

1.11 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.11.1 Performance

Performance is a concept that represents the results of organisational activities (Szilagyi 1988). However, Your Dictionary (2011-10-16) defines performance as how effective something or someone is at doing a good job. In this study, performance was used to explain how heads of schools perform their duties as both instructional leaders and learning principals.

1.11.2 Instructional leader

Blase and Blase (2000) viewed an instructional leader as a head or principal in charge of instructional leadership in specific behaviours which include making suggestions, giving feedback, modeling effective instruction, soliciting opinions, supporting collaborations, providing professional development and giving praise for effective teaching. However Phillips (2007) defines instructional leadership as involving: setting clear goals, allocating resources to instruction, managing curriculum, monitoring lesson planning and evaluating teachers.
In this study, an instructional leader is viewed as the head of school in charge of monitoring all activities in the school as put across by Blase and Blase (2000) and DuFour (2002). The two authors view heads of schools as learning heads or principals whose focus is on encouraging teamwork, collaboration and outcomes. When heads of schools operate as learners they will be mainly focusing on how students would be grasping concepts taught by teachers as opposed to monitoring how teachers teach (DuFour 2002).

1.11.3 Chapter breakdown

The thesis is composed of six chapters. Chapter 1 focused on the background to the study and the research problem, objectives of the study, assumptions, significance of the study, definition of terms and delimitation of the study. Chapter 2 covers the literature review, discussing the views of various authorities on the role played by teaching heads as instructional leaders.

Chapter 2 presents the literature review and is divided into two parts. Part I discusses the theoretical frame work that informed the study while Part II discusses the responsibilities of heads as instructional leaders and the performance of heads of schools as instructional leaders. Chapter 3 outlines the chosen methodology which discusses the research paradigms, research approach and the research design followed in the study. The chapter also outlines the population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection instruments and ethical considerations that were followed in the study. Chapter 4 is about data presentation, analysis and interpretation where all the data collected were analysed, presented and also interpreted to come up with meaning from it. Chapter 5 discusses the findings from the study. The discussion focused on the comparison of findings with literature. Chapter 6 provides the summary of the findings in relation to the problem; and finally discusses the conclusions and recommendations.

1.12 SUMMARY

In this chapter the writer outlined the background to the study which highlighted the basic facts about Zimbabwe by elaborating the socio-economic and socio-political situation that prevailed. The chapter further explained how the Ministry made sure
that educational policies were redressed to make sure that it reached all citizens. Responsibilities of the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture were outlined explaining its focus on ECEC to high school levels. An elaboration on tertiary education falling under the Ministry of Higher Education was made identifying all colleges that train various individuals. The divisions that make up the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture that include the Schools Division, the Human Resources Division, Research Policy and Development and the Finance Division were identified and their operations outlined.

The chapter then discussed the background to the study by specifying the administrative and professional duties carried out by heads as instructional leaders. This was followed by the conceptualisation of instructional leadership as viewed by Hallinger (2008). The statement of the problem that situates the justification on the need to carry out the research study was furnished. The main research question was stated followed by sub-research questions. The purpose of the study was given explaining the reason behind carrying out the study. The assumptions and significance of the study were given followed by definition of terms that explained key terms to be used in the study. In conclusion the above assisted in navigating the research focus in an effort to answer the outlined research questions. In the next chapter review of literature germane to the study is given in order to lay firm foundation on which the rest of the study was built.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter conceptualised the problem and identified research problems that guided the study. The aim of this chapter is to review the literature relating to the performance of secondary school heads as instructional leaders. The review enabled the researcher to highlight what other authorities have written about instructional leadership in general, and the role played by heads as instructional leaders in secondary schools in particular. As elaborated in Chapter 1, literature studies state that the responsibility of the head lies in improving the quality of teaching and learning in view of the panoply of the duties that they perform in schools (Donmayer & Wagstaff, 1990:20; Budhal, 2000:38; Steyn, 2000:255).

The chapter begins by discussing how instructional leadership concept evolved and changed with time. It then discusses the instructional leadership model by presenting what people have written in different aspects of the three dimensions of the model, namely defining school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing the school learning climate. It also reviews literature on teaching responsibilities of heads, factors enhancing or hindering instructional leadership and support provided to heads to enable them perform instructional leadership roles.

2.2 CHANGES IN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

2.2.1 Leadership

Leadership is central to the success of all activities carried out in organisations, hence the need for all those in position of authority to carry out their roles effectively. An understanding by leaders on what leadership entails is also of paramount importance. In an attempt to elaborate the concept of leadership, the following
definitions of leadership are reviewed: Yuki, (2006:8) defined leadership as, "The process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives." However, Northouse, (2007) views leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal."

The foregoing definitions point to the fact that leadership is an ongoing process whereby leaders influence others in an effort to achieve organisational goals. The definitions also reveal that leadership is much concerned with the realisation of set goals through collective efforts of group members. Such an approach in an organisation calls for collaborative efforts from both the leader and the subordinates. Therefore, leadership in a school situation would encompass cooperative efforts from the teachers, the head and the school community if meaningful realisations of school goals are to materialise. Hence, it is necessary to investigate the prevailing situation in the six rural secondary schools under study.

2.2.2 Concept of instructional leadership

As an extension of the above definitions, it was noted that the concept of school head as instructional leader became prominent in the 1970s and 1980s when educational reform was a major focus particularly in the United States (Hallinger, 2008). The school head was perceived as a key agent in enhancing school effectiveness and student achievement, and also a sole person who shaped the school (Hallinger, 2002; Poirier, 2009). The emphasis during this period was on top down approach which put prominence on the role of the school head in coordinating, controlling, supervising and developing curriculum and instruction in the school (Hallinger, 2002; Ciulla, 2003). Thus, instructional leadership was viewed as the sole domain of the school head. For example, McNeill, Cavanagh and Silcox (2003:4) observed that the National Association of Elementary School Principals defined instructional leadership by setting out six standards of what heads or principals should know and be able to do, namely:

- Leading schools in a way that places student and adult learning at the centre;
- Setting high expectations for academic and social development of all students
and the performance of adults;
- Demanding content and instruction that ensure student achievement of agreed upon academic standards;
- Creating a culture of continuous learning for adults tied to student learning and other school goals; using multiple sources of data as diagnostic tools to assess, identify and apply instructional improvement; and
- Actively engaging the community to create a shared responsibility for student and school success.

The above standards maintain instructional leadership as the sole domain of the school head who is supposed to be goal oriented with the major focus on student outcomes and achievement (Poirier, 2009). However, in the 1990s there was a shift in emphasis which led to the recognition that there are multiple layers of instructional leadership within schools and not the school head’s main responsibility (MacNeill, Cavanagh & Silcox, 2003). Hence, emphasis was put on heads of schools to encourage consultative, teamwork and collaborative approaches when performing school activities. There was focus on facilitative instructional leadership model (Brewer, 2001; Lashway, 2002). This was a significantly different approach from the former traditional view of instructional leadership which emphasised on applying rules and regulations in order to get the work done.

This is in line with the growing number of researchers who recommended that instructional leadership ought to be distributed across the entire school community (Lashway, 2002; MacNeill, Cavanagh & Silcox, 2003; Gupton, 2003; Poirier, 2009). For example, the facilitative instructional leadership approach is manifested when the school community that include heads of schools, superintendents, teachers and policy makers ensure that there is effective instructional programme in schools (Lashway, 2002). As a result, instructional leadership is currently viewed as involving all stakeholders in all school activities, particularly the teaching and learning of students. Phillips (2009) observed that instructional leadership is defined as leading learning communities:
In learning communities staff members meet on a regular basis to discuss their work, work together to problem solve, reflect on their jobs and take responsibility for what students learn. They operate in networks of shared and complementary expertise rather than hierarchies or in isolation. People in a learning community “own the problem” and become agents of its solution (p.2).

The above statement shows that there are elements of collaboration and teamwork in instructional leadership and it is not based on a single person who is the school head. Thus, there are multiple layers of instructional leadership within schools (MacNeill et. al., 2003). Therefore, the study aimed at discovering whether schools under investigation were conscious of the need to follow multiple layers of leadership through working collaboratively as explained above.

2.3 THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL

As discussed in earlier sections, the concept of instructional leadership has changed with time. The functions of school heads as instructional leaders becomes complex with the different models of instructional leadership (Andrews & Soder, 1987; King, 2002). The early models of instructional leadership put emphasis on top down approach while the recent ones focus on “shared leadership and empowerment of teachers to enable them become part of the processes, resulting in positive school culture” (Poirier, 2009:13). As discussed in Chapter 1, the instructional leadership model puts emphasis on three aspects or dimensional practices. Hallinger, (2000) maintains that these dimensions should be taken into consideration to ensure school effectiveness and improved student performance. Three identified measurements were:

- Defining the school mission;
- Managing the instructional programme; and
- Promoting the school learning climate.

2.3.1 Defining the school mission

2.3.1.1 Establishing a vision, mission and setting goals of the school

Heads of schools as instructional leaders should make sure that schools craft a clear vision, mission and goals which clearly guide all operations and activities in the school. It is believed that the setting of the school’s expectations that include
members of the school community contribute significantly to effective teaching and learning, (Phillips, 2009; Parker & Day, 1997 in Kruger, 2003). The involvement of teachers in the crafting of the vision, mission statements and goals of the school create a conducive learning environment in schools in addition to promoting facilitative instructional leadership (Graczewski, Knudson & Holtzman, 2009).

Teachers do not perceive the heads’ efforts to be draconian especially where they are consulted in the formulation of the vision, mission and goals of the school (Kruger 2003); Hallinger & Heck (2001) also observed that heads of schools ought to develop clear school missions if they are to exercise visionary leadership. Throughout the 20th century, it is reported that research in various institutions have to focus on the role of the vision, mission and goals in an effort to enhance organisational performance (Barnard 1983; Banard 1938; Drucker 1996 in Hallinger & Heck, 2002).

### 2.3.1.2 The role of the vision in school improvement

According to Hallinger and Heck (2002), in crafting the vision of the school there is need for heads to include inputs from all subordinates so that they are inspired to work towards the success of the goals that they have set for themselves. The same authors also confirm that a well planned vision motivates and encourages individuals to work hard and this will influence other members in the school community to do the same. Hill and Rowe (1996 in Cardwell, 1998) acknowledged the importance of adopting a vision in schools by stating:

Heads have a central, if indirect role by helping to create the “pre-conditions” for improvement in classrooms including setting direction, developing commitment, building capacity, monitoring progress and constructing appropriate strategic responses (p.372).

Therefore, heads are tasked with the role of ensuring that the pre-conditions elaborated above are harnessed by schools through a vision that involves the school community. However, Maronwetz and Weinstein 1999 in (Hallinger & Heck, 2002) also confirmed the role of the vision in school improvement by acknowledging that a vision was a prerequisite for any change to be effected in an organisation. A number of changes are always experienced in the education sector hence the need
to always review the vision of the school. Such changes could be, for example in curriculum, where adjustments on syllabi or teaching methodology are necessitated by global changes in technology.

2.3.1.3 Mission as an avenue of influence in school improvement

A good vision is complimented with a well thought mission statement of the school which guides the school community members in their daily operations. It should be noted that interest on the importance of the mission statements of schools began to be realised as late as the 1970s and 1980s through publications on effective schools (Brookover & Lezotte; Edmonds & Frederiksen in Hallinger & Heck, 2001). Hallinger and Heck (2002) explained that a mission exists in a given institution when the personal visions of critical people in the school cohere with the views of the masses. Critical people in the school would include the management team and the HODs of various departments who then in collaboration with other teachers in the school in making sure that the mission of the school is well thought through.

2.3.1.4 Goal setting as an avenue of school improvement

According to Mind Tools (2011), goal setting is a powerful process that is exercised when individuals acknowledge the parameters of operations that guide one’s focus and identify distracters that may deflect the initial focus.

A goal represents a gap between the current scenario and what is desired for the future. So, goals explain what people intend to achieve (Hallinger, 2001). In a school situation, goals may describe the focus of a particular school in terms of student learning, attendance, graduation, and school climate or community satisfaction. In any workplace, the success of an organisation is measured against the achievement of functional goals. Therefore, the leader with the assistance of subordinates should translate the mission into cognitive goals in order to achieve expected outcomes (Crown & Rosse in Hallinger & Heck, 2001).

However, the head of the school should involve subordinates in setting goals with caution since members of the school might deliberately set complex goals for the school which might not be achievable. In a different scenario, the community might even set goals against the head’s desires and ambitions; as a result, this could
generate conflicts in the organisation. According to Mind Tools (2011), the school should set goals and objectives that are specific, measurable, attainable, relevant and achievable within a given time frame.

The head ensures that the vision and mission statements include goals that are communicated clearly to all stakeholders so that they are aware of the school’s focus in its daily operations. Phillips (2009) is of the opinion that heads of schools ought to possess certain skills that can assist them in the planning of activities for the school. Such planning, according to Phillips (2009), ought to commence with the identification of goals and a vision statement so that activities in the school are well focused. The inclusion of all stakeholders from the school community in the framing of the school vision, mission statements and goals is of great importance if members are to cultivate interest and commitment to the set targets of the school (Gamage et al, 2009). Bafile (2007) concurs with Gamage et al. (2009) by revealing that ideas on the crafting of the vision and mission statements should also be sought from parents through consultative meetings so that they can contribute their views.

Gabriel and Farmer (2007) recommend that there is need for schools to form teams that would research on various examples of vision and mission statements from where they would select certain aspects which could be included in the school mission. Gabriel and Farmer (2007) further recommend that relevant literature that might assist in the formulation of the vision and mission is collected and used by the teams. However, Gabriel and Farmer (2007) emphasised that heads of schools should give clear directions to the team and also limit what should be included in the formulation of the vision and mission statements of the school. Such a direction is necessary to avoid formulating a vision and mission statement that does not address the concerns of the school.

The Non-Regulatory Guidance (2006) encouraged school authorities to engage parents and the community at large by involving them as planners, participants and decision makers in school operations that include goal setting. The main advantage of the partnership between the school, parents and the community at large is in sourcing the needs of the school. The availability of adequate needs in the school would most likely translate into improved performance. It is also necessary to select
a planning team in the school (Non-Regulatory Guidance, 2006). The planning, team should comprise of members from the school and district administrators, HODs, teachers and parent representatives. The team would be in charge of school wide programmes so that they assess progress made in the school and make appropriate recommendation accordingly (Non-Regulatory Guidance, 2006). Such a collective approach would motivate the entire school community; hence, the success of the school is most likely to be evident. Heads of schools are encouraged to observe the success of such collective efforts so that similar approaches are followed in all schools. Thus, this study examined the process of crafting vision and mission statements and setting of goals by participant school heads. This will enable the researcher to find out how school heads are performing their roles as instructional leaders in the schools under study.

2.3.2 Managing the instructional programme

2.3.2.1 Discussion on curricular and instructional issues

Studies show that it is necessary for school heads to discuss curriculum and instructional developments in the school so that feedback and changes are implemented whenever necessary (George, 2002). Heads normally influence what they intend to focus on in areas that require change or improvement in the school curriculum (Mintrop & Trujillo, 2007). Then, they convey messages to the teachers in order for them to implement any improvement, change or innovation which they view to be relevant and appropriate (Kotter, 1996). In many cases, some heads do not consider teachers’ input at all when such changes or innovations are being considered in the school (Bueker, 2005).

This means that the idea of participative decision making would be defied in some instances where the head’s will is upheld through autocratic tendencies thereby suppressing the teachers’ views on curriculum change and innovation. This may also stifle the working relations in the institution which may result in some teachers developing negative attitudes in their execution of duty, hence adversely affecting the performance of students and the effectiveness of the school in general (Watt, 2005). However, Marzano et al. (2005) believe that when the head clearly identifies change or innovation in curriculum, there is acceptance of the change by school
members. In such cases, the head is viewed as a knowledgeable and credible leader who would be able to instruct or guide subordinates to improve their practice.

In an effort to distribute leadership to other subordinates, the head may as well take advantage of ‘untapped sources of knowledge’ by identifying lead teachers who are gifted in networking curriculum issues in various subject areas and empower such teachers to facilitate effective curriculum implementation in the school (Kotter, 1995). This will also facilitate a distributed network approach which operates as a ‘coalition guide’ in the school. In a study on successful heads of schools, Southworth (2004) used mediating efforts to bring about desired improvements in the school- elaborate. Such efforts could be put on trial in schools so that it is also established if similar results could be obtainable in a different environment altogether.

The advantage of involving teachers in school based curriculum is that it enables teachers to focus or address specific issues that concerns both teachers and pupils at a specific school (Rumberger & Palardy, 2005). However, it is disturbing to note that in most cases people who have little knowledge and are inexperienced in curriculum issues are directly involved in the formulation of the curriculum instead of experienced teachers. For example, Ramparsad (2001) observed that in South Africa, many teachers failed to implement the new curriculum introduced after 1994 because they did not understand it. Most teachers complained that they were not involved in the formulation of Curriculum 2005 with Outcomes Based Education orientation (OBE) and yet they were the key implementers (Chisholm, 2005). Commenting on the issue of involving teachers in school based curriculum, Kelly (2009) observed:

... the individual teacher or at least the staff of any individual school should accept the research and development role in respect of the curriculum, modifying it, adapting and developing it to suit the needs of individual pupils and particular environments (p. 135)

The above statement is supportive of the need for teachers to be directly and actively involved in curriculum modification and adaptation. Maphosa and Mutopa (2011) also confirmed that school based innovations on curriculum enabled teachers to identify school needs and search for possible solutions to address the problem.
Hence, giving them the chance to address curriculum issues provides teachers with an opportunity to participate in curriculum innovation and change.

Ogott, Indoshi and Okwara (2010) and Quist (2005) outlined the areas that teachers could affect changes in curriculum innovation which included:

- The selection and designing of teaching approaches;
- Assessment and evaluation issues;
- Syllabi interpretation; and
- Staff development issues.

The study by Maphosa and Mutopa (2011), found that most teachers at times disengaged from such aspects because of limited understanding of what it entailed. The same study bemoaned lack of capacity, time and resources in the implementation of school based curriculum innovation. Therefore, it is essential to uncover the current situation in the six rural secondary schools under study.

Continuous consultation and review of the curriculum should be done to accommodate ongoing local and global changes (Gamage et al., 2009). In support of the need for continuous review of the curriculum in schools, the National Association of Elementary School Principals in UK (2001) concurred that heads as instructional leaders are tasked to ‘lead learning communities’ where members meet more often in an effort to discuss changes in the curriculum, methodology and solve problems related to challenges encountered in teaching and learning. Additionally, heads could also make use of lead teachers who can be identified in the school so that such individuals can be used to influence change in the school on instructional and curriculum issues (Kotter, 1966 in Goslin, 2009). The lead teachers could be identified from among the HODs, examiners or other specialist teachers in the school who are capable of guiding other teachers in curriculum innovation.

As means to enhance instructional performance in schools, heads carry out clinical supervision where the supervisor and the supervisee establish a working partnership and plan the development of lessons together (Schutz, 2006). In an effort to support the need to carry out clinical supervision in schools, Sergovanne and Starrat (1983) are of the opinion that clinical supervision is designed to deliver assistance directly to the teacher and this will eventually enable the improvement of pupil performance.
According to DuFour (2002), teachers and students in schools benefit when principals or heads of schools function as learning leaders by concentrating on learning aspects through encouraging teamwork, collaboration and making sure that students’ outcomes are realised in schools. A head of school operates as a learning leader or principal not only by focusing on how a teacher delivers or carries out instructional roles, but goes further to assess how the students grasp the concepts taught (DuFour, 2002). This approach allows heads of schools to take corrective measures or interventions where students fail to understand what was taught, and enable interventions to assist learners at risk. Teamwork and collaboration is then created among members of staff in the identification of students with difficulties and individual help can be rendered by group members (DuFour, 2002). This is viewed as an important dimension which is supportive of the need for heads as instructional leaders to concentrate on the outcome of the teaching imparted on students.

Consequently, Shinkfield in Ovando and Ramirez (2007:91) stressed the need for the head to carry out evaluation in schools as part of the roles performed by heads of schools in order to enable the improvement of the instructional programme teaching practice, student performance and staff development and opportunities for teachers.

The above roles, when carried out well by the heads, enable the instructional leader to render feedback and assist in the smooth running of the school which will result in the improvement of student performance. In support of the need to focus on the role played by heads in enhancing student performance in schools, recent literature has attempted to redefine the role of the head to focus on the teaching and learning of students. This is opposed to the traditional method which put emphasis on the top down approach, proved to be generally counterproductive and retrogressive in nature (Elmore, 2000). However, as stated in earlier sections, DuFour (2002) recommended that heads ought to focus mainly on the learning of students as opposed to only monitoring teachers’ methods of instruction. Lashway (2000) also stated that heads should direct their focus on facilitative instructional leadership which views the school as a community where students, teachers and the community work together having complimentary efforts. DuFour (2002) and Lashway’s (2000) observations if put into practice, could enable schools to uplift the
performance of students. Hence, the study intended to find out how schools under study monitored the learning of students and how they practised facilitative instructional leadership approaches.

2.3.2.2 Peer observation

Blase and Blase (2009), supported DuFour (2002) and Lashway (2000) by stating that effective heads of schools encourage collaborative and teamwork, and actively share peer observation. Peer observation is practiced when teachers observe each other through demonstration lessons. It is during these lessons that fellow members write down their observations and later share them in a friendly manner (Planta, & Hamre, 2009). Peer observation is closely related to clinical supervision because it follows similar observation cycles as those in clinical supervision (Van Keer & Verhaeghe, 2005). According to Seldin (2011), peer observation is carried out by first holding a pre-observation conference where guidelines on the teaching plan are given. These include the teaching goals of the lesson to be observed, objectives of the lesson and the means of assessment to be adopted in the observation. Then, the actual observation is carried out by members where observation instruments such as check lists and rating scales are used. Finally, a post observation conference is held where the results are reviewed and constructive feedback is given to members (Seldin, 2011).

A number of studies have been carried out on the effect of peer observation as a means of appraising teachers on their execution of instruction to students. Vacilotto and Cummings (2007) observed that peer observation enabled teachers in the process to exchange teaching approaches and materials resulting in the improvement of teaching skills and also a re-think of teaching methods and styles. Hammersley-Fletcher and Ormond (2004) in support of the need to carry out peer observations in schools confirmed that peer observation if followed properly could enhance proper teaching approaches among teachers, as a result benefit students. This study will investigate how teachers in schools under study are benefiting from peer supervision carried out in the schools.
2.3.2.3 Clinical supervision

The other practice followed in classroom observation is through class visits carried out by the head. This involves the head observing teachers during class and then making observations as a feedback (Lloyd, 2006). At times, the head may not write any report but just visit and observe what is happening in the classroom. Feedback on such observations can be discussed informally in various meetings held in the school or during informal discussions between the head and the supervisee (Cogan, 1973; Graven, 2004). The supervisory approach that should be followed in class visits should be a departure from the traditional top-down or autocratic approach which generally portrayed the head as an expert and superior and the teacher as deficient and voiceless (Reitzug in Mathews and Crow, 2007). Therefore, a more collegial and participatory approach where the supervisor and the supervisee are both included from planning of lesson development up to the teaching and evaluation of lesson delivery was recommended by Goldhammer (1993).

According to Cogan (1973) and Tepe and Vanhuysse (2009), the head should present to the teacher the comments and observations made in the classroom in a way that motivates the teacher. This approach enhances the teachers' ability to be freely reflective on steps followed in the lesson. The head should also encourage the teacher to understand a self evaluation exercise in order to identify strengths and weaknesses (Speer, 2005). The last approach is praise, where the head takes advantage of the strengths observed in the lesson and uses them to reinforce innovative techniques followed in a lesson. Praise motivates subordinates to create innovative approaches in teaching (Ellingsen & Johannesson, 2007).

The talking and teaching approach described above is also endorsed by Goldhammer (1993) in clinical supervision. He recommended the need for heads to follow supervisory stages where feedback is vital. Feedback is an important aspect of supervision because it enables the supervisees or teachers to reflect on their pedagogic skills and teaching strategies used during the teaching process. Feedback also enables the individual to improve handling and delivery of lessons. It is also a learning process for both the head and the teacher as they share views and also enable the head to understand why the teacher acted in a particular way (Gates, 2006). Clinical supervision is discussed in detail below.
According to Pajak (2003), clinical supervision is reflected through supervisor–supervisee planning; preparation; presentation and evaluation of the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Among the profounders of clinical supervision, Goldhammer, 1993, Cogan, 1973 and Pajak, 2003 emphasised that before any clinical supervision is carried out in schools, the participants, in this case the teachers, must be taught about clinical supervision first so that they are familiar with what it entails. The supervisory practices of clinical supervision are classified into three categories or phases which include the pre-observation phase, observation and post observation phase (Goldhammer, 1993; Cogan, 1973; Pajak, 2003). The phases are discussed below.

The pre-observation phase emphasises that before any supervisory action is undertaken by the supervisor, there is need for the supervisor and the supervisee to establish colleagueship by calling for a combined conference. Details of the intention to carry out clinical supervision are discussed in the conference and agreement is reached on how the lesson will progress are detailed (Zohar & Dori, 2003). The teaching methods or strategies and the materials or media to be used in the lesson are as well agreed upon during this phase (Pajak, 2003).

Phase 2 is the observation phase which is a follow up to phase one. It includes the detailing of the lesson progression by the supervisor. The supervisor should be capable of making accurate but detailed account of the proceedings weighing them against the prior agreed stages between the supervisor and the supervisee (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1993 and Jonson, 2002).

Phase 3 is the post observation phase that normally marks the end of the supervisory cycle. It focuses on feedback and highlights areas of strengths and those omissions that call for corrective measures to be instituted. The feedback, as stated by Rhodes et al. (2004) should be given to the subordinates as soon as possible so that ideas in the lesson development are discussed promptly in order to avoid misrepresentation of facts. In this phase, the feedback on the lesson development is carried out in a neutral venue where the atmosphere is friendly and collegial (Sergiovanne & Starrat, 1993). Clinical supervision acts as a reflective
mirror on the efforts of the teacher in the teaching progression. It enables modification of the instructional processes followed in the lesson development depending on the agreed observations between the supervisor and the supervisee (Cogan, 1973; Jonson, 2002).

It is not clear whether and how clinical supervision is carried out in Zimbabwean secondary schools and in rural schools in particular. There have been mixed views on how it is conducted in schools in Zimbabwe (Mukeredzi & Ndamba, 2005). Therefore, this study seeks to establish whether heads of schools under study conduct clinical supervision and how they practise it.

Accordingly, it was observed that heads who had provided resources for their teachers, assessed them and designed supportive approaches to their teaching after class visits, witnessed changes in the teachers’ instructional approach and also noted corresponding improvement on students’ learning results (Goslin, 2009).

In support of the above findings, it is confirmed that supervision of the teaching and learning of students is one of the most important roles of heads since it leads to school effectiveness and improved student performance (MoSEC, 1993). In addition to class visits, heads of schools are also expected to carry out book inspection on all teachers in the school. Reports on sampled exercise books are discussed first with the teacher before a final report is made. The comments focus on the quantity and quality of work administered to students by the teacher including the tests which should follow a systematic schedule at the end of any given unit, a set of given units, a term, and a year or course duration (MoESC, 1993:21).

2.3.2.4 **Monitoring student progress and sharing findings**

Heads of schools can impact on student performance hence the need to monitor closely all activities in the school (Liethwood, Louis, Anderson & Wahlstrom, 2004). A visible presence of the head in the school through carrying out class visits, attending to departmental meetings, and other matters focusing on instructional issues would facilitate the provision of quality instruction (Ovando & Ramirez Jr, 2007). Such an approach would result in the improvement of learner performance.
Heads of schools employ various methods to monitor to ensure that quality education is rendered to students. Heads of schools are under instruction from the Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture (2001) that they are expected, for example, to ensure that every teacher holds at least 3 meetings per term and carries out 3 lesson observations and book inspection per year (MoESAC, 1993).

In addition to supervisory practices discussed above, heads of schools need to make sure that teachers are always in the classroom and teaching. Whilst class visits and book inspection are part of checking and monitoring how subordinates carry out their duties, it is necessary to also check on their presence in the classroom. Various methods can be followed by heads of schools to ensure that teachers are always present in the classroom and teaching.

One way of doing so is the ‘check-in-check-out’ register where all teachers log in as they report for duty and when they leave (Moses, 1998). Heads of schools can also follow the Management by Walking Around (MBWA). It has been observed that most heads of schools are turning to (MBWA) as an alternative way of reducing the burgeoning duties they carry out as instructional leaders (Brooks, Solloway & Allen, 2007).

The main reason for carrying out walkthroughs is given by Hoy and Hoy (2006) who are of the opinion that the achievement of students in the school is dependent on what exactly takes place in the classroom. The walkthrough model of supervision is performed more frequently; the supervisor or observer takes advantage of the actual practices taking place in the lesson and snapshot observations are recorded (Downey, Steffy, English, Frase & Poston, 2004). This will enable appropriate feedback to the teachers.

The emphasis on the need for heads to be given to carry out walkthroughs in schools to increase their observations on subordinates is because this method takes less time. Downey et al. (2004) stated that MBWA can take different times that include time record of seven-minute observational record, eleven minute evaluation record, or three-minute classroom walkthrough (TMW). This practice does not disrupt the activities in the school since it has a power free facilitation of learning.
The (TMW) is carried out in five observational stages as put across by Downey (2004:4). The supervisor, in this case, would be collecting information on curriculum taught and decisions made in the process of lesson development. The first step is when the head or supervisor establishes whether students are actively involved in the lesson or not. In step 2, the supervisor is expected to devote 2 to 3 minutes to detect the curriculum objectives being taught and whether they conform to what is prescribed in the subject syllabus. In step 3, the supervisor is expected to detect the context or ‘mode of student response’ and Bloom’s cognitive Taxonomy. This enables the supervisors to identify a variety of teaching practices followed by the teacher, such as questioning skills and pupil-pupil interaction (Downey, 2004).

Step 4 involves ‘walking the walls’ when the supervisor inspects student portfolios, graded papers and other information reflective of previous work done by students. In step 5, the supervisor makes random visits to classrooms taking note of breakages, health and safety issues with the view of recommending corrective measures (Downey, 2004).

Brooks, Solloway and Allen (2007) stated that the “Three-Minute Walk-Through” ushers opportunities for teacher’s professional growth through continuous reflective practices. If followed by heads of schools, this model could assist heads a great deal since it would enable them to increase their presence in the classroom monitoring teachers’ performances. Such presence as alluded to by Hoy and Hoy (2005) is influential in the improvement of student performance. The questions one is most likely to ask could be: Are heads of schools always present in schools to check whether teachers are actively teaching? If so, are they following the TMW and making records as recommended above? Answers to the above questions would be availed when heads under study are given check list forms to record how they made sure that teachers were always teaching when they were time tabled to do so.

2.3.2.5 Teaching responsibilities of school heads

Critical in any change process is the leader’s ability to plan for results rather than pray for them (Kotter 1995). It is interesting to note that in some cases, heads of
schools make announcements to teachers on reforms that need to be implemented and what is expected from the teachers without adequate explanations, consultations or participation of the teachers. Therefore, heads of schools are expected to work on frameworks that reflect workable realistic reforms that will be supported by the teachers and with their support (Marzano et al., 2005).

One way of ensuring that heads’ efforts are supported by teachers would be for the heads to always lead by example so that teachers follow suit. Heads of schools should be directly involved in the actual teaching in the classroom so that they demonstrate effective teaching practices to other subordinates. Literature supports the involvement of heads in actual classroom teaching as confirmed by Pham (1997) in her research in South Africa. The research revealed that heads that had closer teaching contact with students were attuned to the students and teachers problems and were able to find appropriate solutions to problems experienced.

Demonstration lessons could be as well organised in schools where the head plan lessons with subordinates and teach, thus taking advantage of clinical supervisory practices discussed above. However, as a way of involving heads of schools in classroom teaching, the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture in Zimbabwe (2006) instructed all heads of schools to teach time-tabled lessons in addition to their routine management and other instructional roles. This was after authorities in the Ministry found out that heads of schools were generally concentrating more effort on administrative routines as opposed to their professional duties which included teaching (MoESC, 2006). This study aimed at finding out whether the above directive was being followed in schools under investigation.

The Ministry of Education emphasised that heads ought to balance their instructional leadership roles so that teaching is included with other routine management duties. However, it was interesting to note that the only available information from the Ministry was the detailed teaching periods that were supposed to be carried out by the heads, detailed in the director’s Circular 15 of 2006 (MoESC). The directive for heads to teach time tabled lessons was on paper without elaboration or induction on how they were to balance teaching and other roles. This triggered the need to find out how heads of schools from the selected secondary schools were performing
instructional leadership duties in view of the directive from the MoESC cited in the circular above.

International standards confirm that the average time that ordinary teachers spend on teaching should involve a minimum instructional time of 850 to 1000 hours per year (UNESCO, 2004:230). However, according to Chisholm et al. (2005), South African standards are prescribed as follows: The principal (head) is expected to teach 85 to 100 hours per year and the deputy or head, 510-600 hours; HODs’ and educators are to teach 722.5-850 hours per year. The above stipulations were supposed to guide heads, deputy or heads, HODs and teachers in their execution of duty. However, the findings by Chisholm et al. (2005) revealed that educators and heads experienced multiple complexities in their effort to meet the above teaching times due to changing teaching and learning requirements. The results of the findings concluded that there was an existing gap between policy and what was happening on the ground to meet the prescribed times set by authorities.

The findings established that overall, heads of schools spent less time on their activities and on actual teaching or instruction as stipulated in the policy document. Vast discrepancies were unearthed by Chisholm et al. (2005) who revealed that in South Africa, heads spent 14%, 13% and 10% of the stipulated time on instructional practice (Chisholm et al. 2005). The results from the findings further revealed a serious erosion of the teaching time that is supposed to be accorded to the students in order to have effective teaching and learning in schools. The observations by Chisholm et al. (2005) have interesting implications on the current study which sought to find out how heads of secondary schools in Zimbabwe performed their roles as instructional leaders.

Consequently, Pham (1997) conducted research in South Africa to determine heads’ views in carrying out teaching responsibilities in addition to other instructional leadership roles performed in secondary schools. The findings revealed that the heads of schools under study were positive on the need for them to teach, thereby confirming that if they taught they were able to detect problems faced by teachers and students. This enabled the heads to find solutions on problems they experienced as classroom practitioners. It is
essential to find out how the heads under study evaluated their input on teaching responsibilities and other instructional leadership roles carried out in the school.

In Zimbabwe, a different scenario prevails regarding how heads’ load is calculated because the head’s teaching load is attached to the size of the school as reflected in the enrolment of the school (MoESC, 1996). Whilst the above increases the responsibilities of heads in schools with more children, the ability of heads to balance the execution of duty in management and instructional roles, inclusive of teaching, calls for further investigation in order to establish how they perform instructional leadership duties in view of the various roles they carry out.

2.3.3 Promoting school learning climate

2.3.3.1 Encouraging collaborative planning process within the institution

Collaboration is defined by Robin (2002:17), as “a purposeful relationship in which all parties strategically choose to cooperate in order to accomplish a shared outcome.” In a school situation, collaboration is evidenced when heads of schools liaise with key individuals in the school. This is evident when creating or revising curriculum due to policy or curriculum changes, or when introducing new subjects in the school (Jansen, 2004). The key players in the school include subject teachers, HODs, and the school management team which include the head.

Collaboration can also be exercised when the head of the school accommodates teachers in making decisions through voting in committees so that decisions made in the school are not from the head only (Glanz, 2006). Heads of schools who implement collaborative approaches in their schools are reported to be capable of building trust and rapport with their subordinates (Honig, 2009). Where good relationships exist, a conducive environment exists in the school which is necessary for the instructional leadership roles to be performed effectively (Duke, 2004; Rubin, 2002 in Glanz, 2006).
Robbins and Alvy (2003) assert that whilst effective heads create collegiality and collaboration in the schools, collaboration is not an event but a process which might take a long time before results or outcomes are realised. As a result, proper planning by both the head and teachers is essential if cooperation through collaboration is to result in positive outcomes. When collaboration is evident in the school, Robbins and Alvy (2003) believe that heads of schools could take advantage of the environment created and then encourage teachers to embark on collaborative research. For example, teachers could come together and carry out collaborative action research on various topics related to the teaching and learning (Kapur & Kinzer, 2007). However, for the research to be successful there is need for the head and teachers to plan together on how the research would be conducted. Heads of schools as instructional leaders could perform their roles effectively if they follow existing collaborative approaches. Team building, which is closely related to collaboration, is discussed below.

2.3.3.2 Encouraging team work

Team work can be defined as a means of learning in groups in order to enhance and improve the learning of the members of the school community (Glanz, 2006). A team could be likened to a group of talented individuals who work together for a common goal under the guidance of a manager (Lazear & Shaw, 2007). In a school situation, teamwork would refer to gifted teachers from different departments working together as a community under the guidance of the head of department who is also supervised by the head of the school. Glanz (2006) acknowledged that a well planned and focused team in the school is likely to realise best results or outcomes. Such teams might be formed by different departments in the school. For example, the technical department forming a team focusing on how best they can improve the teaching of practical subjects in the school. Examples of team work can be evident when teachers plan lessons together, when carrying out demonstration lessons and when carrying out continuous teacher development activities within the school (on-site) or outside the school (off-site) (Brouwer & Korthagen, 2005). It is through team work that many talents would be collectively tapped for the benefit of the school. Where there is such teamwork, heads of schools would have adequate time to focus on teaching and carrying other instructional leadership.
Biech (2001) identified ten characteristics of teamwork which could be followed by heads of schools as they perform instructional leadership roles in schools, seven of which are regarded as most important. These can be *summarised* as clear and defined goals, open and clear communication, effective decision making, balanced communication, valued diversity and conflict management.

Collaborative planning and teamwork can also be practiced by heads of schools through distributing duties to other members of the school community so that the head can carry out other instructional leadership duties in the school. Therefore, it is essential to discuss how heads of schools distribute roles to subordinates.

Hallinger (2002) defined distributed leadership as leadership that is dispersed as opposed to short form delegated responsibilities. However, Davies (2005:165) defined distributed leadership as "... sources of guidance and direction, following the contours of expertise in an organisation, made coherent through a common culture.” The fact that distributed leadership follows the ‘contours of expertise’ suggests that those who carry out the duties entrusted to them by the head ought to be experts in the areas they execute the duties. This implies that heads of schools are ‘learning leaders’ since they cannot lead knowledgeable subordinates whilst they remain idle (DuFour, 2002). In a way it is argued that the distributed leadership model encourages development amongst leaders. The head and all the staff ought to be exposed to continuous development to update their instructional skills.

Distributed leadership is viewed as a form of collective agency in cooperating the activities of many individuals who work at mobilising and guiding other teachers in the process of instructional change (Spillane *et al.* 2001). Distributed leadership is viewed as the ‘glue’ that is responsible for bonding tasks so that there is improved instruction in schools (Elmore, 2000). The attachment of the model to school goals further emphasises the main focus of the model, that is, need to attain organisational achievements through realising set targets in the school.

It is generally agreed that distributed leadership is capable of facilitating a learning environment that is capable of enhancing student performance in schools (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2006; Liethwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlsttom, 2004). Studies
have also confirmed that leadership that is shared among stakeholders as advocated by the distributed leadership model normally results in student and school improvement (Harris, 2003; Marks & Printy, 2003). Therefore, distributed leadership is viewed as one of the models that secondary school heads could adopt in their quest to perform instructional leadership roles in order to improve student performance.

Distributed leadership implies the ability to relinquish one’s role as ultimate decision maker and trusting others to make the right decisions (MacBeath, 2003). Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001) are in support of the fact that when an activity is distributed or “stretched over” to many people, it enhances the understanding of balanced leadership in schools by teachers.

In support of the need to carry out distributed leadership in schools as a way of shading off some of the school heads’ workloads, a number of scholars, who include Heller and Firestone (1995), revealed that the heads’ functions could be easily distributed to other members in the school. This implies interdependence, embracing how leaders of various kinds and in various roles could be able to share responsibilities with others in the organisation (Davies, 2005). The researcher is in agreement with Heller and Firestone since heads of schools can appoint talented individuals within the school to carry out some of the head’s responsibilities such as class visits, book inspection, and financial management. This would help the head to focus on other pressing roles in the school like teaching, lesson demonstration and report writing. Authorities cited above seem to be encouraging the need for collaboration, teamwork and sharing of leadership roles in schools so that there is proper coordination of activities resulting in improved performance of students. Therefore, it is necessary to find out how schools under study worked in view of the above observations.

2.3.3.3 Support of teacher autonomy, and shared decision making

Teachers can operate independently in schools when they are empowered by heads of schools to develop their own teaching strategies in order to improve students’ learning (Freeman, 1998). Shizuoka in Freeman (1998) defined autonomy as an
ongoing process of inquiry into possible means of promoting autonomous learning for students. In other words, autonomy could be explained as a way of distributing or empowering teachers to assume greater responsibility in interpreting teaching and learning ideas with other members of the school community.

In the same vein, Kareen, Bing, Jusoff, Awang and Yunus (2011) observe that teachers may assume very influential roles if they are actively involved in the decision making process in the school. This could be made possible by the head of school empowering teachers with more decision making authority in the school. However, Carrol in Freeman (1998) supports the need for heads of schools to facilitate autonomy in schools. She explains that an autonomous teacher operates independently from the traditional approach and focuses on the need to provide new answers to new problems in teaching and learning (Ashwell in Freeman, 1998).
2.3.3.4 Teachers’ leadership roles

The school head is not a specialist in all areas of school life, hence the need for the head to scout for talent among the subordinates and allow such individuals to assist in running school activities. For example, most heads of schools in Zimbabwe are not specialist in finance or in areas where they did not specialise in during training. In such situations, it is necessary for heads of schools to appoint a competent teacher in the school to carry out such roles. In support of the need to distribute leadership to subordinates, Burnside and Barlow (2009) pointed out that heads of schools cannot lead schools alone since they have many roles to accomplish in the school. Therefore, such roles could be overwhelming such that heads of schools may fail to distribute their effort in all activities hence the need to allow teachers to operate as ‘teacher leaders’.

When teachers operate as leaders, it is necessary for them to be knowledgeable about leadership so that they relate well to leadership expectations and, hence contribute positively to the teaching and learning of students (Sergiovanne, 2000). Thus, teachers as leaders ought to create an enabling supportive learning environment that focuses on the outcomes or results at the end of the school cycle. Harrison and Killian (2007) identified ten several roles that could be followed by teacher leaders in an effort to steer success in school leadership. However, six of the ten roles viewed as most important are discussed to illustrate how teachers as leaders could be used by heads of schools as a way of distributing roles to subordinates.

- **Resource Provider**: Teachers could help colleagues by sharing instructional resources such as websites, instructional materials (teaching aids), readings and many more other resources that could be used as teaching aids when teaching (Harrison & Killian, 2007).

- **Instructional Specialist**: The role of the teacher leader as instructional specialist is manifested when the teacher assist colleagues with better teaching approaches or strategies (Marzano, Pickering & Pollock, 2001). This is possible when newly appointed teachers are assisted by exposing them to
alternative teaching and learning methodologies that best assist students to understand matters taught.

- **Classroom Supporter**: The teacher leader assists fellow teachers in implementing new ideas through carrying out demonstration lessons, co-teaching and giving feedback (Harrison & Killion, 2007). However, Blase and Blase (2006: 6) stated that “six (6) classroom support enhances teachers’ self-efficacy, teachers’ believe on their own abilities and capacity to successfully solve teaching and learning problems, as they reflected on practice and grew together and it also encouraged a bias for action (improvement through collaboration) on the part of teachers”.

- **Learning Facilitator**: The teacher as a leader ought to act as a link in facilitating professional learning amongst peers so that other teachers can benefit or learn from one another (Harrison & Killian, 2007). It is believed that such an approach would enable members of the school community to work together for a common purpose.

- **School Leader**: A teacher as a school leader is evident when the teacher has a distributed leadership responsibility in the school, for example, as a committee member, departmental chairperson etc. This is when the teacher as a leader aligns professional goals of the school and the district with what one believes in and works towards the success of the school activities (Harrison & Killian, 2007).

- **The Teacher as a Learner**: One of the most important roles of the teacher as a leader is that of the teacher as a learner. According to Harrison & Killian (2007), teacher learners strive to realise continual improvement, demonstrate lifelong learning and uses what they learn to enhance student performance through sharing their experiences with other teachers in the school.

Therefore, the above are some of the actions that can be taken by teacher leaders in their effort to make autonomous decisions in schools (Kareen et. al., 2011). School leadership, in this case the head, ought to trust and be supportive of the teacher
leader’s effort to implement the above chores so that the duties are carried out effectively (Zebeda et. al., 2003). Teacher leaders may need assistance from the head, for example, in the provision of teaching materials and finance to conduct CPD programme workshops on-site or off-site.

A study conducted by Cliff (1995) in the United States elementary and secondary schools, assessed the responsibilities of preparing students for citizenship, and confirmed that in order for this to succeed, it must involve many people and multiple forms of leadership and not one head or superintendent. Spillane (2005) supported the above by revealing that in a school situation, heads do not single-handedly lead schools to greatness, but through an array of individuals with various tools and structures.

Gibb in Hallinger (2000), reinforced the need to carry out distributed leadership by stating that leadership is probably best conceived as a group quality, or as an activity that is carried out collectively by the group members of the organisation. Sergovanni (2001) referred to distributed leadership as the notion of a community of leaders with a common course. Sometimes the head could find it difficult to delegate because of accountability, if anything goes wrong it is the head that is put to task. As a result, some heads find it difficult to relinquish their power. On the other hand, it is common knowledge that some heads might cling to most of the roles for fear of losing their position especially in a situation where subordinates are more educated than the leader (Torrington & Weightman, 2007).

Nonetheless, danger may be experienced when group members lead in the spirit of sharing leadership and take leaders captive where the latter may find it difficult to move in the same direction. As a result, heads are expected to exercise caution when they distribute leadership to subordinates in order to avoid possible manipulation by subordinates (Terry & Appelbaum, 1988).

The need for autonomous approach to the education system has been necessitated by changes experienced within the education sector. Such changes on roles performed by heads have been confirmed by Botha (2000) and Steyn (2002) who acknowledged that heads of schools should be viewed as ‘learning experts’ since
they are supposed to possess expert knowledge which was not emphasised in the past. Such knowledge enables heads of schools to understand contemporary theories of learning and be able to *utilise* such knowledge (Terry, 1988). When heads are knowledgeable, they will be able to understand key educational issues and downplay inappropriate educational dimensions. The idea of empowering teachers as elaborated above is of paramount importance since teachers end up being self motivated and perform their duties effectively. So, it is necessary to find out how heads of schools under study accommodated other teachers in the day to day activities of the school.

### 2.3.3.5 Distributed leadership as human capacity building

Maywetoz (2004) believes that distributed leadership promotes having multiple leadership approaches which enables different individuals to learn more about themselves and issues facing the school; as a result, the school will be in a position to resolve its shortcomings. A research carried out in the United Kingdom on how heads carried their duties revealed that in schools where leadership was distributed, there were ongoing school improvements (Harris, 2004). Student outcomes are normally successful where leadership in the school is shared or distributed amongst members of the community and where members would be free to make decisions in areas they view as important and need their input (Silns and Mulford, 2002).

Distributed leadership ensures that there is a shared understanding of leadership through consultation, command and consensus in order to facilitate shared understanding amongst the staff members. Consultation is when heads of schools listen to others but hold the right to decide. However, decision making by consensus distributes that right to others but it can also *paralyse* leadership, hence heads as instructional leaders should accommodate consensus with caution (Schuman, 2005).

In as much as distributed leadership focus on the shared approach of leadership, there are also shortcomings that can be experienced when it applies to schools. Johnson (2004) argued that distributed leadership is an antidote to slick-top-down approach in schools. In other words, efforts to follow distributed leadership in schools could result in some heads of schools coercing subordinates so that they
carry out roles without their consent. This can adversely affect the intended positive outcomes.

Johnson (2004) further elaborated on the adverse effects that could be experienced distributed leadership. He argued that distributed leadership could be viewed as a micro political strategy which can be used by heads or principals to reform projects to disperse authority to teachers and administrators. Some researchers believe that democracy among adults in schools through participation in decision making requires greater participation of teachers. This may lead to negative results for the school and teachers, since teachers may end up being over stressed by their involvement in numerous and long decision making forum (Johnson, 2004).

Benefits of distributed leadership do not necessarily accrue to better teaching practice, especially where organisational goals are not well aligned to leadership (Conway & Calzi, 1996; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Kellerman in Early and Weindling (2004) in support of the above indicated that all leaders or all people engaged in leadership activities are not necessarily good leaders. Distributed leadership is a risky business and may result in the distribution of incompetence (Timperley, 2005). This is an important observation which heads as instructional leaders may wish to consider as they attempt to implement distributed leadership as a way of enhancing effectiveness in schools and also a means of improving student performance. Despite the above shortcomings of the model, the latter is supportive of the efforts by instructional leadership model to enhance the teaching and learning of students.

The inclusiveness of all members of the school community in taking part in realising school objectives through delegation of duty and distributing roles to other subordinates in the school is viewed as a positive dimension. Therefore, this study considered the positive and negative aspects of the model to find out the situation obtaining in the schools under investigation. Another way in which school heads as instructional leaders can support teacher autonomy and develop school learning climate is through what Hoy and Miskel (2005) referred to as shared decision making model or Putting It Together (PIT).
2.3.3.6 Miskel's shared decision making model: Putting It Together (PIT)

The main concept of the PIT model is the establishment of the key zone of acceptance from subordinates (Bannard, 1938 & Simon, 1947 in Hoy & Miskel, 2005). There are certain simple decisions that are readily accepted by subordinates which can be found out by the head through asking two questions posed by Hoy and Miskel (2005), namely:

(i) Do subordinates have a personal stake in the outcome and can subordinates contribute expertise to the solution?

Hoy and Miskel (2005) are of the opinion that if the answer to the two questions above is yes, then the subordinate has both a personal stake in the outcome and expertise. In this case, subordinates will be interested in being involved in decision making and it is most likely that their engagement will improve the decision.

The second question asked in an effort to test subordinates' commitment to the interest of the organisation is:

(ii) Can subordinates be trusted to make a decision in the best interest of the organisation?

Hoy & Miskel (2005) postulate that if members of the school community are committed, so their involvement is expected to be extensive since members will attempt to come up with the best decisions. In this case, the role of the head of school is to act as an integrator (if there is consensus), or as a parliamentarian (if a group majority is sufficient) (Hoy and Miskel, 2005).

In the same vein, the proponents of the model propound that if subordinates have a personal stake in the decision without expertise, the involvement of such members in decision making would be occasional and limited. The leader's duty in this case would be to educate participants. If subordinates have expertise but no personal stake (expert situation) the PIT model believes that their involvement in decision making would also be occasional and limited. Where workers have no personal stake on the outcomes, their enthusiasm quickly diminishes and they might grumble when consulted in making decisions.
However, the PIT model queries the rationality of involving individuals who do not participate in decision making. Why should somebody who is not interested in taking part in school activities be forced to do so? What will be the outcome of the output of such an individual if involved in making critical decisions in the school? Answers to the above questions would assist heads of schools to make informed decisions. However, the PIT model recommends that leaders should make direct unilateral decisions only when the subject discussed is within the zone of acceptance by subordinates (Hoy & Miskel, 2005).

The PIT model was adopted for this study in an attempt to uncover how heads of schools are accommodative of subordinates’ input when making various decisions in schools. If heads of schools are to cultivate collaboration and support from subordinates in schools as alluded under the instructional leadership model, distributed leadership and the PIT models highlighted above, then it would be necessary to allow teachers to actively participate in decision making on issues concerning the general running of school activities. The involvement of subordinates in decision making in the school cultivates an autonomous culture in the school where teachers pursue issues about teaching and learning in liaison with other members.

However, the observations made by the PIT model should guide heads of schools so that they allow members to participate in decision making. If teachers participate in decision making voluntarily and according to the expertise they hold, they end up being supportive and committed to realising school goals. Participation in decision making is related to successful implementation of educational innovations and the realisation of change in the school (Kruise & Louis, 1997; Rice and Schneider, 1994; Reinhart, Short, Short & Eckley, 1998; Sleegers in Hallinger, 2000). When teachers participate in decision making, there is positive impact on teachers’ commitment, motivation, and self development and this translates into improved teaching practices, school effectiveness as well as improved student performance (Jongmans et al., 1999; Smylie et al., 1996 in Hallinger, 2000).

The participation of teachers in decision making enables them to share their experience and input in the running of school activities. Such involvement assists
leadership in shading off its responsibilities and thus being able to concentrate on other particular chores such as teaching, supervision of teaching and learning of students. Heads of schools should ensure that the participation of such teachers in decision making is recognised in order to avoid a show down from teachers. However, caution has to be exercised in view of the limitations highlighted above.

In a research carried out by Rice and Schneider, (1994), it was discovered that when teachers realise that their participation is not influential, their level of involvement in school activities also declines. In addition, Smylie et al. (1996) found out that teaching practices might be affected adversely if decision making processes are not in conformity with the teachers’ desires and needs. As a result, this may contribute to teachers’ disengagement in realising the school’s set goals.

In a research carried in the United Kingdom in 2006 by the Department of Education on 3260 school leaders, the key findings confirmed that the success in the performance of students in schools was attributed to leaders who shared decision making with subordinates (Gamage et al., 2009). A similar research was carried out by Robertson and Miller (2007) in New Zealand on how partnership worked amongst students, teachers, parents and school leadership. The results revealed that there was an excellent response to improve the teaching and learning process through the involvement of the parents and community in assisting students during the teaching and learning process.

Similar observations were made in the UK by Harris (2004) who carried out a research on 12 schools and concluded that shared decision making and distributed leadership had contributed significantly to the sustenance of improvement in the schools under study. The above revelations confirm that in a school environment where the school community actively participates in school programmes, there is a positive impact on students’ performance.

Teachers also need to be empowered and supported in their effort to make meaningful contributions to their school work. Heaton in Steyn (2000) asserted that empowerment is the ability to respect individuals and the latter preparedness to be trained. Teachers could be empowered through various ways depending on the
creativity of the head of the school. For example, the head can ensure that the structures in the school management involve all staff members such as HODs and ordinary teachers as acting subject heads (Kruger, 2003). This would allow teamwork, collaboration and freedom of expression from teachers, thus facilitating the attainment of school goals (Kruger, 2003). It is during such meetings that teachers can contribute their ideas and their expectations on curriculum, teaching approaches and other pertinent issues on challenges encountered in their daily teaching.

Kumar and Scuderi (2002) observe that participation of teachers in decision making exposes them to active involvement and gives them autonomy in the general management of school activities. In such a case, teachers become motivated in carrying out their school activities. A school with effective decision makers will always strive to realise set organisational goals and objectives and this would result in effective schools management and improved student performance (Kumar & Scuderi, 2002). This study will examine the performance of participant school heads regarding the aspects discussed above.

2.3.4 Provision of continuous teacher professional development opportunities

In order for heads and teachers to adjust to the new demands of their changing roles and also to counter institutional challenges, it is necessary for them to be exposed to effective continuous teacher professional development programmes. Continuous teacher professional development for both heads and teachers need to be ongoing in order to enable them to access learning opportunities that are available (Research Center, 2004).

Salazar (2007) believed that increased emphasis on standard–based school accountability requires heads of schools and teachers to be professionally developed so that they are capable of resolving challenges of improving student performance. Hale and Moorman (2003) observed that if school reform activities are to be successful, strong leadership must prevail. This means that the heads’ managing schools, inclusive of the teachers, need to have requisite skills and experience which can be tapped through exposure in systematic update of knowledge.
The need to focus on the heads of schools in continuous emphasis on school reform and accountability was echoed also by the Institute for Educational Leadership (2004). The latter revealed that present day heads and teachers require opportunities to deepen their knowledge and understanding of the instructional leadership behaviour that enhance school improvement and student performance. It is through such exposure of teachers and leaders to various training opportunities that they become more knowledgeable and qualified to facilitate continuous improvement in schools as instructional leaders.

However, in support of the need to expose heads of schools and teachers to continuous professional development, Elmore (2002) also argued that most heads inclusive of teachers in various schools do not possess the necessary knowledge and skills to adequately implement reforms in education. Hence, it is necessary for both heads and teachers to undergo continuous in service training through attending staff development programmes in order to enhance their professional effectiveness. According to Blase and Blase (2002), one of the strategies that could be used by heads of schools to meet some of the challenges highlighted above was through emphasising the study of teaching and learning. The same authors asserted that effective heads of schools should arrange learning opportunities for the school community by also encouraging teacher input.

2.3.4.1 Staff development

The need to carryout staff development programmes in schools is important. It is through staff development programmes that individuals are exposed to the ever changing global technology and cultural diversity in society especially in the education sector. The continuing professional development (CPD) of both heads and teachers has since been viewed as one of the most important areas of reform to be implemented in schools since the 1980s (Ding, 2001). The focus on CPD has been prompted by the fact that teaching is a highly specialised profession where teachers are now exposed to ever changing teaching approaches that demand higher-order thinking, cognition and constructivist techniques in teaching and learning (Cobbold, 2011).
According to Blase and Blase (2004:53) “...heads frequently provided formal CPD opportunities to address emergent instructional needs, and doing so had a powerful effect on the teacher.” The powerful effect referred to include the effectiveness and confidence built among teachers through understanding new concepts and applying them when actual teaching in the classroom. When teachers are confident and acquire new knowledge through continuous upgrading, heads of schools also end up performing instructional leadership roles effectively since they will be leading well informed subordinates. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to win confidence of their students and be acknowledged as professionals through their commitment to CPD activities (Cobbold, 2011).

Hence, all subordinates in the school are well acquainted with such changes through well planned programmes or in-service training which should be run by well trained and dedicated individuals from within or outside the education ministry. However, Barns and Csiric (1994) spelt out that innovative staff development is a strategy that should always be carried out in schools since it guarantees the quality and relevance of education in a changing world. Harvey (2004) defined staff development as programmes that are designed in the school to enhance the knowledge and skills of the school community so that they are updated with change. In other words, the definition reveals that there is need to have set activities in the schools that are intended to update the knowledge base and skills of both heads and teachers. This is implemented when an assessment has been carried out and the need for further renewal established within the school, district, and provincial or at national level. Bubb’s (2004) definition is similar to the one given above where staff development is viewed as any activity that would add to the skills, knowledge or understanding of academics and their efficiency and effectiveness in their various organisations.

Mc Alease (1979) and Zelinsky (2004), are of the opinion that staff development can be defined by considering the following aims as means to:

- Assist members of staff to prepare themselves for the ever changing duties of their responsibilities due to technological advancement. Members of staff should therefore view staff development as part and parcel of their school activity by being supportive and interested in the activities or programmes
held at school or outside school.

- Provide opportunities for teachers to equip themselves for career advancement. The skills acquired in staff development programmes are beneficial to members since they may end up being facilitators in various areas covered during staff development sessions.

- Enhance job satisfaction to enable members of staff to enjoy tasks they were not able to do. Members would always feel contented when they are capable of implementing new developments acquired during staff development activities.

The definitions seem to point to the need to combine the individuals' needs with those of the organisation in order to enhance effectiveness in organisations. In other words, staff development is encompassing since it connects workers and the organisational goals. As a result, staff development activities call for the collaboration of members when they plan and implement staff development activities which are aimed at improving the instructional skills of the school community. In the same vein, members are able to also facilitate various topics during CPD and this enhances cross pollination of ideas among teachers in the school.

2.3.4.2 Identification of needs analysis

Hansen (1991) defines needs as subjective perceptions of something useful for a purpose that a person or community is able to specify. He goes on to emphasise the need to carry out a need analysis before any staff development programme is carried out in any organisations. Such a move, according to the Centre for Distance Education (1994), would guide staff development implementers in identifying gaps amongst workers so that training solutions to instructional leader shortcomings are carried out. Emphasising the importance of identifying relevant CPD activities, Bredson (2003) and Muijs, Day, Harris and Lindsay (2004) advised that CPD should also be aware of, and address, specific needs of the teachers. Needs identification should be accompanied by proper teaching methodology where teachers are expected to confidently discharge appropriate teaching methods.
Needs analysis would assist in determining the introduction of in service education and training solutions for the entire school community. The analysis would also go a very long way in guiding heads of schools as they perform instructional leaders’ roles in schools.

2.3.4.3 The purpose of identifying staff development needs

According to the Centre for Distance Education: (1994:78-79), the following were outlined as justification in carrying out staff development needs in any institution or organisation:

- Build a realistic training programme. The areas to be included in staff development sessions ought to be identified by the members of the community so that the content addresses the needs of that particular community.

- Involve trainees to remove suspicion and promote cooperation. There is need for facilitators or heads of schools to involve subordinates in the identification of training topics so that they are cooperative in taking part in staff development programme in the school.

- Discover the gaps in staff knowledge, skills and attitudes. In the process of identifying staff development programmes, the school community identifies areas that require acquisition of new knowledge, skills and attitudes which are significant attributes for achieving positive results in the schools.

When the above staff development needs are identified in the school, it is necessary for heads of schools to focus on instructional improvement through exposing teachers to elements of effective in-service programmes. Glickman in Gamage et al. (2009:17) identified the following elements: “relevant” and “hands on activities”, which encompass staff development programmes aimed at solving the problems faced in the school which should be actively tackled by the teachers. Follow-up assistance which is realised when there is need to assess the level of responses to a certain reform undertaken in the school is carried out as a way of evaluating the
success of the innovation or programme carried out in the school. A peer observation is when teachers within the school carry out demonstration lessons and observe one another whilst teaching. Post observation analysis and conferencing are clinical supervisory phases followed when carrying out observations. After a lesson observation the supervisor is expected to carry out a post observation meeting or conference with the supervisee and discuss the development of the lesson as a means of giving feedback.

Recommending the need for heads to actively participate in staff development programmes held in schools, a research carried out by Bruce in Pauma Valley, California (Blase and Blase, 2004) asserted that teachers valued the efforts of staff development sessions when heads of schools also participated in such activities. This means that heads of schools ought to be present when staff development activities are carried out in schools so that subordinates see the importance of staff development through the active participation of heads.

The above have a strong implication on the implementation of staff development in schools. This is due to the fact that the latest development in education where heads and teachers require training in instructional leadership skills so that they are capable of implementing new reforms in schools. The new reforms are aimed at ensuring that schools operate effectively in addition to improving students’ performance.

Continuing teacher development programmes remain one of the most important aspects that secondary school heads ought to always focus on when performing their duties since they keep both heads and teachers well informed of the latest developments in education. As a result, when such updates on professional development are carried out in schools, heads of schools would be in a position to perform instructional leadership roles more effectively, thereby benefiting the entire school community. Knowing the current situation in schools under study on how they carried out staff development activities would assist to infer what could be happening in other schools so that corrective measures are carried out where necessary. Such findings would definitely have policy implications that might accelerate improved service delivery in schools.
2.3.4.4 Maintaining high visibility to enable continued guidance from the head of school as an instructional leader

The head’s presence in the school is necessary so that there is continuous monitoring of teachers teaching students as time tabled as discussed before. A study carried out in South Africa by Chisholm et al. (2005) on teacher workload found out that generally the teachers under study spent less time on their work related activities. Of concern was the fact that the teachers spent less time on actual teaching, for example, where they are expected to spend 64% to 79% of the 35 hours per week of their teaching time, they spent only 46%. Such finding calls for the need for the head of the school to be always present in the school and monitor school activities closely in order to ensure that teachers are in the classrooms and teaching. Whilst this approach could be viewed as autocratic and authoritarian, it also creates more work for the head since s/he might end up being all over the school monitoring the teachers. On the other hand, it might also motivate teachers by the fact that they can be assured that the head is always around and they can get assistance whenever they need it.

Teachers in Zimbabwe are expected to teach a minimum of 28 periods of between 30-40 minutes per period per week, depending on the circumstances prevailing in a particular school (MoESC 1993). However, it should be noted that in practical subjects, such as Technical Graphics, a teacher could be allocated a minimum of 28 periods and a maximum of 36 periods since such a teacher would be teaching half of the class in each period as recommended by the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture. However, it is the duty of the head of school to monitor all teachers in the school in order to ensure that teachers are present in the classroom teaching at all times in an effort to ensure that students are adequately taught. Where teachers are self driven and motivated to carry out their duties, heads of schools would have minimal challenges on failure by subordinates to execute their duty (Blase and Blase, 2000).

2.3.4.5 Recognition and celebration of student and staff achievements

Heads of schools, teachers and students who excel in their various learning and teaching activities ought to be awarded prizes in recognition of the good work achieved so that they remain motivated and focused on achieving school goals
(Cotton, 2003; Botha, 2004; Gamage et. al., 2009; Leithwood, 2009). In recognition of the need to motivate subordinates, authorities who include Gamage, et al. (2009) are in agreement that heads of schools as leaders can create school cultures and learning environment, and maintain good relationships aimed at motivating both teachers and students which lead to better teaching and learning situations. As a result, heads of schools should make sure that teachers are continuously motivated through creating conducive working environment. Blase and Blase (2000) reinforced the idea of motivating subordinates by revealing the need to give praise for effective teaching achieved by teachers in schools.

Over and above the stated roles and expectations from heads of schools as instructional leaders, the latter need to be teaching practitioners in engaging in actual contact with students-teaching time tabled lessons (Gamage, Adams, McCormack, 2009). In support of this view, Weindling (1990) advised that in a study carried out in the United Kingdom, head teachers as instructional leaders agreed that “the most important thing contributing to improved instructional leadership was the need for all heads to teach for an average of about 20% of their time per week”. This would enable them to keep abreast with current teaching practices in order to effectively guide other teachers accordingly. The above observations would assist in establishing how heads of schools reward their subordinates inclusive of the Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture.

2.3.4.6 Studies showing limitations encountered by lack of required school learning climate

The following studies are provided as examples to show the need for developing school learning to enable school heads perform their roles as instructional leaders. However, more examples were drawn from abroad since there has been limited research carried out on instructional leadership at local level.

The findings of all the studies below show that school heads either did not pay much attention to developing appropriate school learning environment or were not really well versed with what instructional leadership entailed.
Bell and Morrison (1998) in Murdock and Schiller (2002) conducted research on the dual role of the school head that had teaching responsibilities in secondary schools. It was found that the focus of the head was mainly in the classroom responsibilities. On the same issue, Evans (1998) and Jones (1999) discovered that heads were encountering many challenges in carrying out management, governance and educational leadership roles. It was found that heads of schools found it difficult to carry out instructional leadership roles whilst teaching at the same time. Workload and excessive stress levels were mentioned as major causes of concern in the findings. The findings could have very interesting implications on the current study which also focuses on the roles of heads as classroom practitioners.

In New Zealand, Wyie (1997) in Murdock and Schiller (2002) carried out a study which revealed that heads of schools faced workload challenges which were associated with stress levels and these impacted negatively on the personal and family life of heads of schools. Whilst the research was carried out in primary schools, the findings could also have similar effects on secondary school heads since their roles are similar. The implications of the study are that if heads of schools are subjected to too many responsibilities they may not perform their duties properly. Hence, it is necessary to find out how heads manage current workloads in the schools under study.

Lyall (1993) researched the impact of school based management initiatives in both primary and secondary schools in Australia. This study on school based management found out how instructional leadership roles are carried out by heads who are also expected to involve the school community in the running of school activities. This was done through collaborative efforts and teamwork initiated by the head of school. The study found out that heads were neither teaching nor carrying out instructional leadership roles but were mainly focusing on managerial roles. It is in view of the above observations that the study sought to establish the roles which heads of schools under study normally focused on as they carry out their daily duties.

Cross (1993) as reviewed by Murdock and Schiller (2002) carried out a survey on primary school heads in North South Wales to ascertain the levels of
occupational stress experienced by heads of schools. It was found that 89% of heads under study were moderately stressed or extremely stressed as a result of work load. The major stressors identified included the dual role of being a teacher and an administrator, emphasis on documentation, role overload, paper work and surveys from Regional Office, policy changes, interruptions during working day, and curriculum development. Since the above findings were carried out in a different country (North South Wales), and environment, it is necessary to uncover how heads of schools in Hurungwe Education District (Zimbabwe) cope with the roles they perform in schools.

Studies conducted in Zimbabwean primary schools by Makuvaro (1997) on the roles performed by heads indicated that heads failed to cope with the role of managing school activities and teaching at the same time. Whilst the study was carried out in primary schools, the observations made could also have implications on the experiences of heads in secondary schools. Hence, this research intended to establish if similar situations were prevalent in the area under study.

However, a similar study was carried out in Zimbabwe on ‘The Dilemma of Secondary School Heads’ by Mutopa et al. (2006) who found that where heads of schools concentrated on teaching, their management duties were neglected and vice versa. The findings revealed that heads of schools failed to balance their time on the respective roles they carried out. The study recommended that heads of secondary school should be non teaching, which is contrary to current supervisory recommendations that put emphasis on the need for heads to teach over and above other duties that they carried out. In the light of the above observations, it was therefore necessary to establish how heads of schools from the sample under study performed their duties as instructional leaders.

The above examples show that the way school heads performed their roles did not provide avenues for other members of school communities especially teachers to share in the performance of instructional leadership roles. Youngs and King, (2002) recommended that as a way of assisting heads in their performance of their duties,
internal structures and conditions that promote teacher learning be created. Such actions include establishing regular meeting times for teams of teachers to plan and reflect on their practices (peer assessment), aligning school goals, promoting social trust among staff members, practicing distributed leadership, ensuring teachers autonomy and shared decision making and so forth. All these aspects are related to the necessity of developing school learning climate. Studies have revealed that the way heads of schools carried out leadership roles affected student achievement through conditions created by the heads themselves. Hence, they are supposed to ensure that they develop appropriate school learning climate (Youngs & King, 2002; Cotton, 2003; Botha, 2004; Gamage; et. al., 2009; Leithwood, 2009). It is necessary to find out the type of climate existing in the schools under study and also how the schools relate to the above observations made in different environments.

2.4 FACTORS ENHANCING OR HINDERING PERFORMANCE OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY SCHOOL HEADS

There are a number of challenges that are encountered by heads of schools as they implement the instructional leadership roles. According to Valdez (2009:1), the following are some of the pitfalls that may hinder the implementation of instructional leadership in schools:

- Implementation problems arise where the institution fails to formulate or to have a shared vision or clear goals and objectives. In this case, shared vision refers to the need to involve the teaching community and stakeholders in formulating the vision and mission of the organisation so that the input from all stakeholders is accommodated. The failure to identify clear goals and objectives has the effect to undermine the achievement of organisational goals since the institutions will be unable to focus on areas that address the issues related to the organisation.

- Poor implementation plans fail to define tasks and responsibilities of the organisation in the school. Every organisation should have a blue print that guide the general operation of the organisation. In a school situation there is need to adopt a development plan outlining possible infrastructure plans and other projects in the school. For example, this could be a five year
developmental plan where blocks of classrooms would be built. Such a plan would be in line with the expectation of the head’s role in setting the vision and mission of the school.

- Failure by heads to communicate effectively with teachers and other stakeholders, such as parents and students. This would result in members not being supportive of the school’s plans due to failure by the head to update the stakeholder, for example, on the progress being made.

- Inadequate training of instructional leaders and teachers in handling instructional leadership roles. Both heads and teachers in schools need to be continuously trained in-order for them to carry out instructional leadership roles properly. Where such training is lacking, teachers and other instructional leaders may fail to execute their roles properly.

In addition to the factors identified above, a study carried out in various countries by Teaching and Learning International Survey TALIS (2008:1), revealed the following aspects that hinder performance of instructional leadership by school heads:

- *Lack of strong manageable instructional leader to shepherd the development of the whole school.* Tsukudu and Taylor 1995 in Bush and Oduro (2006) observed that on many occasions, head teachers are appointed to headship without any preparation before they take charge of their new roles. As a result, they mainly depend on previous experience and common sense when running school activities. Heads of schools are expected to be well knowledgeable on school activities so that they are able to direct school operations properly. Heads who rely mainly on experience and common sense are most likely to encounter numerous management challenges or even precipitate conflict in the school.

- *Disruptive student* behaviour. This is when students organise strikes in order to force authorities to accommodate student views. While this could be the only avenue where they have no space to express themselves, disruptive
behaviour is also manifested in the class where naughty students may team up to break school rules.

- **Administrative tasks where heads have several roles to play which include instructional leadership roles.** Heads of schools fail to carry out all their duties in the school due to having assumed too many duties. For example, heads may fail to teach due to the fact that they may be attending to parents or may be away on a school errand.

- **In some countries negative aspects emanated from teachers’ negative behaviour such as absenteeism or lack of adequate preparation of lessons.** The negative attitudes could result from disgruntled teachers due to poor remuneration and other unfavourable working conditions.

- **Lack of recognition and incentives for teachers to develop their teaching skills and improve their effectiveness.** Teachers need to be motivated so that they can also be satisfied to carry out their duties satisfactorily. They also need to be sent for professional teacher development to update their skills. Failure by heads to provide incentives and further development in curriculum and teaching methods may incapacitate them and this could result in poor teaching approaches which may adversely affect students’ performance. In an effort to carry out instructional leadership roles in schools heads encounter numerous challenges, it would be necessary to establish how heads in the current study neutralize or withstand the challenges.

### 2.5 SUPPORT PROVIDED BY SCHOOLS AND GOVERNMENT TO ENSURE SCHOOL HEADS PERFORM INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES

Despite the above short comings of instructional leadership, there are also means of enhancing instructional leadership which can be followed by heads of schools to avoid problems. Kruger (2003) emphasised that there is need for stakeholders in the school community to be actively involved in the development of visions, missions
and goals of the school so that there is a combined effort from all members of staff towards the realisation of school goals.

Valdez (2009) also recommended that heads of schools as leaders and stakeholders should carry out needs assessment that will assist in detecting the extent to which the organisation will be achieving set goals. This may also assist in the identification of appropriate teacher continuous development programmes in the school. In support of the need to enhance the knowledge of both teachers and heads, Cobbold and Dare (2011) recommended the need for stakeholders (which includes heads of schools and teachers) to collectively design and implement professional development plans that benefit the entire school community in order to enhance proper professional development.

Commenting on the need for continuity of heads of schools at the same school, as one possible strategy for dealing with some of the problems in schools, Murphy and Hausman (1992) revealed that heads who continuously serve at the same school lead to greater progress and success in school activities. This may be because the head is accustomed to the challenges faced by the school and hence able to develop counter interventions to combat the challenges.

However, the above argument could be challenged since there are a number of attributes that may adversely affect the focus of an organisation despite the presence of leader in a given institution for a long period. These include the prevailing climate in the organisation, the availability of resources and the ability of the head to lead which might not be relevant to the length of service in a given institution. Therefore, it is necessary to establish the challenges faced by schools and how the heads attempt to resolve them and remain focused on the aspects that enhance school effectiveness and student performance.

Another strategy which could be followed is whereby heads of schools encourage and support the redesign of programmes in the school (Blase & Blase, 2002). The head influences teachers to re-visit instructional programmes so that appropriate changes can be accommodated in the teaching and learning methods utilised by the
teachers in the school. This is shown in the following statement by an unknown author:

> And, remember that there is no such thing as a single-handed success. When you include acknowledge all those in your corner, you propel yourself, your teammates, your supporters to greater heights (author unknown).

The citation seems to inform heads of schools to involve the entire school community when carrying out duties in the school and the need for heads to realise and acknowledge the success of those with delegated responsibilities. Mind Tools (2011) gave two major reasons for delegating duties to subordinates; the first being that other people carrying out delegated duties may come up with new ideas or strategies that may facilitate the development of new ideas to solve organisational challenges. When some duties are delegated, the head may have more time to carry out other duties such as teaching, attending to parents and demonstrating lessons to various departments. The other reason is that delegations of duties to other subordinates by the leader enables those involved to acquire skills and also the ability to solve problems in the school. Similarly, confidence is enhanced among subordinates when they are asked to carry out duties outside their normal operational confines (Mind Tools, 2011).

As a guide to heads of schools when delegating duty to subordinates; Phillips (2009:1) recommended the need for delegation to be carried out in stages. “Firstly, the head should identify what has to be delegated to subordinates. In the identification process, the head should make sure that subordinates are entrusted with duties within their capabilities. The second stage involves clarification of the results needed from the task. The head ought to consider the time frame for completion of the task and then agree with the teacher on when feedback is expected. Clarity allows the teacher to also input on the ability to successfully carry out the delegated duty. Lastly, the employee’s responsibility has to be defined. The level of responsibility is clarified so that the teacher is aware of the operational parameter so that there would be no overstepping”.

Heads of schools ought to consider a number of things before they delegate duties to subordinates. For example, according to Mind Tools (2011), heads ought to consider the experience and skills of the individual and how knowledgeable he or
she is before delegating any duty. The individual's preferred work style is also of paramount importance hence the need to find out how independent the subordinate would be. It is necessary to find out how the Ministry of Education Sport Arts Culture supported heads of schools under study so that they performed their duties properly.

2.6 SUMMARY

The chapter firstly discussed changes or shifts in the way instructional leadership concept has been defined from the traditional approach where the focus was on an individual school head to multiple layers of instructional leadership or leading learning communities where the emphasis is on collaboration, team work and distributed leadership. The chapter further discussed the three dimensions of instructional leadership model, namely, defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme and developing the school learning climate.

The instructional leadership model was discussed through identifying the three dimensions recommended by Hallinger (2008) for usage by heads of schools as they performed instructional leadership duties. Explanations on what has to be actual done by heads under each dimension were also given as further guidelines to the heads.

The study further discussed what people have written about aspects of each dimension of instructional leadership model. In defining school mission literature was reviewed in the following areas: establishing a vision, mission and setting goals of the school; the role of vision in school improvement, the role of mission in school improvement and goal setting in school improvement. Under curriculum management literature was reviewed in the following areas: curriculum and instruction issues, monitoring student progress, peer observation and clinical supervision and teaching responsibilities of school heads. In discussing promotion of school climate literature was reviewed under the following areas, encouraging collaboration and team work; provision of continuous teacher development programmes; maintaining high visibility; and recognition of students and teachers’ achievements.
The final section of the chapter was devoted to examining what people have written regarding successes and challenges of school heads in performing instructional leadership roles; and support provided by schools and government to ensure school heads perform instructional leadership roles properly. Subsequent chapters and field research will further pursue the gaps identified in the study in order to draw conclusions on the theory and practice obtaining in this area. The methodology followed in the study is outlined in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology adopted in gathering data. It presents a discussion on the research paradigm, design, approach, sample and the instruments that were used in the study. The chapter also explains the measures of trustworthiness and ethical considerations and credibility that were observed in the study. In addition, the chapter further discusses the case study data collection and data analysis methods that define the overall design adopted.

3.2 THE RESEARCH PARADIGM

There are a number of theoretical paradigms in the research literature and these include the positivist, post-positivists and the interpretive or constructivist paradigm which can be used as lens through which one can view the world Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). Mertens (2005:7) defines a paradigm as “a way of looking at the world that is composed of certain philosophical assumptions that guide and direct thinking and action.” According to Blanche and Durrheim (2006), paradigms are all encompassing systems of interrelated practice and thinking that define for investigators the nature of the inquiry that they carry out. Maree (2007) viewed paradigms as aspects of reality which result in a different perspective giving rise to a particular world view. From these definitions, it can therefore be inferred that a paradigm connotes those guiding principles that define the way in which its scientific adherents conceive of the world and the way in which they proceed to uncover its laws. In the same vein, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) identified three dimensions on methodological frameworks that include epistemological, ontological and
methodological premise of a study. The three dimensions are basic beliefs that attempt to define a particular paradigm.

The methodological approach to research is often based upon the philosophical assumptions upon which it rests. The question as to what constitutes scientific knowledge has resulted in the emergence of competing philosophies of the sciences. The arguments have been between those who claim that knowledge can be generated only through scientific methods and the interpretivists who claim that such methods are irrelevant outside the domains of the natural sciences (Mertens, 2005). In fact, while the interpretivists often deny that human or social science is science, the naturalists insist that basic methodological principles are universal.

Epistemology seeks to ask how we know the world or problems related to the world “in here” against the world “out there” specifying the nature of the relationship between the researcher and what can be known (Blanche & Durrheim, 2006). However, Grix (2002) stated that epistemology is a core branch of philosophy whose focus is on theory of knowledge. In other words epistemology is about the search of knowledge and also how the knowledge could be known (Blaikie, 2000). In support of the foregoing statement, Burrell & Morgan in (Cohen et al., 2000), concurred that epistemology is concerned about the basis of knowledge and how it could be communicated. As a result, epistemology is generally concerned about the process which could be taken advantage of in the acquisition of knowledge through the development of other models or theories (Grix, 2002).

In elaborating the above, it could be argued that individuals have different interpretation of reality depending on the individual's epistemology. Epistemology, according to Mertens (2005), maintains that objectivity is the standard measure for research. As a result, the researcher according to Mertens (2005) ought to remain neutral in order to avoid bias on the findings. Knowledge in this case is viewed as absolute and separated from the researcher. In this research the epistemological stance followed is the need to understand what takes place in a particular community, in this case in the selected rural secondary schools in Hurungwe Education District.
However Krauss (2005) is of the opinion that epistemology is related to ontology and methodology. Ontology, is however, attached to the philosophy of reality. According to Winter (2001) ontology attempts to specify the nature of social reality to be studied through asking basic questions on the nature of reality. According to Guba & Lincoln (as reviewed in Mertens 2005:11), “there is only one reality in existence which acknowledges that it is the responsibility of researchers to discover that reality. Such claims encompass knowing what would be in existence, what it looks like, the units that would be put together and how the units would interact (Blaikie, 2000). In concluding his explanation of ontology, Bryman (2001) stated that philosophers and researchers make certain claims about what knowledge is all about (ontology); how we come to know what we know (epistemology); and the process of studying such knowledge (methodology).

3.2.1 Interpretive paradigm

The study followed the interpretive paradigm which is however located in the constructivist orientation.

The interpretive or constructivist paradigm was developed out of the philosophy of Edmund and other German philosophers’ study of interpretive understanding known as hermeneutics (Mertens, 2005). The interpretive paradigm “views the world constructed, interpreted and experienced by the people in their interaction with each other and social systems” (Ullin, Robinson, Tolley, 2005:17). This paradigm is most suitable for this study since the performance of heads as instructional leaders could be best researched by interviewing and observing how heads interact with teachers in schools.

Under this paradigm, social reality may be understood as the result of meanings and contexts that are jointly created in social interactions. These are interpreted by the participants in concrete situations within the framework of their subjective horizons (Flick, Von Kardorff, Steinke, 2004). The main assumption of the paradigm is that the ‘whole’ need to be examined in order to conceptualise the phenomenon under investigation.
Conceptualised as the phenomenological approach, the interpretive paradigm aims to ‘understand’ people (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The approach is rooted in the premise that there are two types of science; natural and human sciences. (De Vos et al., 2011). As Neuman (2003) argued, while the former is based on abstract explanations, the latter is based on the ‘understanding’ of everyday lived experiences of people. The interpretive approach is thus based upon the assumption that humans are engaged in making sense of their world, interpreting and justifying their daily actions (De Vos et al., 2002). As a result the study therefore interviewed and observed how heads, teachers and education officials relate so that they informed the researcher about their experiences on how heads performed instructional leadership roles.

Methodologically, this approach adopts the hermeneutics’ aspects of examination of texts relating to conversations, writings or pictures. A researcher using this design therefore reads a text to understand the meaning within it. In this way, each researcher brings his/her individual subjectivity to bear on the text. The method entails the researcher absorbing the message and attempting to get a deeper meaning of how the parts relate to the whole. Unlike the positivist school, interpretive research therefore assume that the true meaning of a text is rarely obvious, and can only be accessed through a detailed study and contemplation of the message to uncover the link between the parts (Neuman, 2003). The message and linkages of the parts would be referring to the experiences, perceptions of participants under study, in this case the heads, education officers and teachers. The most prominent method utilised within the interpretative paradigm includes participant observation and allied field study techniques. These methods entail long hours of contact and interaction with subjects or participants. In addition, data may also be sourced from transcripts, conversations, pictures and other sources which yield non-verbal information (De Vos, et al., 2002).

The paradigm subscribes to the understanding that there are multiple realities and that these realities can differ depending on when they occur and where they will be taking place (O’Brien, 2006). In other words, the above statement explains that the interpretive paradigm accommodates views of particular participants and whatever a given group of participants reveals could be peculiar to that group. When similar
interview schedules are administered to another group of participants, varying responses could be obtained. Maree (2007:59) subscribes to the notion that “the interpretive paradigm assume that reality is not objectively determined, but is socially constructed.”

The interpretive paradigm does not generally start with a theory as in positivists but gradually develops a theory as the research unfolds (Creswell, 2008). This allows for adjustments to be made on the choice of the theory so that the most appropriate theory is generated eventually. This is the root of the age old controversy of the inductive-deductive divide in the methodology of the human sciences, Popper (1963). The latter implies that we move from the particular to the general, that is, universal statements must be the product of many observations (Chalmers, 1978).

The criticisms of induction are further supported by the assertion that theories are a priority to observations and generally refer to all occurrences of a phenomenon (i.e., present past and future). Observation is, however, finite and there is no way to tell if instances yet to be observed (or yet to occur) will resemble those already observed. Thus, the validity of induction is questionable because a single counter occurrence automatically refutes the theory.

The deductive approach proposed by Popper can be termed ‘rationalist epistemology’ while the inductive approach is ‘empiricist epistemology’ (Denscombe, 2002). This rationalist epistemology has been widely rejected as being irrelevant to the human sciences, and is relevant to the natural sciences only. This is predicated upon the interpretative emphasis on meaningfulness of social life (Babbie, 2001). The advantage of the interpretative paradigm is that it can be used as a torch when investigating individuals or small groups of participants in naturalistic settings (van Rensburg, 2001). It is further observed by Creswell (2003) that in interpretive paradigm, the observer relies mainly on what the participants' views on the subject under study have to say which is mainly based on the background and experiences of the participants.

In the study, the researcher mainly relied on the experiences from heads of schools from selected schools on how they performed instructional leadership roles.
However, the findings were triangulated through observations of staff meetings in session and documentary analysis of minutes of staff meetings. Teachers and education officers were interviewed and asked similar questions as those administered to heads of schools in an effort to also triangulate the findings from the heads.

The paradigm was suitable for this study as it allowed the researcher to get lived experiences and perceptions from the participants. In this case lived experiences, opinions, perceptions and feelings of heads of schools, education officers inclusive of teachers, were sought by the researcher. The information assisted in answering the main question of the study which sought to find out how secondary school heads from six rural schools performed instructional leadership duties.

3.2.2 Limitations of interpretive paradigm

Despite the strengths of the interpretive paradigm discussed above, the main limitation of the paradigm lies mainly on its subjectivity and its failure to generalise its findings beyond the findings generated (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). Despite the shortcoming of the paradigm, it was viewed as most suitable for this study in view of its ability to enable the researcher to be close to the participants and observe them live face to face. This has an advantage of gaining more insight on the participants under study. The research approach followed in the study is discussed below.

3.3 THE RESEARCH APPROACH

As has been elaborated earlier, the positivist and the interpretative paradigms represent the two major traditions in scientific research. These paradigms, however, dictate specific methodological orientations. While in the positivist paradigm the quantitative research methods are adopted, for the interpretative paradigm, qualitative methods are often used. Quantitative research entails the measurement or quantification of social objects; the objective here is to provide explanations of causality and relationships between variables. The most common quantitative studies are the survey and the experimental design. Rather than attempt to explain phenomena, qualitative research attempts to describe and understand social phenomena. This entails obtaining insider perspectives on social action from the
actors themselves. The study followed the qualitative research approach for the reasons elaborated below.

3.3.1 Qualitative approach

Qualitative approach is rooted in phenomenological foundations which view human behaviour as a product of people’s interpretation of their world (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). It is based on the assumption that the researcher can obtain extensive empirical in-depth data from ordinary conversations with his or her subjects, in this case the participants (Maree, 2007). Research methods that constitute qualitative approach share certain set of principles or logic. Babbie and Mouton (2001) described qualitative approach, methods as naturalistic, anthropological and ethnographic ‘inquiries of knowledge. The term naturalism reflects a concern with the normal course of events and how a qualitative researcher should as far as possible be in his or her study.

The point of departure from quantitative approach is that qualitative studies take an insider perspective on social action. The objective is to understand social actions as they occur, and to describe and give them meaning. Qualitative approach therefore enables the researcher to gain a broader understanding of participants' views and feelings. Furthermore, qualitative approach attempts to get to the heart of an issue in order to understand it. It thus takes an inductive approach. Rather than begin with an existing theory or hypothesis, the researcher begins with immersion into the natural setting, describing events as they occur and building second-order constructs, in order to make sense of the observations made (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). The emphasis of qualitative is to develop and build inductively based new interpretations and theories in terms of first order descriptions of events rather than to approach the social actors with deductively derived research hypothesis.

The present study is based on the interpretative paradigm and is located in qualitative approach in the quest to secure an understanding of the experiences and perceptions of heads of schools, education officers and teachers on the roles of school heads as instructional leaders. Qualitative approach is defined as “any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification."
Qualitative approach examines people to unearth vivid descriptions that are relevant to the case (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). In this study, the focus was on how heads of rural secondary schools were performing their roles as instructional leaders in selected schools in view of the various responsibilities they carried out in schools.

Strauss and Cobin in Hoepfl (1997) claimed that qualitative approach can be used to understand better phenomenon which is little known compared to quantitative approach since responses are sourced from the subjects perceptions’ and experiences. The experiences and perceptions of heads of schools, education officers as supervisors of heads and teachers were tapped in order to find out how heads of secondary schools performed instructional leadership roles in schools.

The main reason of choosing this methodology was echoed by Silverman (2010) who observed that qualitative methodologies are powerful tools capable of sustaining understanding of teaching and learning and also by the fact that they have been recently accepted in research. Qualitative methodology demands that participants themselves be allowed to freely express their feelings, views and opinions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2006). Qualitative implies a direct concern with feelings, experiences and views as lived, or felt or undergone (Sylveman, 2010). Qualitative thus has the aim of understanding experiences and views that are as near as possible to how the participants lived or express them; hence this approach was viewed as the most appropriate for the study.

It is assumed that meaning is embedded in people’s experiences and that it is mediated through the investigator’s own perceptions. The chosen approach is appropriate to this study because it allowed the researcher to get the data directly from the subjects themselves by sitting with the participants in staff meetings hearing their views, voices, perceptions and expectations in detail on how they command, direct and monitor school activities in schools as instructional leaders (Flick, von Kardorff, Steinke, 2004). This accorded the researcher an opportunity to observe behaviour or reactions of participants as they contributed to issues that were related to instructional leadership. Most importantly, this approach enabled the researcher to observe developments in life main staff meetings held in schools. In order to
understand the phenomenon of secondary school heads as instructional leaders, the researcher was convinced that the most appropriate approach to follow in this study was the qualitative approach since it offered researchers various advantages as discussed above. The following are however some of the characteristics of qualitative research that influenced the choice of this approach as outlined by Bogman and Biklen, Esner, Marshall & Kosman in Creswell (2003:181):

- **Qualitative research employs various methods that are interactive and humanistic.**

The involvement of participants in data collection and the need to establish good rapport with participants is of paramount importance when collecting data using qualitative approach. The establishment of good rapport by the researcher enabled the education officers at the district office, heads and teachers from various schools under study to open up and respond to interview questions freely. This enhanced the credibility of the information given. All participants were visited well in advance by the researcher in order to establish rapport with them before the actual interviews were carried out.

- **Qualitative data is emergent rather than tightly prefigured.**

It enables the researcher to ask questions to more participants and establish the best ways of getting information from them. In other words, the qualitative approach allows room for the researcher to change the questions and questioning techniques in an attempt to get valuable information from participants.

- **Qualitative research enables the researcher to analyse data following themes and also making an analogy of the meaning of the data collected (Wolcott in Creswell, 2003).**

In this study, collected responses from the education officers, heads and teachers enabled the researcher to come up with themes that guided the analysis of the data.

- **Qualitative research acknowledges biases, values and interests which now typifies qualitative research.**

It enables honesty and openness to research and acknowledges that all inquiry is laden with values (Mertens, 2003). It is therefore of utmost importance that the researcher guards against personal interpretation of the findings to avoid distorting the findings of the study.

- **Qualitative research employs reasoning that is multi-faceted and simultaneous.**
There is cycling back and forth from data collection and analysis to reformulation and back allowing room for adjustments on collected information. The researcher therefore has room to re-adjust questions as the interview progresses.

The above characteristics were instrumental in the selection of qualitative approach where this study would be located. The qualitative approach ensured a proper understanding of the phenomenon under study beyond the surface, which could not otherwise have been gained with the use of a quantitative. The research design followed in the study is discussed below.

3.4 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

3.4.1 Case Study

The research adopted a case study design. A case study is rooted in Bronislaw Malinowsky’s Anthropology (Babbies & Mouton, 2001) According to Creswell (1998), a case study can be regarded as an exploration of in-depth analysis of a ‘bounded system’ (bounded by time and or place), or a multiple case over a period of time. Merrian in Mertens (2011) defined a case study as a unity (something that is studied), a process (something that is done) and a product (something that is made). In other words, a case study is a combination of what the researcher intends to discover in the study which can only succeed through maximum effort put by the researcher to gather findings and to have research outcomes. Unlike other research designs, a case study is more of a choice of what to study than a methodology (De Vos et al., 2011). Thus, a case study is adaptable to a range of other methodologies, (i.e., phenomenology, ethnography, etc.). It attempts to draw attention to what can be learned from a single case.

As the interpretative paradigm purposes to uncover the ‘meanings’ social actors attach to their experiences, a case study is appropriate as it enables the researcher to be immersed in the activities of a person or group under study. In this way, a researcher is able to obtain familiarity with the social world of the subjects of research and discern patterns. Creswell (2007) posited that a case study involves an exploration of a system, bounded over time or contexts. A case study can therefore be single or multiple, but may span over a period of time entailing in-depth data
collection from an array of sources. A case study may refer to a process, an activity, event or a person or persons, or indeed a time span.

Data collection is through multiple sources including interviews, documents, and observations, on the basis of thematic in-depth description of cases situating the case within its larger context. De Vos et al., (2011) argued that the implication of the above, unlike in grounded theory, is that in the case researcher has prior knowledge of the relevant literature before conducting the research. This allows in-depth and detailed study of the phenomenon enabling the researcher an appropriate opportunity to discover things that might have become apparent through more superficial research (Denscombe, 2001).

As a result, the study on how heads of schools performed instructional leadership roles could best be obtained through carrying out a case study on fewer participants in order to gain their detailed lived experiences. The choice of this research design was influenced by the nature of the problem and the epistemological position of the phenomenon under study. It focused on understanding the perceptions and experiences of real life situation of individual education officers, heads, and teachers on their observation on how heads performed instructional leadership roles.

The explorations on how heads performed instructional leadership roles were realised through detailed, in-depth data collection methods that included interviews, observations and document analysis.

3.4.1.1 Justification for case study

Rule & John (2011) are of the opinion that case studies are adopted in a study because they enhance the generation of understanding of a particular instance. In this study, the case study approach was followed in order to find out how heads performed their duties as instructional leaders. Case studies are also carried out because they are capable of providing thick and rich elaborations of the cases under study which could be used in generalising findings (Rule & John, 2011). However Nesbet and Watts in Cohen et al. (2000) stated that case studies have an advantage of enabling easier interpretation of similar cases studied later basing on those studied first. Results from case studies according to Nesbet and Watts in Cohen et
are also simple to understand since they are not written in any academic language. Many people are therefore capable of reading and understanding the results.

3.4.1.2 Limitations of case studies

The main limitation of case studies is on the possibility of bias from the researcher when following the purposive sampling procedure in selecting participants (Cohen et al. 2000). The researcher’s personal bias may influence the choice of particular participants who might portray the interests of the researcher at the expense of giving accurate responses. Further criticism of the case study is given by the same authors above when they challenge that information which is based on opinions from individuals might not be authentic at times and could be inconsistent, short sighted and unreliable. The study however attempted to combat the above limitations by making sure that only individuals who could best supply the required information were included in the study. Heads and senior teachers were consulted in the identification of such participants to avoid bias from the researcher. Actual recorded information was made use of in addition to triangulation to minimise bias on the information obtained.

3.4.1.3 Types of case studies

Stake in Bassey (1999) identified two categories of case studies: intrinsic and instrumental case studies. Intrinsic case study focuses on the case because of the interest in it whilst instrumental case study examines a case in order to pursue a broader case (Rule & John, 2011). The intrinsic case study, otherwise known as the descriptive case study, strives to analyse, describe and interpret a phenomenon (Yin, 2003). Where a study is based on the existence of unique cases, an intensive study of one instance (or a small number) is carried out to obtain a detailed description of these cases (Thomas, 2004).

However, the purpose of the intrinsic case study is to describe the case being studied rather than to understand broad social issues (De Vos et al., 2011). On the
other hand, the instrumental case study is designed to build and test theories. The aim here is to facilitate the researcher’s understanding of a phenomenon where a theory or theories have the potential to match the characteristics or behaviour of a person or situation. Thus as Thomas (2004) proposed, a single case study may be used to confirm or refute such a theory. In a similar vein, the information from the instrumental case study is useful in informing policy.

This study however followed the intrinsic case study in order to zero in on how heads of schools performed instructional leadership roles in schools.

3.4.1.4 Single case study

In this study the researcher followed a single case study of six rural secondary schools. Gerring (2007) asserted that researchers are at liberty to choose the type of case study they intend to follow depending on the enquiry they are making. Researchers could select either the single-case or have embedded sub-cases or multiple case studies (Yin, 2005). In support of the need to use single case study design, Horner, Carr, Halls, McGee, Odom and Wolery (2005) stated that single case study is followed in order to identify basic principles of participant behaviour in an attempt to extract evidence as required by the study. In other words, the above explains that case studies enable researchers to be closer to the participants so that they are able to monitor and record variability of observations made on participants.

There are many reasons for the choice of the type of case to follow, for example Rule and John (2011:21) advanced three reasons, namely, the case under study could be an outstanding example of its kind and hence could be studied in great depth; secondly, that the researcher could have experience in the case as a participant and might also have inside knowledge; and lastly the researcher’s accessibility to the case might also influence the researcher.

The single subject design or single case study is mostly used in the field of psychology, education and human behaviour. Researchers, according to Q & A Community (2011), follow single case design because the design is sensitive to individuals and that the design is used to evaluate the effect of various interventions in applied research. The design allows continuous and baseline assessment of
individual behaviour hence gaining more insights on behaviour patterns and trends. As a result, the researcher followed this design considering the ability to gain rich source of ideas on how heads performed instructional leadership roles.

In this study, it was vital to find out how secondary school heads in the six rural secondary schools performed their roles as instructional leaders in view of the complexity of the duties they perform in schools. The population composition, sample and sampling techniques are discussed below.

3.5 POPULATION, SAMPLE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

3.5.1 Population
Population is the group of participants being focused on by the study and, in most cases, the groups being studied could be too large for all members to participate (Babbie & Mouton, 2005). However, Wallingman (2006) defined a population or universe as the total quantity of cases which are the subject of a study. Population therefore could be viewed as a group of people sharing similar characteristics from where data could be obtained. In this study, the population of the study comprised of participants drawn from Hurungwe Education District which has a total of 91 heads, 7 district education officials and 1008 teachers. It was therefore necessary for the researcher to focus on a limited number of participants drawn from six rural secondary schools out of 91 secondary schools in the district.

3.5.2 Sample and Sampling
A sample is a representative of a population drawn from a large pool of cases since it is impossible to include all participants in a given population (Creswell, 2008). In view of the total number of heads, teachers and education officers in the district under study, it was therefore necessary to select a sample of twenty participants inclusive of two education officers from the district office.

In support of the need to focus on a reasonable sample of participants, Cohen et al. (2006) stated that if a sample is too small it might be “unrepresentative” and as a result findings may not be generalised in that case. Sampling in research could mean taking any portion of a population or universe as representative of that
population or universe (Kerlinger, in De Vos 2001:193). De Vos (2005:329) put emphasis on the need for researchers to critically assess the population of the study and then carefully select a reasonable sample case from it.

A well selected sample positively contributes to the credibility of the findings in any given research. This is also supported by Cohen et al. (2000) who believed that whenever good sampling is done following recommended sampling procedures, it will be possible for the researcher to replicate the results. The latter is an important aspect of confirming the authenticity of the results especially in a qualitative approach.

In this study the sample was made up of 6 heads of schools, 12 teachers and 2 education officers from the district office. Two teachers were selected from each school. The schools comprised of six rural secondary schools (one of which was an army school).

The idea of sampling is based on the premise that a limited set of observations have the potential to generate information that could as well be generated if the overall population were otherwise studied (Royce, 2004). While there are similarities in sampling strategies adopted in quantitative and qualitative research, there are intrinsic divergences. De Vos et al. (2011:390) argued that unlike in quantitative studies, sampling in qualitative studies is less structured. In some instances, field researchers attempt to observe every element without sampling at all (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). However, in general research, sampling is categorised with regards to the extent to which randomisation was applied in the process of selection of the elements of the sample. There are various sampling procedures that can be followed by researchers which could be appropriate for a particular study (Drew, Hardman & Hosp, 2008). Two main types of sampling procedures include the probability and non-probability sampling.

The distinction between probability and non-probability sampling techniques is that the former ensures that each person in the universe has an equal chance of being selected into the sample (Ary at. el., 2006). However, in non-probability sampling, the chance of selecting a particular element is unknown because often the
researcher has no information of the size of the population under study. Rather than study the whole population, qualitative studies seek and concentrate on individuals or settings where the specific processes being studied are most likely to occur (Suiter, 2006). This process is best achieved using non probability methods. In addition, as the qualitative researcher is interested in understanding phenomena, a comparison between the subjects under study is essential, thus data from a few cases suffice to meet stated objectives (Mertens, 2005).

In some instances, a case is chosen because there is ease of access. “The choice of such a case is justified on the basis of the fact that individuals or groups are never in isolation and that they can be studied against the background of more universal social experiences” (De Vos et al., 2011: 391). As Denzin and Lincoln (2000: 370) argued, ‘to study the particular is to study the general’. This implies that using a non probabilistic sampling, a researcher may generalise, albeit subjectively, from a few cases being studied. This has the probability of generating rich data. The use of non probability technique for the present study thus has the potential to generate data that will enhance the understanding of the phenomenon under study rather than provide mere explanation of causality that a quantitative study will enhance. Non-probability techniques include purposive, snowball and convenient/accidental sampling.

3.5.2.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling also referred to as judgment sampling, entails the selection of cases that illustrate certain features of interest to a particular study (Silverman, 2000). This is also referred to as the ‘typical case sampling’ (Marlo, 2005:144) where typical cases are identified and selected for a study. Sample selection is left to the judgment of the researcher as the sample consists of elements possessing characteristics perceived to represent typical attributes of the population that best relate to the study at hand. Thus, the criteria for inclusion must be preconceived before selection (Creswell, 2007).

The study adopted the purposive or judgmental sampling procedure which is acceptable for special sampling situations especially where the researcher could apply own experience to select cases which form part of the participants (Neuman,
In this case purposive sampling enabled the researcher to include participants who could best supply credible information on the extent to which heads performed instructional leadership roles in schools. In the same vein, purposive sampling accorded the researcher an opportunity to select participants from schools that could be easily accessed so that interviews could be carried out within the shortest period of time. The two teachers who took part in the research were also chosen through purposive sampling.

Contacts were made with the head or any one of the senior teachers in all schools to identify one most junior teacher in each school and one senior teacher. The experiences of senior teachers were to assist in the observations made on heads on how they carried out instructional leadership roles. The assumption was that the senior teachers’ exposure and experience would be invaluable in giving credible observations on how heads of schools carried out instructional leadership roles in schools. Junior teachers were used as safety valves in giving their observations on how heads of schools carried out instructional leadership roles.

The two officials from the district office with seven education officers were selected because they were the only two substantive education officers in the district that served the District Education Office; the rest had been recently appointed in an acting capacity. Through the interviews, observations, and documentary analysis, the researcher was able to get the lived experiences and perceptions from participants on the extent to which heads performed their roles as instructional leaders in the selected schools.

### 3.6 NEGOTIATING ENTRY

An introductory letter was secured from the University to confirm the intention of the researcher to carry out a study in the selected Provincial Education Office. In order to gain access to the schools under investigation, permission was also sought from the Provincial Education and District Education Offices to access the schools under study. A letter which laid down conditions to guide the researcher was issued which was used as a referral letter to gain access to the district. Visits were made to all schools seeking approval from the heads to interview them, inclusive of the selected
teachers. The researcher made appointments with heads of schools for the planning meetings where the teacher participants and heads made final agreements on interview dates. All the participants were made aware of the interview dates and times.

### 3.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

The study used different data collection methods which included interviews, observations and document analysis.

#### 3.7.1 Interviews

An interview is viewed as a two-person conversation which is initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information by the researcher (Creswell, 2007). Kvale cited in Warren (2002:85) affirmed that “qualitative interviewing is a kind of guided conversation in which the researcher carefully listens “so as to hear the meaning” of what is being conveyed so that accurate information is recorded.” In order to make sure that accurate information was gathered in the study, the researcher recorded responses from all the participants interviewed using a digital voice recorder which could be re-played to record accurate responses. Interviews have several advantages which make them ideal means of collecting data from participants.

Thomas (1999) revealed that one of the advantages of interviews is that it allows the researcher to explore another person’s world thus enabling the researcher to understand the person’s views. This is made possible through the researcher rephrasing interview questions until the most suitable answer is arrived at when interviewing participants. Interviews allow the researcher to be very close to the participants, to understand concepts and attributes of participants as they relate to the social world (Thomas, 1999). In other words, the closeness of the researcher to participants enables the interviewees to be free in their responses and it also gives room to the researcher to observe actions by the participants as they relate their experiences.
The interview was most ideal for this study because it enabled the production of in-depth data, in this case, the perceptions, experiences of education officers, heads and teachers on the performance of secondary school heads on instructional leadership roles which included teaching. In-depth face to face interviews were conducted with all sampled participants. The fact that face to face interviews were conducted was made possible for the researcher being closer to the participants and observing verbal cues. Such observations could not be possible if the study had followed the quantitative design which uses questionnaires in data collection.

There are three main types of interviews that are followed by researchers as they collect data from participants. The types of interviews elaborated by Maree (2007) include the structured, semi structured and unstructured interviews. The same structured interview is discussed below since it was viewed the most appropriate for this study.

3.7.1.1 Semi-structured interview

A semi-structured interview was adopted in the study since it was viewed suitable for extracting the views and perceptions of participants through narration of their experiences on how heads carried out their duties as instructional leaders. In a semi structured interview, the researcher is guided by a list of themes or questions asked to participants (Maree, 2007; Smith & Obsorn, 2007). The interview is carried out with a focused conventional approach which allows dialogue between the researcher and the interviewee.

It is during the dialogue that the researcher is able to refocus the discussion so that accurate information is gained from participants through rephrasing questions and observing non verbal cues such as facial expressions. As a result, Maree (2007) warned researchers that semi-structured interview requires the researcher to be attentive to the responses from participants in order to record accurate information and to avoid being side tracked by aspects which might not be related to the study. In the study the usage of a digital voice recorder minimised the risk of recording inaccurate data. The identification of themes to guide the study also minimised discussions outside the performance of heads as instructional leaders in schools.
3.7.2 Observations

The study also used observations as a means of collecting data from the participants. Observations involve the art of looking and listening carefully to participants and their behaviour as they perform their duty. In this case the researcher observed at least two staff meetings in each school during the beginning and end of the term. As a result observation is therefore an important and useful method of generating primary data (Creswell, 2008). Bless (2000) stressed the need for researchers to carry out observations systematically in order to obtain credible data for the study.

Marshall and Rossman (1995:79) defined observations as “the systematic description of events, behaviours, and artifacts in the social setting chosen for the study”. Gorman and Clayton (2005:40) defines observation as that “which involve the systematic recording of observable phenomenon or behaviour in a natural setting”. Observation therefore offers a firsthand account of the situation under study and, when combined with interviewing and documentary analysis, it allows for a holistic interpretation of the phenomenon being investigated and hence allows triangulation of findings (Cohen et al., 2000).

Qualitative observation occurs in naturalistic settings without using predetermined categories of measurement or response (Adler & Adler in Mertens, 2005). This approach allows the researcher to make observations which reflect people’s normal reaction to the area under investigation. In this study, the researcher was able to observe the reaction of teachers in staff meetings when heads of schools deliberated on various activities of the school.

The observations made had interesting implications on the way heads of schools performed instructional leadership roles in schools. A check list was used on each head to record activities carried out per day, and the time spent on each activity was also recorded for a week to establish the time spent by heads of schools on various chores. In a different dimension, two main staff meetings were observed in order to establish how heads of schools conducted planning of school activities and how they evaluated their efforts against set targets. During the staff meetings, the researcher also observed how the heads accommodated views from the teachers and the
general atmosphere obtaining during the meetings. The observations made are discussed below.

3.7.2.1 Types of observations

Babbie and Mouton (2001) identified two categories that are found in qualitative research. The two types include the simple observation where the researcher remains an outsider. In this case, the researcher would observe participants, that is heads and teachers were observed as they interacted in the staff meetings. The researcher for example, observed how the head reacted to questions asked by teachers and how the discussions were distributed to include all members in the discussion. The second type of observation according to Babbie and Mouton (2001) is the participant observation where the researcher is part and parcel of the study. In other words, the researcher would be amongst the participants being observed.

3.7.2.1.1 Participant observation

Participant observation as a method has been recognised as one of the most accepted means of conducting qualitative research (Flick, Von Kardorff, and Steinke, 2004). Participant observation has its historical roots in anthropology and ethnology as elaborated by Flick et al. (2004).

McMillan and Schumacker (1993:420) define participant observation as “an active process which includes muted cues-facial expression, gestures, tone of voice and other universalised social interactions which suggest the meanings of language.” In support of the need to use participant observation as a data collection instrument Mirriam (2001) stated:

The participant observer sees things first hand and uses own knowledge and expertise in interpreting what is observed rather than relying upon once removed accounts from interviews. Observation makes it possible to record behaviour as it will be happening (p. 96).

However, participant observation takes time and commitment. It also comes with various problems of ethics, power, of interpretation. Dalby (2000) a result the study not o noted that participant research is often time consuming. As a result the study
main benefit of participant observation is its ability to gain in-depth which contributes to rich insights. Another weakness is that it lacks breadth and thus; as the focus is typically on one particular situation or phenomenon, the findings cannot be generalised. It is therefore due to the limitations identified that the method was not ideal for this study.

### 3.7.2.1.2 Simple observation

Simple observations are carried out when the observer or the researcher will be watching rather than being actively involved as in participant observation (Homer, Carr, McGee, Odom & Wolery, 2005). One of the advantages of this approach is that participants can be observed in the natural environment where they normally operate from. In this case heads of schools and teachers were observed when they carried out main staff meetings at their respective schools. Details on how heads responded to questions from teachers and how they picked on teachers who participated in the meetings were noted. The ability of heads to guide and control teachers as they deliberated on various issues in the school were also noted. The researcher also observed how school heads shared responsibilities, encouraged team work and how they involved teachers in issues related to curriculum management and so on. The general tone of the schools under study was observed by the researcher in order to establish the interactions of the members in general. The researcher observed two staff meetings in each of the school under study.

### 3.8 DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS

Documents are standardised artifacts in various formats which can be in the form of notes, case reports, contracts, annual reports or expert opinions which serve as institutionalized traces on activities that take place in an institution (Flick & others, 2004). Maree (2007) indicated that document analysis is when individuals focus on all types of materials that are used by heads of schools when carrying out instructional leadership roles in schools. Borg & Gall (1996) also stressed that researchers analyses written documents which are found in institutions under investigation as data sources. In this study, the analysis of documents was helpful in complementing the data obtained from interviews and observations carried out on participants.
Primary data was mainly relied upon since the researcher accessed the following documents from schools: main staff meeting minutes, departmental meetings minutes, lesson and book inspection reports, and school management meeting minutes. Preparation books such as scheme books, plan books and record of work books were requested from heads of schools. The above were used as evidence of the events or facts that assisted the researcher in the process of gathering information on the extent to which heads of schools performed their roles as instructional leaders in the schools under study.

Creswell, (2003) revealed that there are possibilities of bias where authors of documents manipulate, select or avail documents portraying a different scenario, that is, in their favour. Alternatively, the researcher may also have a biased understanding of the documents leading to their misinterpretation and this may generate incorrect information. Therefore, the researcher exercised extreme caution when scrutinising documents.

Various documents that related to the way heads perform their teaching roles were examined and these included preparation books for teaching, scheme books, record of marks book, and pupils’ exercise books. Staff’s meeting minutes were also useful to the researcher in order to uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights on the problem under investigation.

### 3.9 DATA ANALYSIS

In qualitative research, data is generated and systematically built as successive pieces of data are gathered (Bogdan and Biklen, 2003; Patton, 2002; Wolcott, 2001). In the study, data was systematically built through recording proceedings in staff meetings, during observations of various activities in the school, and interviews on all selected participants that included heads of schools, teachers and education officers.

Qualitative data was coded systematically according to specific concepts or themes and then analysed to address the main research question. Patton (2002) posited
that data must be reported in the natural language of the event, as the information was obtained from a natural setting. The data was analysed to understand the participants’ experiences, as obtained from the interviews. The interviews were transcribed immediately after they were concluded. Since interviews were the main source of data, it became important to prepare transcripts from an audio-taped interview. Transcribing was done after the interview was completed while it was fresh in the researcher’s mind. Preparing transcripts provided an opportunity to relieve the interview, and made the researcher more familiar with the data. According to De Vos (2005), qualitative data analysis transforms data into findings. This involves transforming raw information, sifting for patterns and discerning the essence of the data. As the goal of qualitative research is to understand the phenomenon from the different points of view, the data collected was analysed in terms of its emerging themes and sub-themes, a process called ‘content analysis’.

The data analysis process entailed the following stages:

- **transcription of tape recorded material**: where the researcher had to play and listen to the tape recorded interviews and then transcribed the data.
- **coding or indexing**: was when the researcher had to extract meaning from the recorded data by identifying key words or phrases.
- **re-coding**: this was done through recording each response category or item.
- **exploration of relationships between categories**: the categories of information were further compared in order to establish any similar categories of information for the purpose of grouping similar information together.
- **report writing**: marked the end of data analysis which then led to the compilation of thesis.

### 3.10 CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

In an attempt to address the issue of rigor in research, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) recommend the use of multiple methods or triangulation in order to gain in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. In this case, triangulation was realised through the interviews, observations and document analysis where responses raised by participants could be verified.
Guba and Lincoln (2001) stated that there are aspects of trustworthiness that need to be addressed in research which include credibility, dependability and confirmability, which are briefly discussed in sequence below.

3.10.1 Credibility
This is an assessment of the findings in order to establish whether they are “credible” (Trustworthiness, 2011). To make sure that there was credibility in the findings, the researcher used interviews, documentary analysis and observations to extract data from the participants which allowed triangulation of the findings.
Analysis of staff meeting minutes and other supervisory reports in schools also facilitated triangulation. Member checking was done by returning to participants all recorded responses transcribed in order for the participants to confirm that what was transcribed was actually what transpired or what was recorded during the interviews. Consequently interview schedules were subjected to pilot testing.

A pilot study was undertaken in order to ascertaining the validity and reliability of the research instruments before the interview schedules could be used to extract information from the participants (White, 2002). As a result the pilot study accorded the researcher an opportunity to refocus the interview schedules so that the interview schedules captured sub-research questions expectations. The pilot study also assisted the researcher to rephrase items in the data gathering tools in order to enhance clarity and avoid ambiguity of the interview questions. It was viewed necessary to carry out a pilot study in order to ascertain the overall feasibility of the study and also to test the data before it was put to use. Pilot testing was also carried out as a safety valve on possible omissions on the instruments and resolve ambiguity and so that corrective measures were instituted. The pilot testing was carried out outside the sampled schools where heads of schools, teachers were interviewed using the same instruments. Education officers who were not part of those selected were interviewed and in each case, members were asked to evaluate the questions asked in order to test for ambiguity.

3.10.2 Dependability and conformability
According to Sheton (2004), dependability and conformability are an evaluation of a number of processes in research which include the quality of data collection, data
analysis and theory generation. In other words a study carried out which is credible should also be dependable such that the results can be relied upon. According to Cohen and Manion (1990), conformability is a technique followed to confirm that clean data had been collected in effort to overcome method boundedness. In order to cater for dependability and conformability of the research process, there was a series of interactions between the researcher and the supervisor.

3.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

When carrying out qualitative research, ethical dilemmas could be encountered in the process of collecting the data and disseminating it (Merrian, 2002). As a result researchers ought to make sure that they observe confidentiality on the information given to them by the participants. In this study and in an effort to allay fears among participants and also to gain cooperation from them, the researcher explained that the study was for academic purposes only. The researcher also assured the participants that the findings were also important in establishing how heads of secondary schools carry out duties as instructional leaders.

In any research, it is of utmost importance that the researcher is familiar with how to assess, interpret and apply various rules as the research progresses (David & Resnik, 2011). In support of the above, Creswell (1994) acknowledged that researchers ought to observe the right of participants, their values and desires when carrying out research. The informants rights, needs values and desires are of paramount importance in any research, hence the researcher ensured that the participants were respected in an effort to safeguard the above. Archers et al. (2006) advised that researchers have to both assure confidentiality to both participants and their profession. As a result, the researcher should state how issues of confidentiality and other related subjects would be catered for during the research.

In view of the above, the researcher had to abide by the ethical considerations contained in the Faculty of Education Handbook of Post Graduate Qualification Policies and Procedures, 2009. The researcher had to respect the rights of the participants by making sure that the participants’ names and identity remained
anonymous, and this respected the promises and commitments made before the interviews commenced.

### 3.11.1 Informed Consent

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2006) put emphasis on the need to have consent of the institutions and participants taking part in studies as part of the recognition of ethical consideration in research. In conformity to the above requirements which are also echoed by Cohen et al. (2006), the researcher sought permission from the Provincial Office of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture to proceed to the District Office where permission was also granted to visit schools in the district and interview heads teachers and education officers. Appointments were made to interview participants who were purposefully selected to participate in the study. Observations of two main staff meetings per school were carried out in order to record proceedings thereof. The researcher asked for permission from all participants to tape record the proceedings with a digital recorder.

In line with Creswell (2003) and Denzin and Lincoln (2000), the participants in the study are to be furnished with all the detail of the study which include the aims and objectives of the study and the procedures that are followed in the research. Also possible risks, if any and benefits of the research are also to be explained to all participants. In the same vein, all participants in this study signed a form of consent where participants were made aware of their voluntary participation in the study and the right for them to withdraw at any time when they no longer felt interested in taking part in the research. However, confidentiality was further assured through using codes for all transcripts as names of participants so that participants’ names remained concealed.

If qualitative researchers are to have credible results in their findings, then it is necessary for them to address the above concerns. This study therefore adhered to the above considerations in an attempt to add credibility to the findings of the study.

### 3.11.2 Member checking

It is necessary to check findings with the participants in order to establish the accuracy of information obtained from participants. Member checking according to
Creswell (2008) is when the researcher ask the participants to confirm the accuracy of information recorded from them. The checking as elaborated by Creswell (2008) is when the researcher takes back the recorded information to the participants so that they confirm their accuracy. In this study, the researcher took the typed transcribed responses to the participants for them to confirm the authenticity of the recorded information before it was used in the study.

3.11.3 Harm

The researcher had to assure participants that their involvement in the study was not going to land them to any injury, discomfort, or danger in any manner. The researcher had to abide by the code of ethics as stipulated in the University of Forte Hare code of conduct.

3.11.4 Voluntary Participation

Babbie and Mouton (2005) are of the opinion that voluntary participation is when one is prepared to engage in an activity without any form of coercion. The researcher in this case engaged participants who were willing to take part in the study. To acknowledge voluntary participation members were asked to sign memos kept by the researcher. Participants were also informed that they were free to withdraw from participating in the study. This was done in order to conform to adhere with the research code of ethics and to respect the rights and privileges of the participants.

3.12 SUMMARY

The chapter discussed the methodology followed in the study under various sub-headings that included the research paradigm that navigated the research focus. The paradigm followed was the interpretive whose strengths and limitations were elaborated. The research approach which is the qualitative was outlined elaborating on its characteristics and shortcomings. The research design chosen was the case study which was explained through justifying its choice and also briefly outlining its limitations. The chapter also focused on the population, sample and sampling procedure followed. The sampling procedure was outlined and the purposive sampling procedure was elaborated justifying its choice for the study. Data collection techniques that include interviews, observations and documentary analysis were
discussed. The semi-structured interview schedule was followed in the study since it was viewed the most suitable for the study. The data analysis, credibility and trustworthiness of the study and ethical consideration were discussed. The next chapter will focus on data presentation, analysis and interpretation.
CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the methodology adopted in this study. This chapter will focus on the presentation and analysis of data. It sought to find out the extent to which secondary school heads were performing their roles as instructional leaders.

Data was collected through face to face interviews using a digital voice recorder. Participants in the study were selected from education officers, school heads and teachers from six secondary schools in Hurungwe Education District of Mashonaland West Province. Observations during staff meetings and analysis of various preparatory and supervisory documents in the schools were carried out in order to triangulate the data obtained through interviews.

The participants in the study were selected through purposive sampling technique from the six secondary schools. Six school heads, two District Education officers and twelve teachers participated in the study. They are identified as follows: school heads (H1-H6); Education officers (E1 and E2); senior teachers (Snr/Tr-H1-H6); and junior teachers (Jnr/Tr-H1-H6).

4.2 BASIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE PARTICIPANTS

Basic information on participants was collected since the biographic data acts as a mirror on the status of participants in understanding instructional leadership roles performed by heads in schools. For example profiling gender is important since the perceptions of participants are normally attached to gender. In this case it would be possible to categorise responses and make inferences on the dominant gender in
the study. The examination of academic and professional qualifications of participants would also assist in determining the ability of the participants to understand the concept of instructional leadership since perceptions could be influenced by educational background. It is in view of the above observations, that the chapter presents biographic data.

4.2.1 Biographic data of participants

Table 4.1 presents gender of participant school heads.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.1 shows that all participant school heads 6 (100%) were male. However their selection was based on the accessibility and also on the fact that their schools had senior teachers who could best supply information on how heads of schools performed instructional leadership in their schools.

Table 4.2 shows gender of teacher participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender: Teachers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 shows the gender of participant teachers. It reveals that males were dominant in the study since they were 10 (83.3%) and females were only 2 (16.7%). Whilst females were a minority in the study, this does not mean that the schools under investigation had fewer women than men. The participants were selected on
the basis that they were the most suitable people who could supply the information on instructional leadership roles performed by heads in schools. Their selection to participate in the study was therefore regardless of their gender status.

The age range of participant heads of schools is profiled in table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Age range of school heads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30 &gt;</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3 reveals that half of the participants 3 (50%) were aged above 50; 2 (33.7%) between 31-40; and 1 (16.3%) between 31-40 years. The age range of heads shows that all participants were mature people. There are certain expectations that come with age group and age range. For example at the age range of the participants it will be assumed that they would be well acquainted with their administrative and instructional leadership roles. Hence, it is presumed that the age range of the participants could positively influence how heads and teachers perform their duties in a particular manner.

Table 4.4 shows the age range of teacher participants by gender.
Table 4.4: Age range of participant teachers by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age range</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30+</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4 provides the age range of teacher participants by gender. Male participants had ages ranging from below 30 to 50 years. Four (40%) of the male participants were below 30 whilst 4 (40%) were aged between 31 and 40 years. Two (20%) were in the age group of 41-50. They were oldest among participant teachers. Of the 2 female participant teachers 1 was in the 31-40 age range and 1 in the 41-50 age group.

Table 4.5 shows experience of participant school heads and teachers.

Table 4.5: Experience of school heads and teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience in years</th>
<th>School Heads</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31+</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5 presents the experience of participant school heads and teachers. Four (33.3%) of participant school heads had experience of between 11-20 years while 2 had experience ranging from 21-30 years. This confirms that heads under study had vast experience in school leadership and administration. Their exposure assisted in
tapping vital information for the study on how they performed instructional leadership roles.

Table 4.5 shows also teaching experience of participant teachers. The teaching experiences of teacher participants varied and this enabled the researcher to obtain divergent ideas on how heads of schools carried out administrative and instructional leadership roles. Three (25%) participant teachers had teaching experience below 5 years which means they only recently graduated. Such participants could have the latest knowledge that might assist in evaluating how heads of schools performed their instructional leadership roles. Two (16.7%) had teaching experience ranging between 5 to 10 years.

However the majority of teacher participants that is 6 (50%) had between 11-20 years experience. This shows that most participant teachers were generally well experienced. One was the most experienced with between 21 to 30 years of teaching. Overall the table shows that most of them were well informed regarding the roles performed by participant school heads since they had long teaching experience. It is assumed that participants with varied experiences might provide valuable information on performance of instructional leadership roles by participant school heads.

Table 4.6 shows the academic qualifications of participant school heads and teachers.

Table 4.6: Academic Qualifications of School Heads and Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>School Heads</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary Level</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced Level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSc/BA Degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.6 shows that all three (50%) participant school heads had Ordinary Level Certificate as their highest academic qualification; one (16.7%) had Advanced Level Certificate; and two (33.3%) had either BSc or BA degrees. Hence, the academic qualifications of all participant school heads ranged from Ordinary and Advanced Level Certificates to degree qualifications. It suggests that all participant school heads had the minimum acceptable qualifications for one to become a teacher.

The Ordinary Level Certificate is the minimum basic entrance qualification considered for entry into Teachers’ Training Colleges in Zimbabwe. Advanced Level Certificate is a qualification obtained after passing the Advanced Level examination normally two years after obtaining Ordinary Level Certificate. BSc or BA degrees are among the highest academic qualifications obtained after passing Advanced Level Certificate.

Regarding participant teachers 3 (25%) had Ordinary Level Certificate as their highest academic qualifications; 5 (41.7) possessed Advanced Level Certificate and 4 (33.3%) had BSc or BA as their highest academic qualifications. The participant teachers had relevant academic qualifications which met the minimum requirement for one to be trained as a teacher in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.7 shows the professional qualifications of participant school heads and teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heads’ Professional Qualifications</th>
<th>School Heads</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Certificate in Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma in Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Education (BEd)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master of Education (MEd)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.7 shows that 2 (33.3%) participant school heads had M.Ed as the highest professional qualification; 1 (16.7%) had Diploma in Education; and 3 (50.0%) had Certificate in Education. Most participant school heads had minimum qualifications acceptable for one to be appointed as head in secondary schools in Zimbabwe.

Table 4.7 presents also the highest professional qualification of participant teachers. Three (25.0%) had Certificates in Education as their highest professional qualifications; 3 (25.0%) had Diplomas in Education; 5 (41.7%) had BEd degrees; and 1 (8.3%) had MEd. Evidently most participant teachers had high professional qualifications as 6 (50%) out of 12 had degrees. It is evident that some participant teachers were improving themselves professionally and had acquired higher educational qualifications. Such experience assisted the researcher in gaining insight on how heads of schools perform instructional leadership duties as participant teachers had broad knowledge of issues under discussion.

Other participants in the study were two education officers who were both male. Regarding academic qualifications one had Advanced Level Certificate while the second one had BA degree. Their professional qualifications were Graduate Certificate in Education and BEd degree.

### 4.3 RESPONSIBILITIES OF HEADS OF SCHOOLS

This part of the study focused on presentation of information on various roles that heads of schools undertake in their endeavour to ensure proper implementation of the curriculum in their schools. The main focus of the study was to find out the extent to which secondary school heads performed instructional leadership roles.

#### 4.3.1 Leadership roles performed by school heads

The study sought to find out the roles that were performed by heads as a way of monitoring performance in schools. The roles of heads in Zimbabwe are stipulated in the Hand Book for School Heads (1993) provided by the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture. The question on leadership roles was therefore asked in order to find out if heads of schools understood leadership in general and instructional leadership in particular. It was evident from the heads’ responses that they were aware of most roles they carried out in schools which are crucial in determining
progress made by their schools. The data revealed that some heads gave more detailed roles than others, for example the head was viewed as a guardian or someone in charge of students and teachers whilst others referred to the head as an instructional leader or supervisor of all activities in the school. Information collected showed that heads carried out mainly supervision of school activities, coordination and control of activities in schools. Some of the head participant’s comments are as follows:

H1: Offhand what comes to my mind is someone who is a driver, guider or someone in charge of guiding both teachers and students in order to achieve the goals or set targets by the nation.

H3: The head of school directs all activities in the school however the head has also other roles that he played outside school routine duties. The duties included counselling parents when they are at logger heads with students from this school and also preside as a commissioner of oaths and assist in certifying certificates from the community and attending to political meetings at times. Such responsibilities stretched my span of attention.

H6: There is instruction; there is leadership that is carried out in the school. As instructional leader I have to think about how the teaching and learning process goes on. As a leader, I think of how I should deal with the instruction and the teaching and supervision of both teachers and pupils. As a curriculum leader I focus on the different areas of the school like what is taught and how to make it more effective in order to benefit the child.

It was however interesting to note that the responses from urban school heads were similar but different from those of rural schools. Participants from urban schools identified the following leadership roles as important (i) supervision, (ii) designing and implementing curriculum and (iii) evaluation of the teaching and learning of pupils. Participants from rural schools were too general in their identification of the heads’ roles. For example, H1 viewed the head as responsible for directing activities in the school, guardian and driver of activities. One of the heads from one of the rural secondary schools revealed that he also carried out other duties outside the routine school duties which included counselling and presiding as commissioner of oaths.
4.3.2 Most important instructional leadership roles performed by heads

The study further inquired about the most important instructional leadership roles performed by heads. This was meant to establish if participant school heads were aware of the most important roles that they should focus on mainly when carrying out their duties as instructional leaders.

Head participants described the most important roles they performed by listing task domains carried out on a daily basis. Data from the heads’ responses reflected similar roles as in the earlier section, with supervision being the most dominant. It was however observed that when heads described their most important roles in the interviews their ‘facial’ expressions changed. Some almost winched as they narrated areas which called for their attention as instructional leaders. This might be a reflection that the heads were concerned and not confident with several roles they carried out. Responses from some heads were expressed follows

**H3:** The head’s most important roles are supervision of records of teachers; schemes; record of marks; and supervision of the teaching and learning in the school. I also check on co-curriculum activities carried out by various teachers. However it is the duty of the Sport Director to directly supervise all sporting activities and timely appraise the head on progress or challenges encountered. As head I am finally answerable to higher offices on all activities in the school.

**H5:** As head I provide resources, direction and incentives to motivate teachers so that they perform duties above board. I have to put in place long range plans so that school activities remain focused. I work through others and delegate duties/tasks to other subordinates. Also I delegate and distribute leadership to subordinates in the school so that I am not seen as carrying out all duties in the school alone. For example I plan for examinations for both internal and external however the actual running of the examinations is carried out by the examinations committee under the chairmanship of the deputy/head.

Teachers were also asked to identify the most important instructional leadership roles carried out by heads. This was meant to find out if the teachers were also aware of some of the most important roles that were performed by heads of schools.
The data established that though teacher participants were able to identify most of the roles performed by heads, they tended to mix instructional leadership roles with management roles. The following were some of the responses.

To verify heads’ responses teachers were also asked to give the most important instructional leadership roles carried out by heads. The participants confirmed similar responses to those highlighted by the heads such as demonstration of lessons, delegating duty to teachers, conducting staff development and monitoring the implementation of rules and regulations. Various roles which are similar to the ones identified by heads were also given by teacher participants. The data revealed the most important roles carried out by heads were; delegation of duty, supervision, monitoring students and teachers, ensuring compliance with discipline and adherence to school curriculum and securing teaching resources. In support of the above, some of the teachers responded as follows:

**Jnr/Tr-H1:** The most important duties of heads include supervision of staff and students through class visits and book inspection; management of all financial transactions in the school, maintains discipline of both teachers and students, secures and distributes resources to all departments in the school, makes sure that all internal and external examinations are run following laid down procedures and facilitates communication networking within the school, from students to teachers and parents at times.

**Jnr/Tr--H5:** Demonstration of lessons are some of the most important duties carried out by the heads. Heads at times delegate duties to HODs or even to ordinary teachers, for example a teacher was at some point sent to represent the head at monthly meetings held and mostly chaired by the District Education Officer.

**Snr/Tr-H2:** The most important duties carried out by heads of schools include; classroom observations, taking disciplinary action on teachers and pupils; liaison within other stake holders; staff development and making sure that the implementation of ministry policy is carried out properly in the school.

It also came to light from data collected that most participants inclusive of heads did not include teaching and research as among the most important roles that are carried out by heads as instructional leaders in schools. This showed that some heads and teachers could be ignorant of the fact that teaching and research are
among the most important roles carried out by heads in schools. To confirm that teaching was not taken seriously in all schools, document analysis reflected that only one out of six heads under investigation had a scheme for lessons taught, while the rest did not have. It was interesting also to note that most of the schemed work by the sole head had two terms that had not been evaluated at all. H1 head defended his failure to have a scheme book by remarking, “I am not comfortable with teaching, and this is why I do not have a scheme book. I do not have adequate time to teach so I do not want to cheat by just having a scheme book without following it.”

The statement was a clear testimony that this particular head was not teaching at all in his school and this explains why teaching may not be viewed as one of the most important roles carried out by heads of schools. Understanding and carrying out of the most important roles in schools by heads enables them to focus mainly on the duties that enhance teaching and learning which may enhance improved performance on pupils.

When participant E1 responded to the question on the most important instructional leadership roles carried out by heads he outlined the same role as those provided by participant heads and teachers. His response was as follows:

_E1: Heads of schools have several roles they carried out in schools and these include teaching, supervision, and maintenance of discipline, management and procurement of teaching resources which are distributed to various departments in the school._

He however observed that heads had too many roles to carry out. The following section presents information gathered on instructional leadership roles performed by school heads.

### 4.4 DEFINING THE SCHOOL MISSION

#### 4.4.1 Crafting the school vision and mission statement

The focus of all activities in the school depends on how well the school is capable of coming up with the most appropriate vision, mission and goals. As a result, head participants were probed on how they design the vision and mission statements with the view of establishing their major input. Head participants confirmed their
involvement in the preparation of the vision, mission statements and goals through coordinating and consulting stakeholders.

Data confirmed that heads of schools received input from SDC members and teachers as they consulted them and used the information in the compilation of the vision and mission statements of the school. The following are some of the head participants’ responses regarding the formulation of vision, and also mission statements of the school.

**H3:** As head I played the coordinating role when designing the vision, mission and goals. I discussed with the SDC through consultation and coordination of activities.

**H4:** I initiated the formulation and left it to the staff to finalize after collecting various responses from the teachers.

**H6:** Well, I think I was instrumental in crafting the vision and mission of the school. Basically it was my vision and my goal as what I wanted the school to embrace. So I was the initiator.

### 4.4.2 Consulting stakeholders on crafting the school vision and mission statements

The formulation of the vision and mission statements of the school requires the input of all stakeholders from the school. Head participants were asked to mention the stakeholders they consulted whilst designing the vision and mission statements and goals of the school. The process of formulating vision and mission statements and goals should be all encompassing hence the need to find out if participant heads included other members of the school community when they created the vision and mission statements and goals of the school.

Data from interviewed head participants confirmed that heads included the whole school community when crafting the vision and mission statements of the schools. The following are some of their statements:

**H2:** I held meetings with teachers and come up with ideas which I floated to other members of staff to get their support.
H3: As head I played a coordinating role. I deliberated with the school development committee through consultation and coordination of activities in the school.

H4: I initiated the formulation of the vision and mission statements of the school and left it to other staff to finalise.

H5: The head provided the framework of the vision and mission statements and marketed the draft to teachers to obtain their support. Teachers of course had their input on the final draft.

H6: The Deputy/Head, staff development committee and the whole staff eventually participated in the crafting of the vision and mission statements of the school.

However, there were junior teacher participants who were divided on the issue of involving the whole school stakeholders. Some confirmed that they were consulted whilst others said they were not consulted at all. The following are some of their statements:

Jnr/Tr-H2: I did not take part in the design of the vision and mission of the school.

Jnr/Tr-H5: Our school is big, hence head delegates to HoDs who in turn consult teachers in the department.

Jnr/Tr-H6: Although teachers were consulted, senior teachers were mainly involved in the design of the vision and mission of the school.

Reasons for consulting senior teachers more could border around the fact that senior teachers were generally expected to be more experienced and acquainted with how schools operate. However junior teachers could also possess new ideas that might be useful in crafting the vision and mission statements of the school. It was therefore of paramount importance that all teachers were consulted during the process of formulating the vision and mission statements of the school in order to enable cross pollination of ideas. If all teachers are consulted it is most likely that they would work hard to realise the goals of the school. This is evidenced by their responses below:

Snr/Tr-H1: I have always participated on the drafting of the vision and mission statements of the school.
Snr/Tr-H3: When school opened in 2005-the first teachers were asked to bring their own ideas. Deliberations were carried out and we came up with the vision and mission statements currently followed in the school.

Snr/Tr-H4: As a teacher I was invited to research on what was to be included in the vision and mission statements.

District officials acknowledged the need of school heads to involve all the members of the school community in formulating vision and mission statements. One of them stated:

E1: Schools should consult relevant stake holders, for example parents, teachers, and pupils when designing the vision and mission statements of the school.

4.4.3 Reviews on the vision, mission statements and goals by heads

Head participants were requested to explain how they carried out reviews on the vision, mission statements and goals of the school with a view of establishing the frequency of the exercise. Data confirmed that there were mixed responses from heads of schools since some indicated that reviews were carried out whenever necessary whilst others stated that they were carried out within a specified period. Under normal circumstances reviews on the vision, mission and goals of the school should be carried out once per year, especially at the beginning of the year. However, minor adjustments could be made in the course of the year if deemed necessary. Responses from some of the heads are indicated below:

H1: We carry out reviews on the vision and mission statements annually and attempt to find out if there were any results or achievements on the goals set so that we fine tune the vision and mission statements of the school accordingly.

H5: Naturally there is no specific period settled to review the vision and mission. It’s an over recurring process. In meetings we always evaluate. This is not done systematically, there is continuous evaluation of the vision and mission statements.

H6: Not officially, but always you have members making comments or contributions on the vision and mission statements of the school during meetings and other
briefings. Such comments trigger the need to adjust the vision and mission statements of the school.

In response to the same question, most junior and senior teachers disagreed with the heads. They indicated that there were no reviews that were carried out on the vision and mission statements of the schools. Jnr/Tr-H1 acknowledged that, “The vision and mission statements were never reviewed.” Snr/Tr-H6 elaborated further: “No review was carried out though we are supposed to review the vision and mission statements to suite what is happening. However, it is sad to note that no one is making a follow up to the changes!”

It was, however, noticed that on all main staff meeting minute books analysed from the six secondary schools, there was no mention of schools having reviewed their vision and mission statements. Staff development minutes also did not reflect discussions on the re-visit of the vision and mission statements of the schools. There was also no mention of any reviews having been conducted in the twelve main staff meetings attended and recorded by the researcher. This confirms the above statements by participant Jnr/Tr-H2 and Snr/Tr-H6 who indicated that schools did not at times carry out reviews on their vision and mission statements and contradicts what the heads under study indicated.

4.4.4 Setting Goals

Head participants were probed on whether they set own goals for the purpose of guiding school operations.

Data revealed that there was general consensus that schools set their own goals which guided both heads and teachers in their daily activities so that they remained focused on carrying out the schools’ core business. Most head participants reiterated that the goals set by the schools were set within the acceptable ministerial confinements in order to uphold standards in schools. The following are the comments received from some head participants:

H2: Yes, schools set their own goals but they have to be in line with the ministry’s policy. There is need to include new changes for example change in the focus of education with emphasis on the two path way in education with emphasis on technology and child friendly issues which were not initially included in the vision and
mission statements of the schools. There is also a home cultural officer at District Office, hence the need to have a cultural officer at school level to facilitate the coordination of cultural activities. The above demands call for the school’s vision, and mission statements to be revisited in order to re-direct the focus of schools.

H3: It does-follow general guidelines, at the end we set our own goals.

H6: Yes, the school set its own goals in addition to the district office and the ministry of education. The school sets its own goals as to what they would want to do within the acceptable standards of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture.

Teachers were also asked to comment on whether schools set their own goals to guide their school operations. Most teacher participants confirmed that schools set their own goals and this is confirmed below:

Jnr/Tr-H2: Yes the school set its own goals.

Snr/Tr-H1: Themes are established and goals set during staff meeting deliberations in the school.

Snr/Tr-H5: Yes, the school set its own goals to focus on.

To support the above statements, minutes analysed by the researcher from the schools under investigation revealed that in one of the schools the HOD’s minutes reflected that teachers set targets for ‘O’ and ‘A’ level pass rates in a particular year. This is viewed as a positive way of empowering the departments through setting their own targets aimed at improving the performance of students. In this way the head of department would strive to make sure that the department attempts to achieve the set goals. This allows the head to focus on other duties like teaching and report writing since he/she will have distributed other responsibilities to HODs.

4.4.5 Consultation of Stakeholders when setting school goals

In order to establish if goal setting in schools included voices from other members of the school community head participants were probed if they included stake holders in the process.

Data revealed that heads of schools indicated that all stake holders in the school community were involved in setting school goals in order to garner support for
school activities. Those consulted included the School Development Council or School Development Association, which represent parents, teachers and in some cases, pupils: Some of the responses are elaborated below;

**H2:** The Head consult teachers when setting goals; in fact the actual setting of goals is done by teachers. When we set the 5 year development programme for the school we also include the School Development Association, especially on infrastructural development.

**H3:** All staff members are involved. The end product is reviewed by the administration and later sent to the teachers for their final input and approval. Although the School Development Council normally approves it does not get involved into the technical issues of the school.

**H5:** Heads, teachers, parents and pupils are consulted because parents at some stage are expected to provide various resources for the school; hence it is necessary to consult them when setting goals of the school.

Analysis of meeting minutes by the researcher showed that in one of the schools the head reminded teachers to revisit the school vision and mission statements in order to accommodate changes in the focus of the school goals. The head confirmed that he had made his input and was waiting for all teachers’ recommendations. The changes that needed accommodation were the new focus of the education on cultural studies and child friendly issues among other new developments such as the introduction of the two pathway system into education. In this case it was evident that this particular head included all members of staff in setting the goals of the school. There was no evidence in the minutes accessed of heads from other schools reminding teachers of the need to remain focused on set vision and mission statements.

Responses from both junior and senior teachers revealed that heads at times consulted teachers when setting goals of the school. However, other members did not agree, evidenced by Jnr/Tr-H3 who lamented thus: “I am not consulted when goals are set but expected to comply”. Other responses are captured below:

**Jnr/Tr-H4:** Yes I am consulted, especially on short term goals, for example, when predicting the expected percentage pass rate at departmental level.
Snr/Tr-H2: Yes, normally I am consulted when making briefings, for example, when discussing about curriculum or sports issues.

In support of the need for heads of schools to always consult stake holders when setting school goals E1 commented:

Heads of schools have to consult parents, referring to policy circulars; they carry out discussions with teachers and pupils, consulting responsible authorities especially where church organisations are involved. They should as well consult the staff and SDC.

4.4.6 Ensuring adherence to the vision and mission statements

The study sought to find out how heads made sure that schools remained focused on the vision and mission statements as a way of ensuring quality control in schools.

Data reflected that heads of schools monitor the realisation of the vision and mission statements, inclusive of goals, by various approaches. The latter included among others, holding regular meetings with the staff, delegating duties to HODs, making consultations with teachers and reviewing school progress. To confirm this, some heads had the following to say:

H2: I hold regular meetings with staff and School Development Association to review achievements. Staff briefings are carried out on Mondays and Wednesdays where we review these issues.

H3: The school makes sure that supervision is carried out more often. Consultation with the District Education Officer and Directorate are always made in order to obtain direction in school operations where necessary. More resources are purchased in order to enhance proper teaching by teachers.

H4: As head of school, I often carry out frequent supervision on subordinates to make sure that teachers remain focused on the goals, mission and vision statements of the school. I constantly strive to live up to our goal by reviewing and seeing that the targets are met. This is done through holding staff meetings and pointing out areas of strengths and weaknesses. Heads of departments also make sure that they
fulfil their departmental vision and mission statements which complement the school's main vision and mission statements.

Teachers were asked to input on how heads made sure that teachers adhered to the vision, and mission statements of the school. This was meant to have an input from teachers on how heads of schools carried out their supervisory practices in schools.

Teachers reiterated that heads were not doing enough in making sure that subordinates remained focused on the vision and mission statements of the school. Teachers revealed that heads failed to make checks and balances and that heads were generally complacent and rarely made follow ups on the realisation of the vision and mission of the school. However, other teacher participants felt that heads of schools were making efforts to align teachers to the vision and mission statement of the school. Teacher participants made the following remarks:

Snr/Tr-H3: “Head aligns teacher's achievements to the vision and mission statements.”

Snr/Tr-H6: “Nothing was being done to ensure adherence to the vision and mission statements”.

Jnr/Tr-H1: Heads do not make adequate proper checks and balances as there is more of reactive than proactive response to situations in the school.

Analysis of minutes of end of second term main staff meeting from one of the schools under investigation revealed that the head as chairperson of the meeting commenced by reading the vision and mission statements of the school and emphasised the need for HODs and teachers to remain focused on them. This was viewed as a way of ensuring that teachers lived up to the vision and mission statements set in the school which essential in the achievement of the goals set for the school.

Education officer E2 confirmed what heads and other teachers said. He acknowledged the need for heads to delegate and distribute duties to subordinates so that they shed off some of their responsibilities, for example, lesson observations and book inspection. Such roles could be delegated to HODs. He stated: “Heads of schools make sure that schools live up to the set goals by delegating class and book inspection supervision to HODs and other members of the administration.”
Observations by the researcher confirmed E2’s assertion above in most schools under study, especially on the delegation of duties to HODs. It was observed that HODs carried out supervision in their respective departments and made representations to heads. HODs were also empowered to make teacher deployment in schools under study and had authority to purchase materials for their departments. The deployment is done when HODs allocate periods to teachers bearing in mind their experience, expertise and dedication to duty. The ordering and purchasing of school resources is also the HODs responsibility so that there are adequate resources for use by teachers.

In both main staff meetings observed in H4 school, the HODs were given time to reflect on their achievements and constraints which called for the head’s attention. In his opening remarks in one of the main staff meetings the head said, “Gone are those days when the school did not recognise the role of the HODs, now the school is going to put a lot of weight on HODs since they are the backbone of the school success.” This statement was meant to empower or distribute leadership to HODs so that they supervised their departments and made reports to the head. This was viewed as a positive way of shading off some roles from the head so that the latter is able to focus on the teaching and learning aspects in the school. The researcher also observed that in H6 School which had double sessions, the head empowered four senior teachers to preside over learners disciplinary issues. Ten students were therefore disciplined for various cases in the presence of the researcher. One serious case was referred to the deputy head and later to the head.

4.5 MANAGING THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMME

Data collected focussed on finding out how participant school heads perform their role of managing the instructional programme. Information was collected on different aspects related to supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress.

4.5.1 Selection of school curriculum

Heads were asked to elaborate on how they selected school curriculum in order to find out if they were at liberty to select the curriculum of their own.
Most heads confirmed that government stipulated core subjects that are compulsory in schools. However, schools are at liberty to choose practical subjects they intended to offer depending on school location and availability of resources. Tertiary requirements were also identified as some of the determinant factors in the selection of the curriculum. For students to be absorbed into tertiary institutions like colleges and universities there is need for the schools to follow a given curriculum that suites the requirements of the institutions. In response on how heads of schools selected their curriculum, participants stated:

**H1:** Subject selection is directed by government policy especially on core subjects. However schools are free to select practical subjects they intend to introduce in the school based on availability of resources.

**H5:** There are 6 core subjects that are compulsory; English, Maths, Science, Geography, History and Shona or Ndebele. However the choice of practical subjects is optional and up to the school and its environment location, for example a school in an agro-based environment would choose agriculture.

**H6:** When choosing the curriculum one looks at the environment where the school is located. For example our school is located in a town, where there is a lot of business, building and metal-workshops. As a result the school curriculum include subjects related to this environment hence the school offers many practical subjects such as Technical Graphics, Woodwork, Metalwork etc.

### 4.5.2 Process of curriculum selection

Participant heads were requested to identify those that assisted them in the selection of curriculum in order to find out if they involved other stake holders in the process.

Data gathered confirmed that in selecting the curriculum heads of schools relied mainly on teachers and HODs and those in the administration who included the deputy head, senior master, and senior woman. However, this was refuted by teachers who felt that they were left out of the process of curriculum selection. Below are responses from some of the heads and teachers:
H5: I consult the deputy head and HODs who in turn consult teachers in the departments. Discussions are also carried out during staff meetings to ensure the involvement of all teachers in the school.

H6: When selecting the curriculum of the school we use HODs as specialists in their various subject areas because they know what is going on in their subjects. I also make use of my administration council which sit together with HODs and discuss the curriculum, whether it needs adjustment or whether the subjects offered have outlived their importance or relevance. Where the curriculum requires adjustment, HODs and the council recommends to the administration the adjustments to be made.

Data collected from teacher participants disputed that they were included in curriculum selection as stated in the previous comments. Teachers were not consulted in most cases in the selection of the school curriculum and this is evident in responses below:

Jnr/Tr-H2: The academic board which is made up of selected HODs and the deputy head as chairperson are responsible for selecting the school curriculum. Teachers are not consulted in most cases.

Snr/-H2: “Heads of departments, deputy head and the head were the only people responsible for curriculum selection in the school. Teachers are not included in most cases.”

Jnr Tr-H5: Those involved in curriculum selection in the school are HODs, deputy head and the head of school. As a teacher I am not consulted but I am just given a teaching load to teach.

In view of the fact that most curriculum issues are discussed in the main staff meetings, observations made by the researcher revealed that most teachers do not actively take part in such meetings. When one teacher participant was asked why he was marking in one of the meetings attended by the researcher he said, “The head does not consider my contributions or that of other teachers but his decisions are upheld in most cases so why should I waste my time contributing in meetings where my ideas are not considered?”
### 4.5.3 Frequency of curriculum review in schools

The study sought to find out how often heads of schools carried out curriculum review. In view of various changes taking place due to social changes and technological advancement, it was necessary to find out how heads accommodated such changes in the school curriculum.

Information collected revealed that heads reviewed curriculum at different times and for various reasons mainly by adding new subjects or discontinuing certain subjects. Some participant heads were in agreement that they carried out curriculum review yearly whereas the majority of head participants had varying explanations on when they carried out curriculum reviews. Among the reasons from the latter was that curriculum review was carried out when there were problems identified in the school system. For example, when specialist teachers could not be found in certain subject areas and also when there were policy changes that compelled the need to review the curriculum. Another example given was the introduction of the two path way system into education initiated by the Zimbabwean Ministry of Education Sport and Culture which put emphasis on the need for students to do two practical subjects. This shift of emphasis called for change or review of the school curriculum. Curriculum could also be reviewed as a result of directives from Education officials. For example, H4 participant stated that the Permanent Secretary asked the school to introduce a new subject. The comments from some of the head participants were as detailed below:

**H3:** The review of the school curriculum was done following the two path way policy as a directive from the MoESC, and as a result the school offered pure science and vocational-technical subjects as a directive.

**H4:** At the moment the school is trying to meet the target of the Ministry. For example when I was speaking to the Secretary of Education he recommended that we should include Food and Nutrition in our curriculum, hence we have to adjust accordingly. Whilst we should always review curriculum yearly, at times we are given directives by higher offices as elaborated above.

**H5:** As a school we review our curriculum whenever there are staff changes or curriculum changes in the school.
Teacher participants were also requested to explain their experiences in the school on how often the curriculum is reviewed. Data collected confirmed that reviews were not systematically carried out as confirmed by the comments by some of the teacher participants below:

Jnr/Tr-H2: The school curriculum was reviewed twice in the past 5 years, and since the curriculum followed had too many subjects it was necessary to review it.

Snr/Tr-H3: The school curriculum is reviewed when there is need, for example when introducing cadetship on defence as a directive from the Ministry of Defence, and cultural issues from the Ministry of Education.

### 4.5.4 People recommending the process of curriculum review

Heads were requested to identify those entrusted with recommending curriculum review in schools and how they carry out the process. It was necessary to find out those involved in recommending curriculum reviews and how the heads carry out the process of initiating curriculum review to establish how heads included other players in curriculum review.

The responses showed that heads consulted many players when making curriculum changes in schools. These included the Ministry of Education as the regulatory body; the parents represented by the School Development Council SDC (private schools) or School Development Associations SDA (public schools), and teachers. However, data revealed that previous pass rates are considered also when making recommendations for curriculum changes targeting phasing away subjects which are usually failed by pupils. In the same vein, information gathered on initiating curriculum revealed that heads generally consult other stake holders when initiating curriculum review in schools. The following are responses from participant heads:

H2: Usually we look at previous pass rates to implement changes and teachers recommend the reviews (subjects with problems are reviewed). Teachers are normally in charge of curriculum review in schools.

H3: Parent body can as well call for curriculum review (School Development Council) e.g. offering of art subjects. Parents can recommend the review of subjects
to include science subjects. Teachers normally have the final say on the curriculum to be followed in the school.

H5: Curriculum review is more of a Ministerial requirement, for example the introduction of the two pathway system in education. The Ministry of Education selects core subjects and schools are left to identify practical subjects with little lee way.

H1: When initiating curriculum in the school, a meeting is held where all members of staff would be present and then discuss and hear any particular subject they intend to follow in the school curriculum. Parents and students are at times consulted whenever it is deemed necessary.

4.5.5 Classroom observations and feedback

In this section the study focused on how heads of schools carried out lesson or classroom observations in schools. Participants were asked to give the number of times they carried out supervision in order to establish the pattern followed when carrying out classroom observations. They were also asked to acknowledge if they were benefiting from the observations carried out and how heads gave feedback on the lessons observed. Participants were also asked questions that sought to establish if heads of schools followed modern supervision practices such as clinical supervision during lesson observations and whether teachers benefitted from the clinical supervision.

Data revealed that heads of schools employed various methods when carrying out lesson observations. This suggests that they were familiar with what they were supposed to do when carrying out lesson observations. Whilst heads of schools under study confirmed that they carried out lesson observations more often, this claim was not substantiated with lesson observation reports on teachers in most cases. However, diaries reflecting when lesson observations were carried with the assistance of senior teachers in the schools were followed by some heads under study whilst others did not. It emerged that at times heads consulted the supervisees prior to carrying out lesson observations whilst others did not see the need to do so.
Announced visits are in line with modern supervisor practices such as clinical supervision which advocates for coordination and collaboration between the supervisor and the supervisee. Heads confirmed that they planned lesson observations programmes in advance at the beginning of the term. Data collected also revealed that some heads of schools normally delegated lesson observation to the deputy head and senior teachers so that they made follow up on recommendations made by the senior teachers. The following are comments from participant heads regarding classroom observation:

H2: Sometimes I advise the teacher about my visit but in some cases I don’t. At times I simply move around and call teachers and comment on my findings. I do not tell them in advance about my visit because at times they prepare thoroughly hence an artificial lesson would be observed and as a result, the teacher will do things that he/she doesn’t normally do in a lesson.

H4: At the beginning of the term, a school diary is made with dates when head will be visiting departments. New teachers are visited by the head. HODs are visited as well by the head. Discussions are held before and after lessons are carried out as a way of establishing rapport with the supervisee.

H6: The Deputy Head and heads of departments carry out lesson observations on teachers on behalf of the head. As head I usually visit those teachers whose heads of departments observed some inadequacy in their execution of duty.

Data from the study confirmed that teachers had different views on how heads carried out lessons. Teachers made similar observations with heads when they concurred that heads at times informed teachers in advance about their intentions to carry out lesson observations on them. In the same vein, it emerged that other heads did not make prior announcement about their lesson observation visits. It also emerged that heads rarely made visits on teachers but allowed senior teachers to carry out lesson observations and report to the head for follow up. This was viewed as a strategy of assisting the head in running school affairs. The following are comments from the teacher participants:
Jnr/Tr-H1: The head selects a teacher from a given department and the teacher is informed about the head’s visit. Then the teacher selects a subject and class. No discussion of lesson is done in advance.

Jnr/Tr-H6: The Head rarely does give notice of intended lesson observations, the reason being that he has too many duties to carry out in the school. As a result he is unable to fulfil supervisory commitments in most cases.

Snr/Tr-H6: The head rarely carries out lesson observations but the deputy head, senior master and senior woman carried out the observations and the head makes some follow-up.

The fact that often the head did not carry out lesson observations on his own but asked other senior teachers to do so, reveals that the head is conscious about the need to involve senior teachers in carrying out some of the supervisory duties as a coping strategy. To further elaborate on how the head carries out supervisory duties, it is spelt out that the head made follow up on observation reports made by senior teachers as a way of evaluating teachers’ performance of duty.

4.5.5.1 The frequency of classroom observations

Heads of schools were requested to tell how often they carried out lesson observations as a way of monitoring teachers’ performance of duty against set standards.

The data established that whilst heads of schools attempted to carry out lesson observations in their respective schools, they did not carry them out as scheduled at times. Analysis of heads’ reports confirmed the same when one of the schools under investigation could not avail reports made on teachers in a particular term. It is the head's responsibility to make sure that all reports on teachers are made and safely kept in order to make a follow up on the recommendations. Ministerial requirements stipulate the need for heads as instructional leaders to at least observe each teacher three times per year if meaningful learning is to be enhanced (MoESC 1993). Any deviation from this ministerial requirement is detrimental to the enhancement of school achievement and improvement of student performance.
Data gathered reflected that heads of schools differed on the number of times that they should carry out lesson observations on subordinates. The majority stated that they carried out lesson observations at least once per year per teacher. Only one participant confirmed that he carried out lesson observations twice per year, and also he did not teach because there were adequate teachers to teach all classes in his school. Despite not teaching, the participant complained that he was expected to carry out military duties in addition to school duties hence could not supervise teachers effectively. The Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe stipulates that heads should observe each teacher at least once per term, which translates to at least three times per year per teacher. The load on lesson observations is however, lessened in situations where heads of schools delegate duties to other subordinates. Participants’ responses recorded revealed the following:

H2: I observe lessons once per term for permanent teachers and twice per term for untrained teachers.

H3: I carry out observations two times per year on some teachers. However, I fail to observe all teachers as per regulation due to having to undertake too many roles in the school, particularly administrative duties. (Head showed a winched face to register concern). The army also requires the head to carry out other military duties outside school duties and as result, supervision is not carried out properly at times.

H6: head was unhappy with the overwhelming workload when he said, “Given the number of teachers in my school-86-(paused)-on average I carry out lessons once per year.”

Information collected from teachers supported heads when they also confirmed that heads carried out lesson observations once per year per teacher. They however stated that the supervision was not consistent at times. The following are some of the comments from the participants:

Jnr/Tr-H3 and Jnr/Tr-H4 both said; “Heads of schools carry out lesson observations once per year.”
Snr/Tr-H3: also confirmed that heads carried out lesson observations as stated above, but added “Heads carry out lesson observations once per year, though the supervision carried out is inconsistent in most cases.”

Snr/Tr-H5: and Snr/Tr-H6 concurred that heads carried out lesson observations once per year on the average which is in agreement with most heads of schools.

### 4.5.5.2 Feedback given to teachers on lesson observations

Heads were asked to give explanations on how they rendered feedback to subordinates to ensure that teachers reflected on the recommendations given by supervisors.

The collected information seems to portray that heads of schools follow a similar pattern when giving feedback to subordinates. This is done through discussions on the strengths and weaknesses of observed lessons and finally a lesson observation report is written. The supervisee is later asked to sign the observation report to confirm the recommendations made by the supervisor. As a result responses from most head participants revealed that they gave feedback to subordinates through discussions immediately after lesson observation. The following are some of their comments:

**H1:** We discuss the whole lesson and give recommendations on improvements and positive comments.

**H4:** After a lesson observation, I write a report on the observations made and discuss the observations with the teacher. Even if the teacher did well there is always a need to discuss the feedback and also get the teacher’s input on the development of the lesson. There is always a dialogue between the supervisor and supervisee.

Responding on how heads gave feedback on the lesson observations carried out, teacher respondents made the following comments:
Jnr/Tr-H1: Soon after lesson observations-one on one discussion is carried out where strengths and weaknesses are highlighted and finally the teacher signs the observation report which is later filed.

Snr/Tr-H5 Head produces a report after observation which shows strengths and weaknesses which are discussed and I sign.

The above observation made by some of the participant teachers corroborate what was said by participant heads.

**4.5.5.3 How teachers benefit from lesson observations**

Heads were asked to explain whether teachers benefited from lesson observations that they carried out as a way of establishing the impact of their supervision on subordinates.

It emerged from the data that observations carried out by heads of schools could be instrumental in the improvement of instructional performance of teachers and could possibly enhance improved students’ performance. Participants spelt out that teachers gained through being guided by the feedback given by heads during discussions on strengths and weaknesses on observed lessons. In some cases participants confirmed that better results were realised as a result of the supervision carried out by heads. The following are some of the comments from participant heads:

H3: Yes the supervision does improve instructional skills of the teachers to some extent since discussions carried out after the lessons highlight the strengths and weaknesses of the lessons which eventually guide the teacher in the performance of his or her duty.

H6: I would want to think that the supervision carried out by heads improves teacher’s instructional skills because the aim of supervision is to enhance learning. Focusing on teacher’s strengths and weaknesses and making suggestions would undoubtedly result in improvement of his/her practice.
However, participant E1 was cautious when he stated that the success of supervision depended on the knowledge of the head on supervisory practices and how feedback was rendered to teachers. In other words he advocated for the need for heads of schools to be on familiar ground with supervision practices in order to guide teachers adequately and the need to give immediate feedback after observations. The contribution from E1 participant was as follows: *It depends on whether the head is knowledgeable or not on educational matters. However teachers benefit a great deal if proper feedback is given by the head.*

4.5.5.4 Benefits of clinical supervision to schools

Clinical supervision is a modern practice which focuses at developing less experienced teachers by experienced individuals in the school through collaborative supervisory approaches. It is however different from general supervision which focus on the day to day management duties. This section concentrates on the contributions from participants on the benefits obtained for clinical supervision in the schools under investigation.

Information obtained revealed that where clinical supervision is carried out there are a number of benefits to the school which include the existence of collegial relationship between the supervisor and supervisee where the supervisee relates cordially with the supervisor, reduction of conflicts due to openness and collegiality that exist in the school community, it promotes confidence on teachers and build trust between the supervisor and supervisee because of the collective approach in the planning and teaching of lessons. It also emerged that where supervisors are not knowledgeable or do not employ clinical supervision stages, hence this militated negatively on school effectiveness and performance of pupils in general. The following comments were made by head participants:

*H3: There are better instructional approaches rendered to pupils from schools that implement clinical supervision and such schools are generally more organised in the teaching and learning of students.*

*H4: Clinical supervision enables the creation of a friendly working environment. It avoids fear by some supervisors. Clinical supervision promotes adequate teaching*
content. It promotes teacher confidence and builds supervisor-supervisee confidence.

H6: I feel there is more trust between me and teachers. The head is genuine that he wants to help. We do not have conflicts between the head and supervisee concerning lesson supervision.

However one of the teacher participants felt that some heads are knowledgeable about clinical supervision as a result, they were not implementing it.

Snr/Tr-06: some heads are not familiar with clinical supervision and are not following it in their schools as a result cordial relationships are in some cases strained between the head and some teachers because of unfriendly supervision approaches followed by the head.

Education officer E1 was philosophical about the positive and benefits of carrying out clinical supervision in schools when he made the following comment:

E1: I think where it is being implemented there is improvement in the execution of teaching by teachers. Probably it is difficult to notice such improvement since it is not wholesomely carried out in schools.

4.5.6 Inspecting pupils’ exercise books

In order to establish how heads of schools monitored the amount of work given to pupils it was necessary to find out the frequency of carrying out book inspection by heads, how they gave feedback and challenges encountered in carrying out book inspection. The changes on the time spent when carrying out book inspection were also established.

The head of school or any delegated individual is expected to scrutinise all exercise books in a particular form and on all teachers in the school. This is done in an effort to establish the quantity and suitability of work given to students by teachers. Following a book inspection diary for the term, the head is expected to take note of the neatness and accuracy of the work given to students. Feedback on observation made by the head is immediately conveyed to the teacher for corrective measures to be effected. The feedback is done verbally first and a written report is issued so that
the teacher can have a platform to interact with the head and clarify issues on observations made.

Collected information from head participants revealed that most heads carried out book inspection at least once per term. However, some inconsistencies were observed on how heads of schools carried out book inspection due to re-directing their attention on other duties such as attending unscheduled meetings and also meeting parents and visitors who report to the school unannounced. The fact that H4 head participant indicated below that he carried out book inspection when students complained suggest that if there were no complaints the head in question was not going to carry out such inspection. In contrast to the foregoing representation, the majority of the participants asserted that they carried out book inspection once per term and exercise books were in most cases randomly collected. Responses from some of the participants interviewed are below:

H1: “If all goes well—once per term,” When the participant was asked to elaborate what he meant by “If all goes well.” He explained that if he had adequate time to carry out the inspection then he would do so, suggesting that there was inconsistency in carrying out book inspection by this particular head.

H3: Book inspection is carried out once per term. Schemes of work are sent to the head with exercise books following the school diary. At times as head I ask teachers to submit all exercise books to the deputy head or senior teachers in order to write book inspection reports.

In support of H1 sentiments, H4 participant had the following to say on book inspection, “I carry out book inspection as often as possible however I cannot be specific since I carry them out when students raise complaints on a teacher.”

However, responses from teacher participants differed from those given by heads of schools. One of the teacher participants remarked that book inspection was rarely carried out by the head with others stating that book inspection was carried out once per year. It was also interesting that one of the teacher participants confirmed that the frequency of carrying out book inspection on senior teachers was different from junior teachers. To substantiate the above, teacher participants made the following responses:
Jnr/Tr-H3: Book inspection is not carried out often in the school by the head due to his busy schedule.

Snr/Tr-H3: Book inspection is carried out once per term however this is not enough because the head runs two offices-military and the school.

Jnr/Tr-H1: Book inspection is done once per term however senior teachers are supervised once per year.

4.5.6.1 Feedback on book inspection

The study sought to find out how heads rendered feedback on teachers on book inspection carried out. The main reason of asking input from heads on how they monitored the amount of work given to students was to enhance teacher performance which translates into increased student performance too.

Data collected revealed that heads of schools gave feedback to subordinates through discussions on observations made in the exercise books. Reports were written also as a follow up to the discussion and a copy given to the supervisee.

The majority of head participants asserted that they carried out feedback on the book inspection through verbal discussions with teachers on one to one basis. The verbal discussions were later put in writing so that copies are given to the teacher for future reference. According to the data the discussion focus mainly on strengths, weaknesses and recommendations on observed exercise books. Head participants made the following comments on how they carried out book inspection among teachers:

H1: Teachers are called in and discussions held with the head and the teacher is shown the amount of work which is supposed to be given to pupils. Expectations from the policy that stipulate amount of work to be given to pupils per subject are also discussed with the teacher.

H4: I produce a report stating strengths, weaknesses and recommendations. One to one discussion with the teacher is carried out. General comments during staff meetings and staff development sessions are made to appraise teachers on the general progress made in giving pupils work.
H5: Under normal circumstances this is done together with the teacher assisting me to identify books to inspect. If I need a formal report I write the report and the teacher is at liberty to acknowledge the report. Discussions with the teacher are carried out first.

Whilst teachers confirmed that reports were written by heads and discussions carried out as stated above, minutes of staff meetings analysed did not reflect heads making general comments as alleged by the same participants above. Whilst discussions are carried out on a one to one basis the head is at liberty to discuss the general observations with members of staff in meetings for the benefit of other members of staff.

4.5.6.2 Changes on time spent on book inspection

Heads were asked to explain if there were any changes on the time they spent carrying out book inspection. Responses from heads helps in determining the effect of the changes on the performance of duty by heads of schools.

Most participants admitted that there were changes noted on the time spent by heads in carrying out book inspections in schools. Data gathered showed that more time was generally spent due to certain policy directives that increased the responsibilities of heads. However it emerged that in some schools less time was spent as heads delegated certain responsibilities to other subordinates such as the deputy head, senior teachers and HODs. In comparison more participants indicated that less time was spent by heads when carrying out book inspection whilst fewer spelt out that more time was spent in carrying out book inspection. Less time could have been spent on book inspection maybe because heads of schools concentrated on fewer teachers and hence took less time due to reduced number of exercise books inspected. More time could have also be spent as illustrated above due to heads of schools taking more time when writing reports or it could be due to increased enrolments in schools where heads would be sampling more books for inspection. The following are participants’ comments on the times spent when carrying out book inspection by heads of schools:
H1: Yes, since the idea of having added responsibilities has taken much of the time, less time has been spent carrying out book inspection since fewer books were sampled.

H3: Yes I carry out inspections more often now than previously. Policy directives require this.

H6: Yes there was a change since book inspections carried out were reduced due to heads’ failure to inspect more books because of carrying out other duties such as teaching, lesson observations and attending to unscheduled meetings at District and Provincial offices.

The District Education officer observed that there was in general limited monitoring of school activities by heads in various schools. This is due to too many roles performed by the heads hence less time was spent on book inspection. E2 spelt out that the District Education Office tended to complain about the limited supervision carried out of late by heads of schools on book inspection and other supervisory aspects such as lesson observations. The reasons given were that heads often complained of having too many roles on their shoulders hence they spend less time on supervising.

The majority of both junior and senior teachers agreed that there were changes on the time spent by heads of schools carrying out book inspection for the past five years. They stated:

Jnr/Tr-H1; School is developing hence heads have too much to do in the offices as a result he at times delegates to HODs, Deputy Head and senior teachers to carry out most supervisory duties.

Snr/Tr-H2: The head spends less time on supervision since he has too many duties to perform in the school. As a result teachers end up not being supervised regularly. As a consequence the results in the school are generally poor.
4.5.7 Provision of resources

Heads of schools were asked to debate on how they made sure that departments in the school had adequate teaching and learning resources as a way of making sure that teachers teach with adequate teaching and learning materials.

Information collected from head participants showed that the majority of head participants made use of HODs in the identification of inadequate resources in various departments. They are later presented to the finance committee in the school for approval before purchases are made. According to the information obtained there is always inadequate provision of material resources in schools which adversely affect the smooth running of schools. Some head participants responded to the issue of resources as follows:

H1: This has been a problem since as a school we never had adequate resources, though as a school we always attempted to acquire adequate resources.

H2: Take regular stock checks every term. HODs present their requests. SDA’s role is to encourage payment of fees to purchase resources.

H3: Departments sit and budget their requirements and submit them for consideration. The purchase and distribution of resources is done by the school finance committee.

H6: As head I communicate with HODs to identify shortages of equipment or manpower needed in the school.

4.5.8 How school heads protect instructional time

In order to establish how heads of schools were monitoring the performance of teachers, participants were asked how they ensured that teachers attended to their classes as timetabled. Data was gathered from participants on how heads made sure that there was adherence to teaching times in schools and the challenges encountered by heads in ensuring that teachers adhered to the teaching time.
4.5.8.1 Adhering to teaching time

Data collected from all participants including education officers; heads; and teachers’ were complimentary. The data confirmed that heads made sure that teachers stuck to the teaching times through conducting informal supervision, delegation of duty and empowering pupils (monitors) to report teachers who failed to attend to their lessons as specified on the time table. Monitors are normally asked to record the times a teacher report for duty and departure time and further assesses whether they will have benefited from the lesson taught.

Though it might be difficult for students to assess a teacher, they are at times able to tell whether the teacher was adequately prepared for the lesson. Such information assist heads in making follow ups on teachers who might need further assistance in lesson delivery. The data also revealed that heads of schools conducted walk-through (WT) or Management by Wandering (MBWA) observations which were normally unannounced classroom observations carried out by heads. WTs are informal observations intended to capture a true reflection of what takes place in the classroom as the teacher will be delivering the lesson (Ovando and Ramirez Jnr. 2007).

Participant heads made the following comments in elaborating how they made sure that teachers conformed to the teaching time:

H1: Randomly I go around the classroom and check on what is happening in the class-Walk through (W Ts). When I am not there the Deputy Head and HODs take over and check on what is happening in the school. Written reports are also made on observations. Teachers are also reminded informally over a cup of tea on the need to be always in their respective classes teaching.

H4: I cross check teacher’s names on the timetable and confront those not attending to lessons. The class monitor alert the deputy head, senior teachers or the head on all teachers who do not attend or report late for lessons. Snap surveys are also carried out through (WTs). In the absence of the head, the Deputy head or senior teacher takes over and monitors teachers in the school.

H5: The head reminded teachers everyday on the need to be punctual for all school activities e.g. in meetings on Mondays, Wednesday and Fridays. It is at such
meetings that the Deputy Head and senior teachers encourage teachers to be in class before the bell rings.

Information collected revealed that teachers were in agreement with heads’ input when they indicated that heads had various methods which they followed to ensure that teachers remained in the classroom teaching. Data revealed that teacher participants reiterated that heads made sure that teachers adhered to teaching time through WT. This is when the head delegate supervisory duties to senior members of the school such as the deputy head, or senior master or senior woman. The above named would make snap surveys by moving around class rooms taking note of how teachers would be teaching. Information collected also confirmed that heads could use student representatives such as class monitors to report teachers who fail to attend to their lessons or those who report late for lessons. Teacher participants made the following comments:

Jnr/Tr-H: The head observes lessons at times through (WT) to ensure that teachers are in the classroom teaching.

Snr/Tr-H4: The head makes routine checks on the time table and also empowers pupils to report teachers who fail to teach pupils on time to the administration. Head encourages teachers to attend to their lessons informally in briefings carried out in the school.

Consequently the district officer E2 observed: “Heads conduct management by wondering about and desisting from unplanned meetings and conscientising students on time management and budgeting, in order to make sure that teachers remained in the classroom teaching”.

4.5.9 Teaching Responsibilities by School Heads

It is of paramount importance that heads of schools are also directly involved in classroom teaching in order to enhance the teaching and learning in schools as spelt out in chapter 2. Heads of schools are required to teach over and above other instructional duties that they carry out in schools. Head participants were asked questions pertaining to the way they carried out teaching responsibilities and how they balanced teaching with other leadership roles. Opinions from education officers
and teachers were sought on their evaluation on how heads of schools carried out teaching responsibilities.

Interviews from head participants revealed that heads were aware of the need to teach among other instructional leadership roles they carried out in the school. The periods taught depended on the size of the school as per ministerial policy. However, it emerged that most heads were often not teaching as required, the main reason was that they carried out too many roles in schools and hence missed most lessons they were supposed to teach.

However, participant H3 echoed the need for him to teach in addition to performing other instructional and administrative duties by expressing that teaching exposed him to the life experiences in the classroom and enabled him to lead and instruct better. His statement seems to suggest that there is need to have an alternative in addressing how heads can balance teaching and other instructional leadership roles so that they continued teaching too. The data also revealed that most heads under investigation taught non-examinable subjects such as education for living, guidance and counselling. Comments from some of the head participants were as follows:

H1: Normally I should teach 12 periods. However on the ground it is almost impossible because of administrative duties which mainly occupy my time so I am only able to teach at times when I am available. I teach education for living which is non-examinable so that pupils are not completely disadvantaged when I fail to attend classes.

H3: As head, I am non-teaching although the Ministry stipulates the need for me to teach. However the nature of the school does not allow me to teach as head. Staff requirements are adequate so there is no need for me to teach, as head I stick to supervisory duties only. Sometimes I teach and at times I do not teach. The head, however, need to teach in order to relate to life experience in the classroom so that one leads and instruct better. In 2009 I taught ‘O’ level-it was very difficult to balance roles of teaching and other duties as I missed lessons because of other roles I carried out in the school.

H4: The ministry requires me to teach 5 lessons per week. However, the school is too big and has a boarding component hence in most cases I am unable to teach the
classes. On further probing the researcher found out that the head was in-charge of sourcing all boarding foodstuffs which were difficult to come by due to the economic situation in Zimbabwe and hence in most cases the head was away from the school.

H5: I am supposed to teach 18 lessons per week but fail to teach the classes due to other administrative tasks such as attending to meetings and visitors who come to the school.

4.5.9.1 Frequency on observing heads teaching

Participant heads were asked to inform the researcher on how often they were supervised by education officers whilst teaching. This was necessary to find out the frequency of supervision by higher authorities on heads of schools.

The information obtained revealed that most participant heads stated that they had not been observed since their appointment as heads. Others remarked that where an attempt was made to observe heads, only institutional supervision was carried out as opposed to teaching by heads. The information gathered also confirmed that some heads said that there were inconsistencies in the way education officers carried out supervision on heads since they had not visited some of the schools under study. Responses from participant heads included the following comments:

H1: “I haven’t been observed!” (This was accompanied with a loud laughter). This shows that the participant H1 was mocking the system for failure by education officers to carry out their duties, in fact indicating that he had not been observed.

H3: I haven’t been supervised at all by education officers, they only carry out institutional supervision.

H5: There is no pattern followed in schools by education officers when carrying out lesson observations on heads of schools. I have also not been observed since I became head.

In order to cross check the heads responses highlighted above, education officers were also asked to comment on the frequency of observations they carried out on heads of schools. One of the education officers indicated that there was no policy in the ministry that stipulated the number of times heads are supposed to be observed
teaching by education officers. The response tallies with what some heads said when they confirmed that there was no systematic pattern followed by education officers when carrying out lesson observations on heads. One of the education officers commented as follows:

E1: There is no policy on the number of times heads have to be supervised; probably this is done when education officers make routine visits to schools.

4.5.9.2 Balancing school heads’ responsibilities and teaching time

Heads discussed the changes they noted on the time they spent teaching for the previous five years and how they managed to balance teaching and other responsibilities. This was meant to find out if there were any changes on the heads’ teaching time and how they balanced the performance of instructional leadership duties that included teaching, and administrative roles. Information gathered from head participants revealed that most of them spent more time on routine administrative duties which include for example, monitoring the check in check out log sheets whilst less time was spent on instructional leadership roles which include for example, teaching, class visits, book inspection and so forth.

Data collected from heads under investigation reflected a situation whereby all participants agreed that there were changes on the time they spent teaching for the past five years. The reasons for the changes were mainly on the increase in responsibilities which made it difficult for heads to balance the time spent on the various roles they carried out. Participants spelt out that administrative duty took much of the heads’ time and hence they failed to meet their teaching obligations depending on the enrolment of the school.

The majority of the heads claimed that they spent less time teaching, which would seem to suggest that they could have rendered lip service on the teaching role. Teaching is one of the most important instructional leadership roles that have to be carried out by heads as stated in findings in literature reviewed cited in chapters 1 and 2. When heads of schools as instructional leaders spend less time teaching or not teaching at all, this could be viewed as negligence of duty which may negatively affect pupils’ performance. However, the data also revealed that there were changes on the time spent by heads of schools due to increased errands and also due to
unavailability of telephone facilities, so where the head used to make calls, now they had to travel. Some head participants had the following comments to make to substantiate the above claims:

H1: Leadership roles have been changing especially in the way heads of schools carry out their duties in schools. However, administrative duties take much of my time keeping me away from performing instructional leadership roles adequately since I spend more time on administrative duties than instructional leadership roles.

H6: I noted some changes since it has been difficult to attend to class regularly because I had to attend to other duties such as attending to parents and unscheduled meetings within the school and at the District or Provincial Offices. I have to also attend to my class. As a result, the time I used to spend teaching is dwindling since I seem to have too many things to do.

H5: It is rather difficult to balance the activities I carry out for example, I may arrive at the school and get an instruction to make an immediate submission at the District Office This means I have to submit it first and abandon other commitments that include teaching. Therefore, I end up spending less time in contact with the students.

Revelations by the education officer E2 that some heads of schools teach non-examinable subjects such as Guidance and Counselling where lip service could be rendered suggest further failure by heads of schools to balance their teaching responsibilities with other roles carried out in the school. The failure by heads as instructional leaders to balance their time properly on duties performed is detrimental to the improvement of pupils’ performance. Interviewed E2 indicated that it was difficult to balance instructional leadership with administrative duties and confirmed heads spent less time on teaching. The reasons for spending less time is mainly the fact that heads had too many duties to attend to in schools. The following is a comment by E2:

E2: More time is directed towards administrative and curriculum management duties, instructional duties are confined to teaching of Guidance and counselling. Most heads do not teach their areas of specialization but teach Guidance and Counselling. Most heads of big schools actually do not teach at all, whenever they
do, lip service is carried out on teaching even when teaching Guidance and Counselling.

4.5.9.3 Successes in teaching responsibilities

Heads benefit a great deal when they are actively engaged in actual teaching. It is through teaching that heads as learning leaders would be able to identify students who may need intervention to improve their understanding of what is taught. Heads may also take advantage of their engagement in teaching to encourage peer teaching where they may also demonstrate lessons to teachers. It was therefore regarded as important for heads to elaborate on some of the successes they noted as classroom teachers.

Participants acknowledged that they noted improvements in various areas as a result of the lessons they taught, especially in guidance counselling and discipline. It was also confirmed that to some extent results showed improvement in some cases where heads of schools taught and set good standards which were eventually followed by teachers also. In the same vein, some heads confirmed that they were unable to teach due to busy schedules whilst some indicated that they could not teach because they had adequate teachers in the school. Revelations from head participants were as follows:

H1: As head I am usually at work on time to set a good example to my subordinates. There has been improvement on the pass rate too in the school. While I am supposed to teach 12 guidance and counselling periods I have not been at all teaching due to other too many roles I carry out as head. Supervision and at times attending to guidance and counselling of teachers and students take much of my time. At times I even go out of my way and carry out counselling sessions with parents’ problems or students’ problems. At the end of the day school activities are overwhelming. Despite delegating other duties to the deputy head; still the duties that call for my attention are too many as a result my success dwindles in the school.

H2: I managed to teach Guidance Counselling and dealt with disciplinary problems in the school. I am anticipating improvement on the pass rate since it had gone down.
H4: Teaching effectively to students and achieving high pass rate in the school were notable successes. This was as a result of hard working teachers. We also won the 2010 Secretary’s Bell in the Province. As head I should be teaching 5 periods but I am in most cases unable to meet my teaching obligations due to attending to other pressing issues such as meetings with education officials, attending to visitors and securing food stuffs for boarders.

However, in another development H3 declared that he was non-teaching because the school was too small and hence had adequate teachers to teach. This statement was against Ministerial policy which stipulated that calculation of teacher pupil ratio was inclusive of the head; therefore this statement is contrary to the ministerial policy. In response the head advised that additional army teachers were employed to teach hence the pupil teacher ratio in the school was 1:25. The head was therefore not teaching and his main duty was to supervise the delivery of education in the school through close supervision of subordinates. Although the head carries out army duties at times in addition to school duties he boasted of having the best school in the District with a pass rate of 52% in 2010 and an average pass rate of 35.5% for the past 3 years since the school was established in 2008. The pass rate is above the national average pass rate which is pegged at 21%. Other schools under this study had an average percentage pass rate of: H1-10%; H2-26%; H4-17.8%; H5-10%; H6-11.6% in the previous 5 years (MoESC 2010).

The data revealed that although the majority of teacher participants mainly alluded to successes of the schools in general they bemoaned that heads were not carrying out teaching responsibilities at all. Under normal circumstances, heads of schools are supposed to teach stipulated periods depending on the number enrolled at the school. Any deviation from the above would set bad precedence in the school and hence might affect the performance of teachers. Comments from teacher participants included the following:

Jnr/Tr-H3: The school has managed to maintain a good pass rate of 44.4% in 2010. Acceptable discipline has been generally maintained in the school. The head is non-teaching so there is no success that can be attached to the head as a classroom teacher.
**Jnr/r-H6: The relationships with HODs and teachers seem to be improving since there has been a lot of bickering in the school. The head has been carrying out consultations and counselling of teachers in the school. This is viewed as success. In teaching, the head has been seen at times attending to some classes; however his attendance is erratic due to his busy schedule. You may ask him if he has made any successes in that regard but I am convinced there is no one.**

**Snr/Tr-H4: The head managed to observe a number of teachers highlighting strengths and weaknesses. In his teaching assignment the head is rarely seen teaching hence there is no significant success that can be attributed to teaching by the head since most lessons are not attended to due to other commitments.**

### 4.5.9.4 Strategies followed by heads when balancing teaching with other duties

Heads were required to furnish the strategies they followed when balancing teaching responsibilities with other duties they carried out in the school. This was meant to uncover how the heads managed to perform all their responsibilities in their respective schools. Bearing in mind the many roles carried out by heads of schools, it was interesting to find out how they managed to carry out the duties.

The data indicated that heads of schools acknowledged the difficulties they encountered when trying to balance teaching responsibilities with other duties. However, the majority of participants acknowledged failure by heads to balance teaching with other duties carried out in the school. Among the challenges manifested in the data collected was the head sacrificing teaching time by carrying out other duties for example attending to parents when he or she is supposed to be teaching. Despite the challenges encountered, other measures when employed to balance their activities which included delegating duties to the deputy head and other senior members of the staff. The data revealed that heads made sure that they followed the teaching time table and at times taught during weekends to compensate for lost teaching time. Responses from the head participants included the following submissions:

**H4: The strategy I follow to make sure that I balance teaching with other duties I perform is by ensuring I am punctual at work and make a daily check list of duties.**
Resorting to teaching during weekends to catch up with the scheme of work is yet another strategy although it is difficult at times since most pupils do not report for lessons during week-ends.

H5: It is rather difficult to balance teaching with other duties. For example, I may arrive at school and get an instruction to make an immediate submission to the District Office as a result I have to comply with the directive even if I were timetabled to teach.

H6: The time table is from break to a specific period where one will be doing a particular job. If it is teaching then I will indicate. If it is supervision, then I indicate that from this time to that time I will be supervising. However, I may as well shed off some of my duties to the deputy head, HODs or senior teachers depending on the type of activity.

4.5.10 Successes on Curriculum Coordination

Head participants discussed some of the achievements they made on curriculum coordination responsibilities. This was meant to enable heads of schools to evaluate themselves on how they carried out instructional leadership roles and curriculum coordination responsibilities in the schools under investigation.

Data revealed that participant heads acknowledged that they noted some successes but were quick to inform that it was difficult to sustain them. Some of them acknowledged that there were successes noted in the implementation of the two path way system into education and that there was a low teacher turn over in some schools. However, the data revealed that only a few participant heads felt that there was no change in the school curriculum. Responses from some of the participant heads are indicated below:

H1: It is a bit tough to say off hand however teachers I guide have improved and are now conscious as teachers. Curriculum is now stable and teachers have become experienced.

H3: As head I managed to implement Ministry of Education and Responsible Authority policies two path way system, Zimbabwe National Army science and technology policy. We also managed to establish a reputable secondary school
whose results are the best in the District. This could be attributed to the head’s effort to monitor adequately the teaching and learning in the school.

H6: Difficult to say for one thing, my teachers turn over is very low. My curriculum has not changed much, it has been very stable which I think is a result of being a leader who is doing well.

Data revealed that the general trend from teacher participants had mixed views on the success made by head participants on instructional leadership and curriculum coordination responsibilities. Information collected showed that some participant teachers felt that in some schools democratic teaching methods were encouraged hence CPD programme implementation improved. It was interesting that documentary analysis did not confirm the above assertion raising doubts on the claim. However, the data confirmed success in some schools under study on the implementation of the two path way system of education as indicated also by heads of schools. The data also confirmed that some teacher participants did not notice any success from schools under investigation. Comments from some participant teachers included the following:

Jnr/Tr-H1: There was a democratic approach on teachers to improve teaching methodologies. Provision of resources improved to some extent. Staff development programmes improved, although more should be done in conducting more programmes.

Jnr/Tr-H5: The school has introduced new subjects as recommended by the two path-way system into secondary education. We also now offer practical subjects and science subjects which the school was not offering initially. However, whilst the school is doing fairly well in comparison with other schools, better results could be achieved if the head was teaching and putting more emphasis on the need to carry out demonstration lessons.

Snr/Tr-H4: There are no marked successes in curriculum management and instructional leadership roles carried out by the head. The Head does not respond to needs from teachers.
Data collected revealed that head participants confirmed that they noted successes in their endeavour to carry out curriculum leadership roles when one of them alluded to the fact that teachers improved their performance. Information collected further revealed that the school curriculum stabilised through successful implementation of the two pathway system of education. This was also affirmed by one of the teacher participants. One head participant boasted of a low staff turnover due to a stable curriculum offered in the school.

4.6 DEVELOPING THE SCHOOL LEARNING CLIMATE PROGRAMME

4.6.1 Support of teacher autonomy and decision making

In order to ascertain how heads of schools supported teacher autonomy in the schools, participant heads discussed how they exercised autonomy and allowed independent decision making on instructional issues in the school. Teacher autonomy is exercised when teachers’ are allowed to work collaboratively sharing ideas in solving problems related to teaching and learning activities. Teacher support in decision making is exercised when teachers are allowed to operate as teacher leaders in the school. This is when teacher leaders plan lessons together and carry out peer observations in the school. Heads of schools should take advantage of teacher leaders by delegating some of their duties to them. It is in view of the need for cooperative, teamwork and collaborative approach that should prevail in schools that the following section discusses participants’ views on collective planning, teamwork in lesson observations, staff development and sporting activities. All these are issues which lead to enhancement of conducive school learning climate which is one of the dimensions of instructional leadership.

4.6.2 Teacher autonomy in decision making

Discussions were carried out with head participants to enquire from them how they ensured teacher autonomy in decision making in the school. This was done in order to find out how heads accommodated collaborative practices when running school activities. It is important to involve the school community in decision making relating
to school activities so that members have ownership of all that takes place in the school. Such an approach enhances student performance and outcomes.

Data collected affirm that heads normally allowed teachers to make independent decisions which are important, for example on classroom management issues and at times on sporting activities. It was also revealed that certain heads of schools do not involve teachers in making their own independent decisions since heads are finally held accountable for all developments that take place in the school. Information gathered confirmed that heads allowed teachers to make their own syllabus selection, interpretation and purchase of text books. Data collected also confirmed that teachers had autonomy in setting objectives in their departments and had jurisdiction over classroom discipline. The setting up of various committees in the school gave room for the teachers to make decisions on their own and advised the head accordingly.

**H1:** Teachers preside on disciplinary issues involving pupils. They also decide independently when formulating departmental policy. Formation of various committees in the school enables teachers to make independent decisions in their respective committees.

**H3:** Teachers make their own syllabus interpretation and choose the teaching/learning resources they ought to use and these are made available when funds permit. Teachers are free to select text books they intend to use and the administration purchases the books. Teachers formulate programmes and with respect to sport art and culture where their decisions on the selection of teams and dates for competitions are made by teachers.

**H4:** Teachers have input on subject allocation where they can detect deployment of teachers in departments. Methods of teaching vary from department to department, hence teachers decide on teaching methods they agree upon at departmental level.

**H6:** Autonomy of teachers is evident when they carry out classroom discipline. Teachers make independent decisions when purchasing text books used in subjects. Various committees in the school including the finance committee, fundraising committee and other committees enable teachers to contribute significantly on critical issues pertaining to the school.
In support of the above assertion, one of the senior teachers confirmed that management of departmental assets was left to the departmental teachers whilst the HOD remained accountable on the state of the resources.

Teachers’ responses seem to have confirmed that they were mainly involved in making decisions confined to classroom management and other minor decisions in the general activities carried out in the school as spelt out below:

Jnr/Tr-H1: Conducting afternoon lessons. Departmental supervision is carried out at the HOD’s own time.

Jnr/Tr-H3: Teacher involvement in decision making is mainly in setting school teams and not academic issues.

Snr/Tr-H1: Teachers are not at liberty to operate independently since the head at times uses leadership styles that exclude teachers in decision making.

This confirms that in some cases heads normally dominate in school activities. The researcher observed that heads are sole chairpersons in most main staff meetings. It emerged that two out of six heads under study allowed rotational chairmanship of main staff meetings where teachers appeared to participate freely in such meetings than those chaired by heads of schools.

4.6.3 Indicators of collective planning and teamwork in lesson observations, staff development and sporting activities

The need to always carry out school activities in a collaborative and consultative manner is healthy for any institution. As a result participant heads of schools under study were asked to share their experiences in carrying out collective planning and teamwork during lesson observations, staff development and sporting activities.

Data collected from head participants revealed that most head participants confirmed that teachers worked collaboratively in various activities in the school. Teamwork as a collective indicator was evident in the following activities team teaching in practical subjects and in sporting activities; collective identification of staff development topics; formulation of departmental targets and scheming collectively at departmental level.
Detailed comments from some of the head participants on how they worked together in school activities are given below:

**H4:** Yes teachers work together in various activities, especially when mapping up departmental targets and in sporting activities. Also teachers work together when they come up with staff development topics to be debated upon.

**H5:** Teachers can be observed working together when at times preparing lesson plans especially in practical subjects. Teamwork is also evident in team coaching and grooming in sporting activities.

**H6:** I haven’t seen these individually especially in planning lessons together. Yes in sporting activities I have seen teachers working as a team in their respective sporting Houses. In departments-scheme cum plan teachers have same format hence as a department they follow a given way when scheming. In setting examinations especially internal ones, teachers decide on the setting of examinations together and prepare marking schemes.

Teacher participants indicated that they planned lessons individually but planned general work to be done at departmental level in groups. Most heads and teachers seemed to be in agreement in the sense that they both indicated that they worked as individuals when planning lessons and collectively when carrying out sporting activities and other duties in their departments and sporting activities. This was confirmed by Jnr/Tr-H1 who acknowledged, “I plan lessons individually.”

Snr/Tr-H6 remarked, “At departmental level we group together and plan together.” In support of what heads and teachers said, E2 participant made the following observation: “Teachers do not work together in lesson preparation unless they teach the same levels”.

Information gathered from the study indicated that the school community could be working together in certain aspects of school activities but planning of lessons is in most cases done individually. The later statement is in disagreement with modern supervisory practices such as clinical supervision which put emphasis on the need for collective planning between the supervisee and supervisor. If heads of schools are to perform their duties effectively as instructional leaders, it is necessary for
them to encourage subordinates to work collaboratively in all school activities inclusive of lesson planning.

4.6.4 Distribution of leadership roles to subordinates

Heads of schools cannot supervise all the activities in the school and need to distribute the roles to capable teachers in the school. Among teachers in the school, there are some who are talented in various activities such as finance. It is the duty of the head to identify such talent and shed off some of the duties to such individuals. This would leave the head with manageable tasks to carry out in the school. It would also serve to empower teachers and develop their capacity in those areas. Heads were therefore requested to explain how they distributed roles to subordinates as a way of shading off some of their roles and also as a way of empowering subordinates. Data collected confirmed that most heads of schools distributed roles to subordinates depending on the capability of the subordinate to carry out the assigned duty.

Information collected had a variety of situations where heads delegated duties to subordinates. Data revealed that in some cases heads allowed the deputy head and other senior teachers to recommend the appointment of such teachers to the head. The collected information confirmed that subordinates were asked to assist in the following: club mentors, soccer and balls coordinator. Data also revealed that some heads encouraged formation of various committees as a means of distributing responsibilities to subordinates.

H1: The head appoint sports directors; deputy head to look at qualities of leadership qualifications and experience. Give certain guide lines on operational requirement. The same is done to HODs, club mentors, soccer/balls coordinator.

H2: Tasks are delegated to the deputy head, senior teachers and some chairpersons of various committees. Examples of committees include the Examination, Disciplinary, Catering and Sports committees.

H3: As head I make individual appointments and group/committee appointments in the school. Teachers as individuals or groups are technical advisers in given aspects e.g., a certain teacher can be a technical adviser in given aspects relating to music
and school presentations. The teacher’s advice on such aspects passes as school policy in a given area.

Teacher participants confirmed that heads distributed roles to them. However they bemoaned that the selection criteria is at times flouted since in most cases it is only those in good books who are asked to carry out special duties in the school. The following are some of the comments from teacher participants:

*Snr/Tr-H3: Heads distribute leadership to individuals they like.*

*Snr/Tr-H4: The head normally select individuals with competence in areas such as financial management, supervision and chairpersons of various committees in the school.*

### 4.6.5 Monitoring performance of subordinates on delegated duties

When heads of schools delegate some of their duties to subordinates, there is need for them to make sure that such individuals carry out such delegated duties above board. As a result heads were requested to elaborate on how they monitored such individuals to ensure that they carried out their duties.

Information gathered shows that similar responses were made by participants when describing how heads made follow-ups on those to whom they delegated duties. The methods identified included verbal and written reports on observations made on the performance of duty by subordinates. Most heads confirmed that they delegated duties to the deputy head and other senior teachers to assist in monitoring those under them. Also routine checks and observations were identified as part of the means used to monitor performance of individuals who perform several duties on behalf of heads. In some cases, the heads under study tasked the deputy head or other senior teachers to monitor those with delegated duties and later made reports to the head.

In summary, it is evident that various methods were followed by heads of schools in making sure that those with delegated roles performed their duties. However documented minutes on meetings that were held were not available in most schools serve for one. Responses from some of the head participants regarding how they ensured that those with delegated roles performed their duties were as follows:
H2 Head made a time-table for report backs or feedback where those with delegated duties would give their reports to the head as a way of making sure that they carried out their duties properly.

H4: Asking for reports on any delegated task—supervision of delegated work. Recommending for a two-way communication with subordinates are methods used to monitor performance on those who are delegated duties by the head.

H5: Obviously I don’t delegate without setting standards. So I delegate with feedback either written or oral. Routine checks or observations are also carried out on those carrying out delegated duties.

In response on how heads supervised those with delegated duties most teachers advised that heads monitored those with delegated duty by holding meetings with them, giving verbal and written feedback on the duties carried out. Meetings were also held as means of giving feedback to those holding posts with special responsibility. Comments given by some of the teachers are presented below:

Jnr/Tr-H2, who confirmed that, regular meetings are held and minutes on discussions made are kept for future reference. Departmental files are also checked often.

On the contrary, observations of minutes held in schools under investigation however showed that heads do not minute most of the discussions made on administrative meetings held.

Jnr/Tr-H4: Head requires feedback from individuals through reports, or files so that head can check them.

Snr/Tr/-H1: Constant feedback is rendered by HODs’ every week. Verbal and written feedback is also given.

Snr/Tr-H5: Head directly supervises HODs’ files or supervises them and makes reports on delegated duties. Follow up meetings are held in the school where reports are given and recorded.

Responses from the district office were similar to those stated above. E1: Heads monitor the performance of those who carried out delegated duties by supervising
them or inspecting them. Heads may delegate supervision to the deputy head, or HODs. Meetings are also held with subordinates whereby feedback and reports are obtained.

4.6.6 Involvement of teachers in decision making in curriculum management issues and routine administrative duties

Heads responded by revealing that at times they involve teachers in decision making through consulting them in various school activities.

H1: As head I delegate duties through asking teachers to stand in for me at District and Provincial meetings and other functions.

H2: I always ask for teachers’ ideas challenges and their evaluation. Just recently I asked them to carry out evaluations of the head where they wrote about leadership and programmes being carried out in the school and gave their opinions. The head produced questionnaires from the teachers which rated the head on various activities he carried out in the school. Comments on areas teachers expected the head to improve on were also given. This was viewed as a democratic way of involving the voice of subordinates on the head’s performance of duty in the school.

H3: Collective decision making is through routine meetings held in the school. Individual input are considered on what should be taught where teachers select aspects of the syllabus to be taught.

Collective decision making was evident in the observation and recorded staff meeting in one of the schools where two teacher representatives consulted other members in advance on what had been done well and areas that needed improvement. The reports were made in each main staff meeting held every term in the school. This approach by the school was viewed as a positive consultative way of involving teachers in decision making since recommendations made were ideas from all members of staff and were also put into consideration by the school administration. It was unfortunate that this approach was not observed in all other schools under investigation.
H4: Teachers are consulted before any decision is implemented in the school. They are also tasked to make their presentations on curriculum requirement in various subject areas.

H5: I let them manage their own affairs by delegation with authority.

H6: I usually use the briefing sessions to ask for information and opinion. I will sit down with administration and discuss issues pertaining to the running of the school on Mondays.

To the contrary some teachers interviewed felt that they were not always consulted on crucial issues by heads in decision making on curriculum and routine administrative issues. One participant confirmed that the consultation was only on minor issues. Observed meetings in one of the schools under investigation reflected that the head was oppressive and did not at times allow teachers to express their view in the meetings.

Jnr/Tr-H2: One respondent remarked; “When students request to go to the clinic or to go home that is when a teacher is allowed to make decisions.” Response by Jnr/Tr-H2 indicated that teachers could be mainly involved in making decisions on minor issues in the school.

Jnr/Tr-H3: I am not involved but compelled to comply, but senior teachers are involved.

Snr/Tr-H3: The head of school is all over and overrides certain issues. As a result other teachers leave certain issues to the head to decide on.

To confirm the above it was observed that in two H6 staff meetings there was a tense atmosphere during the proceedings where misunderstandings were evident between the head and members of staff. One of the teachers sought for an explanation from the head on an issue that was raised in the previous meeting and was answered as follows:

I have told my pupils that they should always know the context of something and people should trust me as your head. If you cannot trust me as your head you can
therefore pass a motion for a vote of no confidence. I still maintain that statement and there is no further elaboration on the matter raised by the gentleman.

After the statement several members of staff were observed whispering to one another in discontentment. This comment revealed that the head was not prepared to clarify the issue further though it could be an issue that needed more clarity to the members of staff. This was viewed as a way of discouraging teachers from asking questions on issues that were not clear to them.

Snr/Tr-H5: Heads conduct staff meetings where suggestions and views are asked, for example, budget issues. In curriculum management teachers in the department select resources and these are sent to the head for approval.

Information gathered confirmed that whilst heads stated that they always consulted teachers in decision making on administrative and curriculum issues, most teachers disagreed. It emerged that senior teachers were at times consulted rarely were junior teachers; if they were consulted it was on less important issues in the school. It also emerged that decisions from members are not accommodated at times even in some staff meeting the proceedings have the potential of widening further the isolation of teachers in decision making in some cases.

4.6.7 Recognition of teachers and pupils who excel

It is always necessary and important to motivate teachers and students by awarding prizes to deserving individuals. Heads were requested to elaborate on how they motivated subordinates in recognition of efforts in achieving set goals.

Data collected confirmed that heads of schools had various ways of rewarding students and teachers who excelled in their work. The most common way of rewarding students and teachers emerged as holding speech and prize giving ceremonies where deserving individuals are given assorted rewards. Speech and Prize Giving Days are normally sponsored by the parents’ body. However at times schools hold fundraising activities to sponsor the activity.

The District Education Office also holds Annual District awards where schools and individuals are recognised for outstanding performance and given prizes for different achievements. All these efforts are carried out in order to motivate both teachers
and students so that they work hard and keep on improving individual and school performance in schools. It was encouraging to note that prizes were extended to the community where individual parents were rewarded for their involvement in school activities and community projects. Heads as instructional leaders are challenged to make sure that both teachers and students who excel are rewarded in order to motivate them to continue working hard in order to improve school results.

It was also interesting to note that as a way of motivating schools the Ministry of Education Sports, Arts and Culture put up Secretary’s Bell award which is given to a selected school for having produced good results in various activities which include academic and sporting activities at Provincial level. In this case H4 Secondary School under investigation was chosen for the 2010 Award and the researcher witnessed the occasion where the school was given a cash prize and a plaque by the Secretary of Education. This shows that the MoESC is sensitive and supportive of the need to motivate schools and encourage them to excel. All these efforts are meant to motivate teachers and indirectly enable heads to perform their instructional leadership roles more effectively.

All head participants confirmed that they had ways of rewarding both teachers and pupils who excelled as a way of motivating them. The following are their comments:

**H2:** Prize Giving Days for both teachers and students are held every year. I take advantage of District Awards where teachers and students who were best at District level are further awarded prizes for their achievements.

**H3:** Achievements are published during school assembly for both teachers and students and communication to be relayed to the Responsible Authority the Ministry of Education. The school holds prize presentation ceremonies where parents are invited to witness those awarded prizes.

Information collected revealed that teachers, in support of the heads were also of the opinion that schools rewarded both teachers and students who performed best at school. Teachers acknowledged that both teachers and students were rewarded during speech and prize giving day. Rewards issued to teachers in some of the above responses were similar to what the heads mentioned above.
Jnr/Tr-H1: For students Art and Craft awards are given at parent’s day. Teachers receive very little they are just thanked in most cases. Head acknowledge good performance by teachers during staff meetings/assemblies. More needs to be channelled to the teachers as a way of motivating them."

Jnr/Tr-H3: Best students are rewarded at speech and prize giving days. Teachers are given lunch and tea including free accommodation within the army camp.

Snr/Tr-H5: Students are appointed as prefects and badges given to students who excel as a way of motivating them. Prizes are given to pupils for excelling in academic performance. The schools infrastructure is maintained to reward all pupils. Teachers’ popular reward is tea. Teachers are awarded monetary incentives also when they perform above board. Meals are given on sports days. Free accommodation is given to all teachers as a way of encouraging them to work hard.

4.6.8 Staff Development/ Continuous Teacher Professional Development (CTPD)

Continuous professional development (CPD) is very essential in all organisations since it improves the teachers’ competencies by ensuring that teachers are exposed to effective teaching and learning approaches Du Plessis, P, Conley, & Du Plessis, E. (2007). Du Plessis et al., (2007 100) defined CPD as “the process of improving staff skills and competencies needed to produce outstanding educational results for students. However Conners (1991:53) reinforced Du Plessis definition by saying that CPD “is the sum of all activities, both formal and informal, carried out by the individual or system to promote staff growth and renewal.”

The above definitions seem to attach a lot of importance on CPD as a means of reinforcing well planned activities in schools which are meant to enrich the professional competencies of all teachers inclusive of heads to the benefit of students. In Zimbabwe all schools have a staff development committee chaired by the deputy head or any other senior member appointed by the head that is responsible for coordinating and monitoring CPD programmes in the school. It was therefore necessary to establish how heads of schools monitored staff development programmes in their respective schools.
The information collected from schools under investigation revealed that there were several staff development activities carried out by heads of schools. The staff development activities were either carried out at school (on site) or out of school (off site). Participants were probed on the frequency of carrying out the two types of staff development programmes and how they evaluated the programmes. The evaluation was manifested through highlighting the successes and challenges which participant heads encountered when carrying out the staff development activities. Of interest was the information on the role played by heads in implementing both on-site and off-site staff development programmes in schools. It is Ministry of Education policy that schools at least carry out three staff development sessions per term, and heads tasked with the responsibility to ensure that schools complied with this requirement. Data on how the District and the Ministry of Education funded the staff development activities was collected in order to establish the extent to which staff development activities were receiving the necessary assistance from higher offices.

4.6.8.1 On-site staff development programmes

On-site teacher development programmes ought to be held more often in schools so that heads and teachers resolve some of the challenges faced in the teaching and learning of students through continuous sharing of ideas at the school level. Heads were requested to name some of the teacher continuous programmes held in schools as a way of finding out some of the areas schools concentrate on as in school enrichment.

The data gathered confirmed that facilitation of on on-site staff development programmes was mainly carried out by teachers from the local schools. The areas to be covered during on-site staff development programmes were identified by teachers from the school after having selected topics they felt would improve their teaching skills and knowledge base.

The data revealed that most head participants stated that there were various on-site staff development programmes carried out in the schools under study. It confirmed that staff development activities or topics were identified at the beginning of the term in some schools in the study, which was important for planning purposes and feedback. It emerged that the staff development activities targeted newly appointed teachers through initiating them to professional conduct.
Experienced teachers were also exposed to new policies and latest teaching methodologies so that they were kept abreast with changes in teaching approaches. Lesson demonstrations gathered were conducted at both school and departmental levels to update teaching skills among members of staff. Heads of schools also took advantage of break briefings where teachers break for tea in the staff room. The head then makes announcements advising teachers on latest developments taking place in the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture. Data revealed that other topics covered during the on-site staff development programmes included elaborations on the 'Acts of misconduct' which are very important regulations that ought to be known by all civil servants. Responses from head participants confirming some of the on-site staff development programmes carried out in schools under investigations included the following comments:

H1: *Initiating new teachers, guiding them on professional conduct, and the roles they are supposed to play in the school.*

H2: *Induction of new teachers so that they are acquainted with professional expectations. Counselling sessions of both teachers and pupils are carried out.*

H3: *Meetings held where particular staff development discussions are carried out on administrative and technical issues. Topics are set at the beginning of term so that presenters can research on them in advance before presentation.*

H4: *Professional teachers’ programmes meant to build capacity of teachers are carried out thrice per term. They are meant to provide skills of teaching and ways of improving the system. For example, topics like acts of misconduct, regulations on running external examination, teaching methodologies etc are included when carrying out on-site staff development programmes in the school.*

The data collected confirmed that teacher participants stated that there were various on-site staff development programmes carried in schools. The information collected revealed that heads carried out lesson demonstration seminars in some schools and also workshops in soccer and athletics training were held in others. Some of the teachers’ comments were as follows:
Jnr/Tr-H2: The schools also conducted seminars on the conduct of public examinations. Lesson demonstrations were conducted at school and at departmental level too.

Snr/Tr-H4: Teachers identify inadequacies for example they were not well knowledgeable on types of leave they could apply for. As a result, the head had to elaborate in a staff development session the types of leave available. Other teachers knowledgeable or those who attended workshops for example on athletics or coaching clinics on soccer or netball make presentations in various staff development sessions in the school.

Despite the above positive indications by heads of schools on programmes carried out on on-site staff development programmes, document analysis reflected a different scenario. It was observed that on-site staff development programmes were not being held consistently in all the six schools under study. For example, H1 School held one staff development programme in 2010 whilst H5 School held three staff development meetings in 2009 and two in 2010. Minutes captured were in most cases not detailed and as a result were not informative at all. The norm should be that all staff development programmes are documented for record and feedback purposes.

Most departmental minute books observed did not reflect any record of any staff development programme having been carried out for the previous year save for H1 Languages Department which reported that one was held but was not recorded. The above observations indicated that staff development programmes in schools are ad hoc since they are not properly planned.

4.6.8.2 Frequency of implementing on-site staff development activities in schools

On-site staff development programmes ought to be consistently held in schools if they are to have a meaningful impact. It was necessary to find out from heads and teachers how on-site staff development programmes were held in schools under study.

The data collected from participants confirmed that most schools under study attempted to carry out staff development activities. However, proceedings of the
meetings were not documented and they raised doubts if they were at all carried out as specified. Analysis of staff development minute books for the six schools under study confirmed the above observation. For example H1 School had only one staff development session recorded since 2010; H4 did not have staff development minute book neither did the minutes from HODs in the school reflected evidence of any staff development programmes having been carried out. The other schools confirmed that they had held some staff development activities; but there were no records to confirm that they were in fact carried out. It is Ministry of Education policy that all staff development activities are recorded as evidence that they were carried out. Heads of schools present these records when being rated by education officers on performance appraisal towards the end of each year.

The above observations showed that even though staff development activities were diarised for implementation in the schools under study, most of them were not documented neither were they carried out as scheduled. Failure to document or carry out staff development programmes affects the continuity of such programmes in the school and creates ignorance amongst teachers on the latest developments in the education sector. In order for heads to perform their duties effectively as instructional leaders they need to hold at least 3 staff development programmes in their schools (MoESAC 1993) per year. The following responses were made by head participants:

H1: Staff development sessions are held once per term as a minimum or they are held when need arises.

H2: Staff development programmes are conducted twice per term. However, there is no consistency in the manner in which they are held. In most cases they are not held due to other commitments in the school.

H3: I failed to fulfil the staff development activities because of strikes which resulted in the schools being closed. At times there are no qualified personnel to present some of the topics. Normally staff development programmes are carried out once per term. However, in our case it is not consistent and at times there are disturbances for example when teachers go on strike.
4.6.8.3 Roles of heads on on-site development programmes

Heads of schools are key to the success of staff development programmes in schools. They were requested to furnish the roles they played when carrying out staff development activities in schools in order to establish how they contributed in staff development activities.

Data collected revealed that heads of schools played varied roles when carrying out on-site staff development programmes in their schools. The majority of participants indicated that heads of schools played a facilitative and coordinating role; while others indicated that heads evaluated the process of staff development ensuring that it was in line with policy requirements.

Staff development minutes from one of the schools under investigation revealed that often the head of school was the presenter in staff development sessions held in the school. This confirms the assertion that heads at times are facilitators in staff development activities held in schools. As a result heads are therefore expected to be knowledgeable in most educational issues so that they are able to facilitate and coordinate staff development programmes. The implementation of on-site staff development programmes enable heads to perform their roles as instructional leaders effectively since teachers will be well informed on how to perform their duties. The responses from participant heads are stated below:

H1: I provide guidance on selection of topics/programmes through discussing with the teachers first so that the selection of topics is accepted by the school community.

H2: Major role is to align what teachers think about policy.

H3: As head I coordinate and facilitate the on-site staff development activities in the school. For example I make sure that all facilitators are available and resources that might be required are readily available well before the commencement of the activity.

4.6.8.4 Successes of on-site staff development programmes

Heads of schools discussed the successes they made in carrying out on-site staff development programmes in schools, in an effort to take stock of the achievements observed in schools. Head participants identified several achievements they
witnessed as a result of on site staff development activities that were carried out. It should be noted that on-site staff development programmes are necessary since they guide teachers on how to perform their duties better so that students achieve higher standards of learning and development.

Information gathered confirmed that generally performance of teachers changed following staff development activities undertaken in some schools. Data revealed that there were also notable changes in teachers’ attitudes and commitment to duty after holding on-site staff development programmes in some of the schools under investigation. A marked improvement in writing supervision reports by HODs was also noted. This was after an induction on how to write supervisory reports was conducted in one of the schools under study. It is anticipated that more on-site staff development programmes will be carried out especially on topics covering the teaching and learning of pupils such as on syllabus interpretation, scheming and various teaching approaches. This endeavour would therefore enhance the performance of both teachers and pupils. The performance of heads of schools is also made easier where subordinates are well informed through holding continuous staff development programmes on teaching and learning activities since they will be working with well informed subordinates. Participants made the following observations;

H4: Noted the positive execution of duty by teachers who attended staff development programme on teaching methodologies and coaching clinics.

H5: At times attitude visibly changed for example soon after staff development was held on how to conduct assembly the attitude of teachers changed hence quality of assemblies improved similarly with punctuality.

H6: HODs’ are now able to write narrative reports and run departments well because of the staff development carried out on report writing. Now they know what is required in their departments. Also teachers are able to keep registers as they should since we had a staff development session on how to maintain school registers. HOD also carried a good demonstration lesson which was used as a yard stick in teaching by other teachers.
One of the District Circuit Education Officer had the following comment to make on on-site staff development programmes, “I believe that on-site staff development programmes are very helpful to the less experienced and untrained. They are also useful refresher courses for the more experienced.”

4.6.8.5 Off-site staff development programmes held in schools

It is Ministerial Policy that schools carry out both on-site and off-site staff development activities. The off-site staff development programmes here are normally conducted by facilitators from outside the school who are specialists in various areas. Where personnel with expertise could be identified from schools, they are also asked to facilitate depending on areas involved. Head participants were therefore requested to furnish the activities carried out in schools in order to find out if there are any off-site staff development activities being carried out in the schools under study. –Elaborate here.

The data shows that several staff development activities were carried out in the schools under study. These included workshops on Shona ‘A level’ teaching; in-service training of science teachers; training of examiners for Ordinary level subjects and coaching clinics for referees and athletics trainers; and in-service training of those recently promoted and recently appointed teachers. Details on the staff development programmes carried out are as detailed below:

**H2: Science Education In-service Teacher Training, coaching clinics, HIV/ AIDS, Better Schools Programme Zimbabwe**, these workshops were organised where teachers were encouraged to form subject panels. HODs at times are trained by education officers from the Province or Head Office on the implementation of the Vocational and Technical subjects in schools.

**H5: The school does not offer much but it encourages teachers to improve academically and professionally. There is provision of study leave and block release, which has been brought to the attention of members of the school. Teachers have been encouraged to acquire professional qualifications despite inadequate resources but the school persuades the teachers to do so. The school is also responding to invitations by sending teachers to HIV and AIDS workshops. The
school encourages teachers at cluster level to attend subject panels where they share and exchange information.

H6: Yes-pause-we have teachers trained as examiners at Zimbabwe Schools Council. Some went to train as coaches or referees at Zimbabwe Football Association. So far this is what we have. Also there is in-service training of newly appointed teachers and those on promotion once per year.

4.6.8.6 Frequency of holding off-site staff development programmes

Participant heads were requested to elaborate on how often off-site programmes were held with a view of establishing whether such programmes were being held more often in schools under study. Information collected revealed that head participants had mixed views with the majority of them confirming that off-site programmes were held once per term. It was also confirmed that other head participants were of the opinion that off-site programmes were not consistently held in schools. H3 participant is from an army school where the army has its own staff development programmes in addition to those held through the Ministry of Education, Sports Arts and Culture. The following are some of the comments from head participants:

H2: I carry out staff development activities once per term.

H3: As a school we carry out many off-site programmes in the school since we have an additional programme.

H4: Usually we carry out off-site programmes once per term since this depends on outsiders who are mainly in-charge of the programmes.

H5: The off-site programmes are not held systematically since, as a head I have no direct influence on how sponsors carry out their programmes. I only control those that may involve other schools.

4.6.8.7 Roles of heads on off-site staff development programmes

Head participants were asked to elaborate their functions in off-site staff development programmes involving their schools. Heads of schools as instructional leaders ought to be part and parcel of all programmes where teachers are involved
hence the need to uncover the roles they undertake in off-site staff development activities.

Data collected from participants shows that heads of schools normally played the roles of identifying participants who would take part in the staff development programmes. Data also revealed that heads made sure that those who attend staff development programmes on behalf of the school give a feedback to the rest of the school community. The following are comments from some of the head participants:

**H1:** As head I play the role of encouraging teachers to take part in the staff development programmes and to identify teacher participants.

**H4:** I identify teachers to be trained and facilitate the payment for any costs involved. I also make sure those trained provide feedback to other teachers.

**H6:** I make sure that there is communication between facilitators and participants.

### 4.6.8.8 Successes of off-site staff development programmes

Heads were requested to give their assessment on off-site staff development programmes held in schools under study.

The information collected unveiled that there were several off-site staff development activities that were carried out to bring about positive changes in schools. Notable among the successes of off-site staff development programmes according to participants included improved delivery of lessons by teachers observed by heads in clinical supervision and class visits. Also improvement in performance in sporting activities was noted after training of teachers as examiners and carrying out coaching clinics. As a result of carrying out off-site staff development programmes new programmes have been launched in schools such as Junior Police, HIV and AIDS and peer educators.

Holding off site staff development programmes in schools could be of benefit to the school community since they are kept abreast with changing developments within the ministry of education. It was evident that whilst a number of off-site programmes were held, workshops on the improvement of teaching and learning were not frequently held. If the performance of heads as instructional leaders and
subordinates is to be enhanced, then it is necessary to conduct more off-site staff development programmes that focus mainly on the improvement of the teaching and learning of pupils. Data informed that most head participants acknowledged improvement in the performance in the areas teachers were trained.

Heads advised that most of the off-site staff development programmes held were successful as illustrated below:

**H2:** Improved performance of teachers e.g. those who attended workshops on coaching clinics in athletics the school noted improvement in the performance of the teams since they did well and participated at Provincial level for the first time.

**H3:** Off-site staff development programmes were relatively successful. They steer change or indicate direction especially of the Ministry of Education.

**H4:** It was observed that teachers changed behaviour and attitude towards work after holding off-site staff development sessions with teachers. Improvements on teaching skills were also noted after teachers had attended workshops on teaching skills.

Teacher participants supported heads as most of them agreed that off-site staff development programmes carried out had brought about some positive developments. For example this included the formation of cultural groups after schools were exposed to cultural exchanges with other schools outside the district.

Most of the successes were similar to those identified above by heads of schools. The following were comments received from some of the teacher participants:

**Jnr/Tr-H1:** Very successful for example we have cultural exchange where students are taught cultural issues and now we have a vibrant cultural group in the school. Teachers in the school have cluster resource teachers who conduct staff development for other teachers on various activities.

**Jnr/Tr-H4:** Most programmes are being successful for example the launching of junior police and peer educators’ training in HIV/AIDS.

**Snr/Tr-H4:** Positive changes have been noted in the school after attending umpires’ workshop at Provincial level. Markers were trained and now they know how to guide
students in examinations. Improved skills were made in soccer as a result of the workshop held on coaching skills.

4.6.8.9 Financing of on-site and off-site staff development programmes by the District Education Office

Discussions were carried out with heads on how they were assisted by the District Education Office in carrying out on-site and off-site staff development programmes. The discussion aimed at soliciting information from schools on the involvement of the District office in supporting on-site and off-site staff development programmes in the schools under study.

The data gathered revealed that participant heads had varied observations on the role played by the District Office in supporting both off-site and on-site staff development programmes in schools. According to information gathered, the District Office assisted in the off-site staff development programmes by selecting schools that participated and coordinating the activities. It also participated in selecting teachers who set and marked examinations for those who were taking part the training programmes. The role played by the District Office in on-site staff development programmes included supervision of staff development activities, appointing facilitators for the programmes in addition to providing policy circulars on different subjects. However, one participant head indicated that the District Office had not given any assistance in planning and conducting both on-site and off-site staff development activities that were carried out. The following are comments from some of the head participants:

H1: On off-site staff development, I do remember sometime the district office had come up with a centralised examination where marking schemes were prepared and given to teachers to mark examinations. The district office had lined up workshops but these failed to take off because of time factor and the non availability of resources.

H3: District office coordinates most activities in implementing off-site development programmes. The District Office supervises the on-site development programmes in collaboration with school heads.
H4 had a different observation altogether when he said, “The district office officials at times come to facilitate on-site staff development programmes if invited. They also make available the relevant necessary policies with guidelines for any subject under review.”

4.6.8.10 Financing of on-site and off-site staff development programmes

Head participants were asked about how they were assisted by the Ministry of Education on both on-site and off-site staff development programmes in an effort to establish how the Ministry is supportive of such programmes.

Most head participants confirmed that the Ministry was doing something to support the implementation of the two programmes in schools. However data revealed that the assistance in both cases was in terms of provision of circulars, facilitators and choice of possible discussion topics. Financial injection was only given when there were partners who volunteered to assist in the off-site and on-site staff development programme.

The following are some of the comments from head participants:

H2: Usually there is provision of circulars on objectives from the Ministry; facilitators are as well sent for if required from the Provincial Office and Head Office, though this is rarely done.

H3: The Ministry of Education normally initiates discussion topics for off-site and even some on-site development programmes. They also bring partners with financial or technical assistance to the programmes.

H4: For off-site development programmes they assist by sourcing facilitators, planning and setting objectives. They also coordinate the programmes.

4.6.8.11 Changes on time spent on on-site and off-site staff development programmes

Head participants were asked to reflect on whether there were changes on the time they spent carrying out on-site and off-site staff development programmes in
schools. This was intended to establish if there is a trend or pattern on the time spent on the activities for the previous five years.

The study revealed that there were changes noted in the time taken to carry out on-site and off-site staff development programmes in schools. Most heads and teachers concurred that more time had been spent on the above programmes for the past 5 years. More time had been spent on staff development programmes because of added programmes introduced in the teaching field which included, for example, launching of the child friendly programme and introduction of Result Based Management (RBM). Consequently the Ministry made it mandatory that schools introduce more staff development activities due to sudden employment of many untrained teachers who needed to be initiated into teaching. There was also a need to introduce more HIV and AIDS workshops due to the severity of the epidemic. The introduction of more staff development activities in schools would enhance the ability of heads and teachers to perform their instructional leadership roles effectively since they will be exposed to the latest instructional approaches in addition to acquisition of new knowledge.

The study received the following comments from heads which confirms the above:

H1: Yes, there have been changes noted due to the influx of untrained teachers in schools and also the introduction of Result Based Management (RBM) and child friendly focus in schools.

H2: Recently there has been an increase of off-site development programmes and the on-site development programmes through feedback for example numerous changes in HIV AIDS workshops/programmes. The introduction of child friendly aspects in schools also required development of teachers.

H3: More time has been spent especially on on-site programmes. For example the Ministry of Education, the District Office and the responsible authority has put more emphasis on the need for staff development programmes to be carried out more often.

Data revealed that teacher participants under study were in agreement with the heads since the data shows that more time was generally spent on professional
development programmes due to employment of new teachers and policy changes. However one participant felt there were no changes on the time spent when carrying out staff development activities in the school.

Some of the comments from teacher participants are presented below

**Jnr/Tr-H1**: Yes, there was an increase on enrolment resulting in many teachers being employed hence more time was spent on both on-site and off-site staff development programmes. Untrained teachers needed to be inducted through workshops.

**Jnr/Tr-H3**: More time was spent because of changes observed on enrolment hence staff development has been of paramount importance in schools.

**Snr/Tr-H2**: Changes are noted on the frequency of on-site and off-site programmes because now both staff development programmes are done so often than yesterday. The more there are new teachers, the more the need for staff development for example the Policy from Psychological Centre focus which put emphasis on Result Based Management (RBM).

**E2**: summarised his observations in schools by saying, “In terms of On-site staff development, it is mandatory since heads indicated this in their key result areas. At least 3 staff development programmes have to be carried out per year hence more time is spent. Of late I observed the involvement of non governmental organisations that included heads and teachers in staff development programmes.

**Snr/Tr-H6** had a different view altogether when he stated that “There was no change of time, and the trend remained the same.”

### 4.7 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY HEADS IN PERFORMING INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES

Information from the study established that the most common challenge faced by heads was that of inadequate provision of both human and material resources. Some participants felt the curriculum offered had too many subjects as a result students were not doing well due to a concentrated curriculum which stretched
resources on the other end. Heads indicated that they faced a number of challenges that militated against their performance of duty.

H2: Trying to adjust to make people adjust to the new system, people used to the old system and there is resistance always. I deal with teachers who have low morale and de-motivated because of low salaries, striving to provide resources.

H3: Implementing a very wide curriculum is one of the challenges faced when there are inadequate resources. Every year the Ministry of Education advocates for a wider curriculum. Resources particularly money is still a problem. Parents are stretched. Donors are tired of assisting schools.

H5: One of the major challenges encountered was that of inadequate provision of resource.

Teachers were of the view that challenges faced in schools are in fact because heads do not have adequate time to monitor activities in schools since they spent more time on administrative than instructional leadership matters. Limitations faced by heads of schools needed to be reduced or eliminated so that heads as instructional leaders are more focused on the teaching and learning aspects which enhance learning and teaching effectiveness in schools.

Data showed that some of the teachers reiterated that heads had too many roles to perform in schools which made their supervision inadequate. Information gathered also confirmed that resources were inadequate. Some teachers complained that the curriculum followed in the school was too wide.

Jnr/Tr-H2: Curriculum is too wide for an average student hence most students don’t do well. Head has too many duties to carry out in the school. Inability to supervise watered down teaching and this resulted in poor quality lesson delivery.

Jnr/Tr-H4: The frequency of supervision is not done well. Less time is given to leadership and curriculum leadership issues. Heads have not been having adequate time to carry out their duties. Heads at times trust subordinates and delegate duties to other teachers who are at times not knowledgeable about instructional leadership roles. Non availability of resources to students is one of the challenges faced by the head.
Snr/Tr-H6: The Challenge of indiscipline seems to be very high in schools. There is less time for the heads to effectively supervise. Fewer resources are available in order to manage curriculum well. Brain drain affected students-who are taught by untrained teachers.

4.7.1 Challenges on book inspection

Heads were requested to furnish some of the challenges they encountered when carrying out book inspection. The main purpose was to establish what the challenges were with the view of searching for possible solutions to the challenges in order to improve approaches followed by heads on book inspection.

Data collected revealed that heads of schools faced challenges which emanated from negative attitude of teachers towards their work. The latter were generally demotivated, increased enrolment resulted in increased number of books to be assessed by heads and they too end up being over-whelmed with more work. Busy schedules of heads and other responsibilities made teaching, marking students work and carrying out book inspection reports difficult. Despite the above problems, heads of schools as instructional leaders are supposed to ensure that adequate book inspections are carried out on teachers. One way is by distributing book inspection to other subordinates in the school who include the deputy head, senior teachers and HODs. This is one alternative strategy that ought to be followed by heads of schools so that they might shed off their responsibilities and hence concentrate on performing other instructional leadership roles, such as teaching and supervision. Head participants outlined the following as some of the challenges encountered by heads when carrying out book inspection in schools:

H4: Time and some negative attitude on the part of the teachers and late submission of exercise books or even non-submission of exercise books militates against my efforts to carry out adequate book inspection on my subordinates.

H3: Numbers involved are enormous and as a result there too many students enrolled in the school hence it becomes difficult for the head to carry out book inspection on all teachers in the school. The head therefore end up delegating to HODs and other senior teachers as a possible strategy of involving other
subordinates in assisting the head in carrying out instructional supervisory roles in the school.

H5 Numbers of pupils involved are overwhelming for example the school has 500 students and each doing 8 ‘O’ level subjects which translates to 8x500 pupils. I may not even delegate because of the need to induct such people first.

It was interesting to note that participant H5 was aware of the need to delegate or distribute duties to other subordinates but was hesitant to do so because of the need to induct such colleagues so that they are capable of executing their duties effectively. Despite the representation from the participant, it is still necessary for the head to distribute the book inspection role to the deputy head and other senior teachers in the school. This can be seen as a supportive strategy for shedding off some of the responsibilities as already highlighted above.

To add to the challenges encountered by heads of schools when carrying out book inspection E1 stated:

Heads have busy schedules hence their failure to comply with some policy provisions. There is generally lack of supervision on school programmes. Students on the other hand may not do assigned work for various reasons; hence samples inspected may not be representative.

4.7.2 Challenges on on-site staff development programmes

Head participants were requested to discuss and enumerate some of the limiting factors that hindered heads of schools from carrying out staff development activities in their schools. This information was necessary in order to establish if there were any circumstances derailing the conduct of staff development sessions in schools.

According to the data gathered, the most sticking challenge identified by participants was inadequate provision of both human and material resources to ensure effective implementation of on-site staff development programmes in schools. The other challenges faced included failure to carry out on-site staff development programmes due to focus on other unplanned activities. On-site staff development programmes were not taken seriously by some teachers and there was lack of time to carry out on-site staff development activities in schools due to lack of commitment from
teachers. Lack of libraries especially in rural secondary schools, placed the schools at a disadvantage in comparison with urban secondary schools. One way of minimising those challenges is through conducting on-site staff development activities. This could also be of benefit to heads so that they concentrate their effort in ensuring on making sure that all planned staff development programmes are implemented successfully in their schools. Input on challenges faced in schools was elaborated by head participants:

**H1:** There is no library for teachers to carry out research neither qualified presenters to facilitate in staff development activities.

**H2:** Sometimes the school does not have adequate resources to carry out the programmes. At times there are other programmes that may hinder implementation of staff development programmes for example unplanned meetings which lead to the postponement of staff development programmes in the school. Teachers may also view staff development as disruptive and unnecessary and may not take them seriously.

**H4:** Lack of commitment on the part of teachers may hinder the success of staff development. Lack of resources to support such programmes including such as time also hinders the successful in implementation of staff development activities in the school.

Teacher participants expressed similar sentiments as those from heads regarding on-site staff development programmes. Financial constraints were also identified as the most common challenges faced by schools, among others.

Teachers identified the challenges such as the cost of staff development programmes in terms of time especially when there is inadequate time for heads to carry out other roles in the school. The data also highlighted that on-site staff development programmes could not be held at times due to inadequate finance to fund the programmes and inadequate space. This is so since the programmes are held in most cases when schools are in session. Data also revealed that school curriculum is too wide so it becomes impossible to cover all subjects during staff development sessions. One of the participants remarked that the army disturbed the holding of on-site staff development programmes by having its own programmes.
given precedence over those involving staff development... The following were comments from teachers:

**Jnr/Tr/H1:** Cost in terms of time-staff development may affect teaching time. Financial costs for the school, the school might have inadequate resources to conduct staff development programmes. Inadequate space for example rooms where students are displaced in order to accommodate staff development participants. There are no projectors or computers to facilitate the smooth implementation of staff development programmes in schools.

**Jnr/Tr-H6:** The school faced financial problems to fund on-site staff development programmes. At the same time the school curriculum was too wide to such an extent that there was no adequate time available to carry out staff development programmes in the school.

However **Snr/Tr-H3** stated that “On-site staff development activities fail to be fulfilled because of the disturbances from the army. Time is spent elsewhere and not at school.”

### 4.7.3 Challenges on off-site staff development programmes

Head participants were asked to outline some of the shortcomings they encountered as they participated in off-site staff development programmes in schools. This information sought to establish if there are any circumstances that impinged on the smooth conduct of off-site development programmes in the schools under study.

Data collected from head participants confirmed that the major challenge faced by schools in their effort to carry out off-site development programmes was funding. It emerged for example that schools are not at times able to send participants to venues neither are they able to pay fees and allowances as requested by organizing officials. Invitations are also delayed as a result, schools fail to send participants. Lack of cooperation from both teachers and heads and late invitation to participants are among other setbacks.

Interview responses information from head participants revealed the following shortcomings that militated against the implementation of off-site staff development programmes:
H1: “Finances are inadequate hence they act as a hindrance and there is lack of graduate personnel to carry out off-site staff development programmes.” There is also at times lack of cooperation from teacher participants.

H2: School may not have money; teachers may not go for the programmes if there are no monetary benefits to them.

H5: Communication of information and invitation at times reach participants late. At times you are invited at short notice and thus result in the school failing to provide resources to send the teachers to workshops. At times there are specifications on gender and the school may fail to meet the required ratios.

Most teacher participants’ input on the challenges faced when carrying out off-site staff development programmes were similar to those identified by heads. The common challenges raised were lack of resources and failure to secure resource persons to assist in the implementation of off-site staff development activities. The other challenges raised were lack of transport and failure by heads of schools to carry out need analysis to diagnose areas that required staff development in the schools was also raised. It also emerged that teacher participants concurred with heads when they indicated that there was no consistency in the manner in which off-site staff development programmes were held in schools. The following comments are from teacher participants:

Jnr/Tr-H2: Some of the challenges faced included lack of funds to pay facilitators and purchase of workshop material. At times there is lack of cooperation from teachers where the latter could be unwilling to attend as well as administrators when they are not supportive of staff development activities for various reasons.

Jnr/Tr-H3: Accessing resource persons is a problem and where resource persons are available they may not have time. Infrequency of holding staff development programmes affects continuity.

Snr/Tr-6: Transportation to centres is a challenge especially when the venue is away from the site of participating schools. Allowances for participants and resources for lessons are inadequate in some cases.
Interview with participant E1 revealed that failure by schools to carry out needs analysis was one of the challenges faced in the implementation of off-site staff development programmes. It was also indicated that heads of schools impose staff development programmes to be carried out.

4.7.4 Challenges faced by heads in carry out teaching responsibilities

Heads of schools as role models in the school could be inspired to teachers if they teach and carry out demonstration lessons in schools. The Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe has seen the need to enforce regulations that require that all heads to teach stipulated periods depending on the size of the school. It is therefore necessary to engage the heads in a dialogue so that they outline some of short comings experience when teaching.

The data indicated that there is very few heads teaching in schools despite ministerial policy that require them to do so. It emerged that most heads indicated that they did not have time to teach because of too many roles that they carry out in schools. This was also confirmed by one of the education officers who acknowledged that heads did not have adequate time to attend to classes. On the other hand an education officer thought that some heads did not want to teach because of their negative attitude to teaching. It is believed that if heads of schools as instructional leaders and role models teach, it is most likely they would enhance the performance of subordinates and results in improving pupils’ performance too. Contributions from some of the head participants are listed below:

H2: I do Not having enough time to attend to classes because of other duties that I carry out such as attending to visitors, supervision and attending to meetings.

H4: As head I fail to attend to most lessons due to lack of time since in most cases I am engrossed with other duties in the school which include attending to meetings and other administrative duties. However the school also fails to purchase teaching and learning materials such as bookstand are put strain on me as a head.

H5 Unable to attend to classes as required because of the nature of my work, I have no control over the clients and school stakeholders who come any time for assistance. I have to sacrifice time and see them. During examination time I am
always away from station to collect examinations. I must as well make sure that they are posted during the same time when non examination classes would be having lessons and if I happen to teach one of these classes then I won’t be able to do it.

Stating the challenges faced by heads, education officers from the District Office had the following input:

E1 This could be attributed to the attitude of heads who do not want to take teaching seriously.

E2 There is inadequate time to attend to pupils on a daily basis. Heads do not have adequate time to scheme, plan and mark pupils’ work. Heads will never get the time because of the nature of the duties they carry out which are too many.

**4.7.5 Challenges on teaching**

Head participants were requested to discuss the challenges they encountered when performing instructional leadership duties that included teaching. The question was intended to unveil the prevailing situation under which heads of schools performed instructional leadership roles in view of the multifaceted roles that they carried out in schools. The shortage of time according to head participants was due to too many roles or duties they carried out in schools which included instructional leadership roles such as teaching and supervision.

Data gathered revealed that heads of schools encountered passive resistance from teachers which militated against their effort to motivate subordinates. It also emerged that failure by teachers to be punctual for work was one of the challenges faced by heads since the heads ended up making more follow ups on teachers to ensure that they were in class teaching.

Heads under study ended up enforcing punctuality on teachers than concentrating on the core business of the school namely teaching and monitoring the teaching and learning process. Inadequacy of resources was also cited indicated as one of the constraints that head of schools face. In one school, for example where absolute or makeshift equipment was used in science lessons. Comments from some head participants were are spelt out below:
H4: Challenges are witnessed when teachers develop passive resistance to work. Lack of time to go around checking whether teachers are in the classroom teaching due to other administrative duties carried out by heads of schools is also one of the challenges encountered.

H6: Teachers delay attending to their time when going for lessons. Teachers at times wait to be called by students in roaming classes taking more time from lessons. As head I end up carrying close supervision and might fail to teach my classes.

H5: Obviously resource constraints is one of the challenges faced by heads of schools and the use of obsolete equipment for example carrying out experiments using makeshift equipment.

E1: confirmed that heads were called upon to carry out proper planning and management of activities in the schools, however he was cautious and stated as follows:

Heads had busy schedules and their morale was generally low because of unfavourable working conditions hence this affected their output in performing instructional leadership roles and other administrative duties in the school.

This was confirmed by H1 participant who said, “Heads are in most cases attending to visitors in the school and in most cases fail to attend to other activities that take place in the whole school which include teaching his classes too.”

In support of the fact that heads did not have adequate time to carry out teaching obligations and other instructional leadership roles, a check list recorded in all schools under investigation on how heads carried out their daily activities revealed that heads spent on average 1 hour 48 minutes per week attending to visitors. This activity was ranked second among the activities where heads spent much of their time on average per week. The time spent on average per week on other activities carried out by heads of schools was recorded as follows: Teaching-31 minutes; teaching feedback-06 minutes; lesson observations-23 minutes; planning curriculum-49 minutes; District and Provincial meetings-1hour; walk throughs-1hr 2 minutes; disciplinary meetings-1hour; staff development 18 minutes; and in all other
meetings heads spent 2hrs 3minutes. The data shows that on average heads of schools under investigation spent much of their time 6 hours 52 minutes attending administrative duties whilst only 1 hour on average was spent on instructional leadership roles. The above check list revealed that heads spend more time on routine administrative roles than instructional leadership roles. Under normal circumstances heads are supposed to spent more time on instructional leadership roles.

4.7.6 Challenges on clinical supervision

Clinical supervision is a modern supervisory practice which emphasises the need for heads and subordinates to work collaboratively in order to perform instructional roles effectively. Heads were asked to discuss some of the shortcomings encountered as they implemented clinical supervision in schools.

The data exposed a number of challenges faced by heads of schools as they attempted to implement clinical supervision. It emerged from the data that clinical supervision is time consuming hence heads fail to employ it in large schools due to other urgent matters they are required to attend to. Some of the challenges highlighted were lack of resources and negative attitude by subordinates due to ignorance by some heads and teachers on what clinical supervision entails. For clinical supervision to be implemented effectively in schools there is need for both heads and teachers to be adequately knowledgeable about what it entails as recommended by the proponents of clinical supervision who include Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1993). Head participants identified the following as challenges faced when carrying out clinical supervision:

H2: Usually clinical supervision is time consuming hence where there are many teachers in the school it would be very difficult to carry out clinical supervision.

H4: Lack of resources in terms of materials and time are challenges faced by heads when carrying out clinical supervision. Also negative attitude on the part of teachers and lack of knowledge about the requirements of clinical supervision by other administration members are also other challenges encountered in an effort to implement clinical supervision.
Time consuming for both teacher and head since the teacher may lose teaching time and the head may have too many teachers in the school. As a result more time may be needed to carry out clinical supervision on them. They may be required to attend to other urgent matters while the same he/she is expected to carry out clinical supervision on subordinates.

4.8 SUMMARY

The aim of the chapter was to present data collected through interviews, observations and document analysis on how heads of schools as instructional leaders performed their duties in selected six secondary schools. Various questions were asked to participants in an effort to extract information on how heads of schools as instructional leaders carried out their roles in schools in order to improve school and student performance.

It emerged that heads of schools had many roles that they carried out in schools and as such, failed to distribute their time adequately in an effort to execute their duty effectively on all the roles they carried out. However, being ultimately responsible and accountable they remained carrying out most of duties by themselves in some cases.

On the formulation of the vision, mission and goals of the schools it was evident that there were consultations made with stakeholders. There were however changes which included policy adjustments and inclusion of new subjects in the school curriculum. It was however disturbing to note that all schools under study could not maintain accurate records of staff development activities and other areas such as in lesson observation and book inspection.

Nearly all participants singled out that heads failed to teach their classes because they concentrated more on administrative duties than instructional leadership roles. It also immersed from classroom observations that heads were not carrying out enough supervision on subordinates because of the same reason furnished above. It was apparent that heads of schools followed many methods when carrying out lesson observations; however participants indicated that stages of clinical supervision were not wholly adhered to due to the busy schedules or unfamiliarity to
clinical supervision by some heads and teachers. In place of following clinical supervision, some heads under study followed the traditional approach of supervision. This is where heads did not announce their intention to observe subordinates but just presented themselves as if they were fault finding. Heads and teachers’ involvement in curriculum management issues were identified inclusive of the role played by heads as instructional leaders. Participants indicated that HODs were mainly consulted in the selection of curriculum issues whilst ordinary teachers were left out in some cases.

It was also established that some heads of schools attempted to consult subordinates on issues pertaining to decision making through appointing teacher representatives using HODs in the school. However other heads consulted mainly senior members of staff excluding junior members which stifled relations and nurtured a tense atmosphere among teachers.

Whilst several staff development activities were lined up in schools’ programmes, these were often postponed because of other pressing assignments carried out in schools. Participants admitted that holding of staff development activities in schools was beneficial to them. However they bemoaned that they were not consistently held. Several challenges faced in carrying out on-site and off-site staff development programmes were highlighted by participants and it seemed they overweighed identified successes of the staff development programmes.

In an effort to make sure that heads protected students and made sure that they were always taught, heads carried out formal and informal supervision on teachers. The formal supervision was carried through lesson observations as detailed above while informal approaches included MBWA or TMW. Students were also empowered to report teachers who reported late for lessons and those who could not report for lessons.

It was however noted that the schools under study, on the District Education Office and the entire Ministry of Education Sports and Culture were supportive of the need to recognise members of staff and students who excelled in various activities. By awarding them prizes yearly. This was meant to motivate the members of staff so that they remained focused on their core business which might enable heads to execute their duties effectively.
Several limitations were also identified which militated against heads’ efforts to perform their duties properly. The major short coming identified in the study was that of failure to get adequate time to perform all duties in the school. Due to the shortage of time, heads could not teach their classes as time tabled due to too many roles they carried out in the school.

The above observations have implications on the way heads of schools as instructional leaders performed their duties in various schools. It is therefore necessary to proceed to the next chapter which attempts to discuss the findings of the study.
Chapter 4 focused on the presentation and analysis of the research findings which analysed responses from participants concerning the major responsibilities performed by heads as instructional leaders. This chapter discusses the research findings in perspective of what the current knowledge says about how heads perform instructional leadership roles. The findings are discussed under the following themes:

(i) roles carried out by heads;

(ii) curriculum issues;

(iii) classroom observations;

(iv) inspection of pupils’ exercise books;

(v) protection of instructional time;

(vi) teaching;

(vii) staff development; and

(viii) support of teacher autonomy and decision making.

Heads carry out many roles as part of their employment obligations; hence the subsequent section will discuss the roles carried out by heads of schools as instructional leaders.
5.2 GENERAL DISCUSSION ON ROLES CARRIED OUT BY HEADS

The roles carried out by heads are critical in realising school improvement and student performance globally. This view is stated in chapter 1 and emphasised by various authors who include Walker and Scott (2000), Jenerrette and Sherretz (2007), and Gamage, Adams and McCormack (2009). Therefore, heads ought to efficiently perform their duties in order to produce credible results in schools. Findings from the study were not consistent with the above statement since most schools under study were not performing well due to failure by heads to closely supervise subordinates. Various research findings confirm that effective heads emphasise more on facilitative instructional leadership as they perform their leadership roles in schools (Phillips 2009; Lashway, 2002 and Lekange, 2010). Findings from the study revealed that heads did not focus on facilitative leadership but took their roles in a routine-like manner without emphasising on collaborative or teamwork.

It was evident from the findings of the study that head participants knew what instructional leadership entails since they were able to identify instructional leadership roles that they are supposed to carry out in schools. Despite being asked to identify the most important roles they performed, the majority did not mention teaching. However, it was disturbing to discover that most heads failed to cope with the multi-faceted roles which they performed in schools as instructional leaders. Also, the majority of heads under study encountered challenges in their effort to perform instructional leadership roles in their respective schools. The challenges consequently derailed efforts by heads to render adequate attention to their duties; thus, resulting in poor performance in schools.

If heads have are assigned with many roles, they may end up not performing to their full capacity. This view is shared by Schmoker (2005) who concedes that ‘buffers,’—a term referring to non instructional aspects that call for the head’s attention, could further detract the head from focusing on instructional leadership roles. Therefore, if heads are to facilitate improved students’ performance, it becomes necessary for them to focus mainly on instructional leadership roles in order to enhance performance in schools. The instructional leadership model clarifies the areas on
which the heads should focus. The model insists that heads should focus on key areas which include: setting a clear vision, mission statement and goals of the school, making sure that there is a conducive learning environment in the school and ensuring that there is proper management of the instructional programme that is followed in the school. In support of the findings on the complexity of the roles played by heads of schools mentioned above, Fullan (2000) observed that the head's responsibility or any educational leader has become increasingly complex and constrained. As instructional leaders, heads find themselves with limited options because they have become more dependent on context. Although proactive leadership is essential, heads are in the least favourable position to provide it (156).


Fullan’s statement (2000) expresses the difficulties that heads encounter as they perform their duties in schools. The acknowledgement that heads do not have much room to ‘maneuver’ should conscientise them on the need to be proactive and create room to combat the difficulties encountered. Thus, heads should consider empowering subordinates so that they operate as ‘teacher leaders’ by networking and sharing ideas through peer observations.

The study further discovered that heads failed to cope with their duties because of role complexity. In an effort to manage the complexity of the heads, Goslin (2009) and MoESAC (1993) recommended that heads should distribute tasks to the deputy heads and HODs so that the former can concentrate more on observing classroom instruction. In support of the need for heads to distribute leadership, Burnsike and Barlow (2009) stressed that heads should not independently lead schools but should distribute some of the duties to their subordinates. Therefore, from the subordinates, heads should identify potential leaders whom they can appoint assign various instructional leadership chores. Similarly, DuFour (2002) emphasises on the need for heads to operate as learning leaders by encouraging teamwork and collaborative approaches to the teaching and learning of students. The main focus of heads as learning leaders should be on how students grasp the matter taught as opposed to monitoring educators teaching. Ultimately, heads should focus mainly on how best
they can improve students’ learning problems and implement interventions accordingly (DuFour 2002).

Hallinger (2000) and Spillane (2005) also emphasised on the need for heads to distribute leadership roles. It was also established that some heads of schools under study distributed duties to subordinates in order to reduce their responsibilities. These findings confirm aspects of the distributed leadership model which stipulates that leaders should shade off their work load to subordinates.

However, the findings revealed that although some heads distributed duties to subordinates, they eventually performed those duties in order to ensure efficiency. Similarly, the MoESAC (1993) warned that heads could still be held accountable even if they delegated duties to subordinates. Thus, heads should assign tasks to capable, reliable and skilled. In this way, heads can have time to monitor other activities in the school.

The findings further established that heads of schools and teachers were able to identify the most important duties carried out by heads in schools. However, all of the head participants did not mention teaching. This revelation was contrary to the Zimbabwe MoESAC (2006) which identified teaching as one of the most important roles to be carried out by heads, if meaningful learning is to be realised. The heads’ failure to identify this role implied that they were not taking teaching seriously as one of their most important roles. The head participants’ responses confirmed that they were not teaching due to numerous workloads. Ovando and Ramirez (2009) and Phillips (2009) explain that in addition to all the roles that were identified as important, heads were also required to carry out research in schools so that they cultivated research evaluation skills in order for them to effectively perform instructional leadership roles. However, there was no evidence of any research being carried out by participants.

The paucity of research in schools under study means that heads were not used to conducting research. Emphasising the need for heads to embark on research, Glanz (2006) elaborated that:
Action research today is employed by principals (heads) as a cutting-edge practice that encourages teachers, as thoughtful professionals, to reflect, refine and improve teaching (p.13).

The following discussion will focus on the roles on which the heads concentrate as instructional leaders under the three main dimensions highlighted by Hallinger (2000) namely: the need to establish vision, mission and goals, managing the instructional programme and creating a conducive learning climate.

5.3 DEFINING THE SCHOOL VISION, MISSION AND GOALS

The need for heads to influence the design of a clear vision and mission is essential if schools are to achieve their goals. This need is propounded by Hallinger (2000) and explicitly elaborated in chapter 1.

The findings showed that all participant school heads went through the process of formulating vision and mission statements and goals of their schools. School heads consulted most of the stakeholders when formulating the vision, mission and goals for schools. The study identified teachers, SDC/SDA members and the community at large among stakeholders who were consulted during the formulation of the vision, mission and goals. Most teacher participants also confirmed that the heads contacted them when the vision, mission and goals of the school were being formulated. In support of the findings, King (2000) stated that there is need for heads to consult teachers and other stakeholders in decision making so that decisions made in the school are encompassing. The involvement of all stakeholders in the design of the vision, mission and goals induces commitment and a desire to achieve the goals set by the school community.

Nonetheless, this requires heads to have good communication skills so that they are able to communicate the school vision, mission and goals of the school to all members. Consistent with the need to formulate and communicate a clear vision, mission and goals of the school, Phillips (2009) emphasises on the planning of school activities first. The planning of school activities involves checking out what others have done in the process of mapping their vision and mission statements. Observations are then incorporated in the vision, mission and goals being crafted.
Graczewski *et al.* (2009) conducted a study in America on instructional leadership and the influence it had in the running of schools. The findings uncovered that in cases where heads were able to design clear goals and strategies, and such goals and strategies were understood by teachers, there were more chances for marked professional development in the school. The implications of the above are that heads of schools should be well focused and involve teachers and other stakeholders in mapping up school plans. The involvement of teachers in school activities is supportive of the participative model approach which encourages collaborative planning and team work in handling school activities. Such an approach enables subordinates with different skills to network for the purpose of identifying the best practice and guidelines in running school operations.

In view of the curriculum and policy changes in education constantly taking place the world over, it is necessary for schools to always adjust their vision and mission statements so that they remain relevant. These observations are in line with Botha’s (2004) views that the heads’ work load in secondary schools had increased drastically; consequently, heads fail to efficiently perform their duties. Some heads complained that they failed to execute their duties due to shortages of resources. Blasé and Blasé (2002) confirmed the importance of the need to provide adequate resources in schools by heads in order to support programme design. Therefore, Botha’s views were in agreement with the findings from schools under study since most of the heads confirmed that they failed to perform their duties due to overloaded duties.

Research findings further revealed that most heads under study gradually modified the goals and implementation of the vision and mission statements of schools as the need arose. However, the alleged modifications were not documented in any of the main meetings held in the schools, or in staff development minutes and HODs minute books in any of the schools under study. Records of important activities such as the modification of the vision and mission statements ought to be documented for record purposes and feedback.

The fact that such records were not kept was viewed as an omission by heads of schools under study. This testified that though changes on the focus of schools could have been conducted as alleged by the participants, it was, however, difficult
to make follow ups or relate changes to the adjustments made, if they were not documented. However, this is a deviation from the Ministry of Education Sports Arts Culture’s conduct of school activities. According to the guidelines in the Handbook of Heads (1993), heads are supposed to document all important aspects carried in schools.

Expressing the need to carry out constructive feedback to subordinates, Kochan and Trimble (2000) stressed the need to have feedback on new information, since new work requires practice and reflection. In addition, since heads are viewed as key persons in the teaching and learning, feedback is equally viewed important (Sergiovanni & Starrat, 2002; Gaza, 2001). Therefore, heads should detail all important information that is received especially on reviews made on the vision, mission and goals of the school for reflective purposes.

The study further sought information on the roles of heads in crafting the schools’ vision, mission statement and goals. It emerged that heads performed various roles in facilitating the formulation of the vision, mission statement and goals of the schools. Participants spelt out that they played a consultative role in addition to coordinating the process of formulating the vision, mission statements and goals of the schools under study. There are different levels of participation or involvement in decision making especially in cases like framing vision, mission and goals of the school. Wilcox (1994:2) outlines the different levels of participation, namely:

- **Information**: where people are merely told what is planned and what is expected from them. Members in this case may not contribute anything but listen and carry out instructions.

- **Consultation**: where leaders offer some options, listen to feedback but not allowed to add new ideas.

- **Deciding together**: whereby all stakeholders add options and ideas. They also provide opportunities for joint decision making.

- **Acting Together**: whereby people from different backgrounds decide together on what is best. They form a partnership to carry it out.

- **Supporting Independent Community Interests**: Local groups or
organisations are offered funds, advice or other support to develop their own agendas within guidelines.

The above levels are similar to those of Arnstein’s Ladder of Participation which include manipulation, theory and information at the bottom of the Ladder followed by consultation, placation and then partnerships, delegated power and citizen control at the top. The findings of the study showed that some school heads kept at the consultation level where they came up with vision, mission and goals and shared them with teachers for feedback. Others encouraged participation at a higher level, whereby they decided together with the teachers and other stakeholders. This means that they were able to add their own ideas and also decide on how to implement together. One school head even came up with vision and mission statements and goals and persuaded teachers to accept them. Hence, it is evident that in formulating school vision, mission and goals, school heads adopted different levels to involve stakeholders.

5.3.1 Ensuring adherence to the vision and mission statement

The findings from the study uncovered that heads had various methods that they follow to ensure that teachers remained focused on the vision, mission and goals of the schools. The first approach described the need for head and teachers to meet more regularly with members of staff, delegating and distributing duties to HODs, and making reviews. However, the head remained overall in charge of the HODs so that the latter were also evaluated on how they executed their duties. The heads were also free to delegate and distribute some of the roles they carried out in an effort to create space to carry out other duties that included, for example, teaching and report writing.

Fullan in Gamage et al. (2009) was of the opinion that the role of the head is made easier when collaborative groups of teachers play a leading role in running school affairs. However, the head continues to be influential in running all activities in the school through motivating members of staff and students too. Information collected from teacher participants reflected that heads of schools were not doing enough to ensure that members remained focused on set targets. Teacher participants
observed that in some cases heads were not efficiently performing their supervisory roles.

The study further investigated changes on the roles of instructional leaders for the past five years. Information from the study confirmed that heads acknowledged that there were changes on their roles due to added responsibilities and policy changes. The changes were due to the introduction of two path-way systems into education, the inclusion of cultural aspects in the school curriculum, and child friendly lessons. It meant that schools were expected to revisit their vision and mission statements and curriculum in order to accommodate the new changes in the focus of the school. The school is made up of structures that should assist in integrating new policy directives as stipulated above. For example, heads could distribute issues on curriculum change to HODs so that the head’s responsibility remains one of overseeing what is being done by HODs.

In the study, most participants confirmed that heads consulted the school community in the process of formulating the goals and mission statements; though some of the junior teachers indicated that they were not always consulted. The reason why the junior teachers were left out could be that they lacked experience in teaching. The heads’ failure to consult junior teachers was contrary to the requirements of distributed leadership which calls for a collective involvement of all stakeholders in school programmes (Heck & Hallinger, 2010). Consequently, it is necessary to include junior teachers because as recent graduates, they may have latest information from colleges on teaching and learning, which might also benefit the senior teachers.

The consultations with senior teachers were a positive move by heads, as they applied the participative leadership approach which involved other members of the school. Members become motivated and developed a sense of belonging which activated them to work towards achieving the school’s objectives. Consistent with the importance of consultation, Karpicke and Murphy (1996) cited in Kruger (2003) state that the involvement of stakeholders in setting the purpose and objectives of the school’s focus or areas contributes positively to a healthy standing of the school.

Similar observations were made by Phillips (2009) who emphasised the need to include the school community in setting the vision of an organisation through
consulting and inducing commitment from the stakeholders in order to gain support of the school’s areas. However, as stated in the above section, studies have observed that the levels of participation are different and might have effect on the extent to which a person can be involved in decision making (Wilcox, 1994).

### 5.4 MANAGING THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMME

The second dimension of instructional leadership identified by Hallinger (2000) is the need for heads to perform their duties through coordination of instruction and curriculum followed in the school. An analysis of the findings from the study concerning how heads carried out curriculum issues and leadership functions in the schools under study is processed below.

#### 5.4.1 Selection of school curriculum

It was evident from data that major decisions on changing the curriculum are made by the Ministry. Schools have power to choose subjects and also review the curriculum by making changes in the subjects offered. Although participant heads stated that they consulted most stakeholders including teachers, HODs, deputy heads and other members in the administration when selecting or initiating the school curriculum, it was disputed by participant teachers who indicated that they were not involved in the selection or initiation of the school curriculum. Therefore, it is of vital that heads ensure that all stakeholders are involved in the selection of the school curriculum so that members have ownership of the curriculum and a clear understanding of their role in its implementation (Southworth, 2004; Kotter, 1995).

Furthermore, there is need for the head to allow teachers to participate in the decision making process in the school through involving teachers in curriculum selection. The participation of teachers in decision making is consistent with Maposa and Mutopa (2011) who revealed that teachers ought to be involved in the modification and adaption of the school curriculum to harness local needs. Succinctly, this is in line with the participative decision making model propounded by Hallinger (2000) and Hoy and Miskel (2005). The involvement of teachers in decision making also empowers them (Adams & McCormack, 2009; Carl, 2002). When
teachers are empowered, they operate jointly and continuously sharing ideas, resources and artefacts accumulated over time (Wenger, 1999).

Studies have also observed that when teachers participate in the process of formulating the school curriculum, they eventually understand it and will be able to implement it properly to ensure achievement of the objectives. In support of the findings that heads carried out multifaceted roles in schools. Authorities like Davies and Hammond, LaPointe and Meyerson (2005), Fullan (2000), Kruger (2003), Oslon (2000) and Phillips (2009) also made the same observation. Therefore, heads as instructional leaders need to find ways and means of navigating through all activities in the school, despite the challenge of having to carry out many roles. Therefore, this requires that heads counter the increase of their roles, by also inviting other teachers to assist in performing some of the duties (DuFour, 2000; Lashway 2002). In other words, they have to “acknowledge that within schools there are multiple layers of instructional leadership” (MacNeill et al., 2003:4) and the focus should not be solely on the school head as a leader.

As stated in Chapter 2, Ramparsad, (2001) observed that in South Africa, many teachers failed to implement the new curriculum partly because they were not involved in the formulation of the new curriculum, that is, Curriculum 2005 of the Outcomes Based Education Orientation (OBE).

Failure to consult teachers as the study found out has the potential for creating an unstable working environment in the school. Consequently, this can affect the learning output as teachers may not appreciate being associated with programmes that they did not initiate. Therefore, this may demotivate teachers. It is also against one of the dimensions of instructional leadership model which emphasises that heads should create a conducive learning atmosphere in the school (Hallinger, 2000). Teachers are generally not involved in curriculum selection, but they are involved in reviewing, usually after 5 years. The selection does not involve major changes but decisions are mainly made by the Ministry, schools only choose the options given by Ministry. Reviewing also entails making decisions on which subjects to retain and those to leave out.
5.4.2 Classroom observation and feedback

The need to promote and improve instructional skills in schools is the main duty of the head of each school, inclusive of the school management body (King, 2000). The categories assessed by heads when carrying out instruction include, in addition to those stated above, monitoring student progress through book inspection, developing teachers’ skills through staff development programmes, providing support for teachers through provision of resources and protecting instructional skills through evaluation of instructional skills and making sure that educators are always teaching.

The findings established that most heads employed different approaches in carrying out lesson observations. It also emerged that most heads carried out some planning prior to class visits through holding meetings and setting up dates for such visits especially at the beginning of the term. Their actions are in line with the MoESAC (1993) which stipulates that heads should hold meetings with staff members at the beginning and end of each term to map up plans for the term and review progress.

The findings revealed that one head confirmed that he consulted the supervisees’ prior to lesson observations whilst other participants did not see the need to consult supervisees in advance for the visit, for various reasons. Advance consultation made before class visits are in conformity with modern supervisory practices such as clinical supervision. Clinical supervision advocates for coordination and collaboration between the supervisor and the supervisee (Pajak, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 2006; Cogan, 1973 cited in Zepeda, 2007). Clinical supervision is a modern supervisory approach which is strongly recommended for use by heads as indicated in Chapter 2. It encourages collaboration and teamwork especially where the teacher and the supervisor plan lessons together (Seldin, 2011; Vacilotto & Cummings, 2007). The head could take advantage of clinical supervision to also carry out peer demonstration lessons which are crucial in the development of teaching strategies (Hammersley-Fletcher & Orsmond, 2004).

Carrying out clinical supervision and peer demonstration in schools is in conformity with the second dimension of instructional leadership model construct (Hallinger, 2000). The latter emphasises the need for heads to carry out supervision and
evaluation of school activities, so that the school remains focused in achieving its goals. The approach where teachers were not informed about the head’s intended visit, shows that the head was focusing mainly on inspection which may be viewed as fault finding in nature (Zepeda, 2007). According to Glanz (2006:54) supervision should be a process that engages teachers in instructional dialogue for improvement of teaching and promoting student achievement and not a judgemental practice. Zepeda and Ponticell (1998:47) identify aspects of supervision as validation, empowerment, visible presence, coaching and a vehicle for professionalism. Consequently, Glickman (1998) outlines major tasks of supervision as direct assistance, professional development, group development, curriculum development and action research. All these aspects point at supervision as a process of enhancing development of teachers’ skills and improving learner performance.

The findings also revealed that while the heads under study carried out lessons observations, the majority did not follow the stages for clinical supervision. One explanation could be that the heads were not conversant with the stages of Cogan’s (1973) clinical supervision model and hence unable to follow them. However, the model advocates for the implementation of cyclic stages, at least twice per year (Glickman 1990 cited in Gamage, Adams & McCormack, 2007). The major reason for failure to implement the model in schools was lack of time. In other words, one can conclude that clinical supervision was haphazardly carried out in the schools under study.

The findings revealed that one of the heads under study rarely conducted class visits to supervise teachers, but delegated this responsibility to HODs and other senior teachers in the school. The head only made follow ups where necessary on the basis of the feedback he recorded from his management team members. In agreement with the preceding statement, Danielson and McGreal (2000) and Weiner (2002) reiterated that effective heads empower their subordinates by according them authority through delegating duties to them. This could be viewed as a positive approach by this head since it enabled the head to concentrate more on other duties such as instructional leadership, leaving HODs to run the departments. Usually, HODs are subject specialists who supervise teachers under them and make recommendations to the head. Heads may lack knowledge on specific subjects
offered in the school in which they have no specialization, making it necessary to depend on HODs in most cases (Poirier, 2009).

One of the setbacks encountered was the head’s failure to perform lessons as scheduled, due to the multiple roles they performed in the schools. As a result, the findings revealed that lesson observation reports by heads were inadequate and in some cases, not even available. As suggested by teacher participants, heads should shed off some of the responsibilities to the deputy head and other senior teachers. It is then necessary for heads to monitor those delegated duties more effectively.

5.4.3 Frequency of carrying out lesson observations/class visits

The findings revealed that the majority of heads carried out lesson observations once per teacher per term. This is within the Ministry’s expectation which stipulates that heads should at least carry out three lesson observations per year per teacher (Zimbabwe MoESC, 1993). The findings revealed that most schools carried out one lesson observation per term. The head from one of the schools which had the best results carried out two lesson observation per term per teacher. Further inquiry revealed that the school, inclusive of the head received cash incentive over and above other incentives such as free accommodation, free lunch. Other schools did not offer such incentives to the staff because of inadequate resources. The fact that one of the head participants carried out two lesson observations per term whilst others carried out only one, put this particular school at an advantage of producing better results. It also emerged that all teachers in this particular school were interviewed first before their appointments were made by the Education Directorate. Other schools under study employed teachers without any interviews since they were deployed from the District Office after presenting their qualifications. The above observations made this particular school standout of the other schools under study.

The findings further confirmed that observations carried out by heads benefited subordinates through the feedback rendered, which focused on the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson observed. Feedbacks are important aspects of reflection on one’s performance as they assist the individual to improve her or his teaching skills. Participants acknowledged that in some cases where supervision was carried out, results in the school improved. In other words, this was after lesson
observations were carried and feedback given immediately. The findings concur with the views of Ovando and Ramirez. (2007). Commenting on the importance and need of continuous and timely class visits in schools, Ovando and Ramirez (2007) conceded that class visits carried out by heads enable them to develop growth plans that aimed at continuously improving the teachers’ skills.

However, the research findings further revealed that heads of schools needed to be knowledgeable about supervisory practices as put across by E1 participant. In conformity with the research findings, Hanny (1987) in Gamage, Adams, and McCormack (2009:6), advised that if heads are to be effective, they are expected to be on familiar ground with curriculum development, staff development and clinical supervision. In view of the above statements, heads need to be well read and exposed through inservice programmes organised by the Ministry of Education.

5.4.4 Inspection of pupils’ exercise books

The findings from the study revealed that some heads were not carrying out book inspections consistently, although others carried them once per term per teacher. The failure by some heads of schools to carry out exercise book inspections is in contrast with the Zimbabwe MoESC (1993) policy which encourages all heads of schools to scrutinize student’s exercise books more often. Where heads are unable to carry out book inspection on their subordinates, they may delegate such role to other senior teachers, for example, the deputy head or HODs.

The findings from the study revealed that most heads of schools gave feedback on book inspection to subordinates through discussing the findings with the concerned teachers. This was a positive observation which is in line with Sergiovanni and Starrat (2002) who acknowledges the need to give feedback to subordinates for reflective purposes. However, a perusal of documents in the schools could not confirm the availability of copies of book inspection reports having been made. Staff meeting minutes did not contain any discussions on book inspection also. However, this raised concerns because book inspection reports should be documented after discussions. Therefore, it was concluded that heads from schools under study were not documenting most activities in schools raising doubts if at all book inspection is being carried in the absence of documentary evidence.
Book inspections are carried out as part of the supervisory roles performed by heads in order to ascertain the quantity, quality and suitability of work given to pupils (MoESAC, 1993). In the absence of written reports, heads might not be able to make follow ups on the weaknesses and strengths exhibited by teachers. The strengths and weaknesses on teachers are important, since they can serve as a useful basis for identifying staff development programmes for teachers in the schools.

5.5 PROTECTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

The head as an instructional leader has to protect the utilisation of learning time by teachers in the school. The study showed that heads monitored teachers by conducting formal and informal supervision on teachers. Formal supervision was carried out through lesson observations and book inspection as elaborated above. Informal supervision was carried out through Three-Minute Walkthrough (TMW) or Management by Wondering Around (MBWA) which are unannounced visits carried out by heads as part of their supervisory routine checks on subordinates.

The findings were consistent with Ovando and Ramirez (2007) who supported the need for heads to carry out TMWs by revealing that TMWs are informal observations which capture a true reflection of what takes place in the classroom as the teacher delivers lessons. TMWs enable heads to focus mainly on areas of supervision within a very short period which allows the head to observe the effectiveness of teachers and give immediate feedback. When heads carry out frequent TMWs, it is believed that they will be able to identify areas of weaknesses and strengths in teaching strategies and hence guide teachers from an informed base. This in turn enables heads to perform their supervisory roles effectively, resulting in improved pupil performance.

The study by Danielson and McGreal (2000) support the findings of this research which revealed that heads made sure that teachers stuck to the teaching times through delegation of duty to other subordinates like the deputy head, HODs and other senior teachers. It was noted that heads also empowered pupils to report teachers who failed to attend their lessons as specified on the time table. This is another way of ensuring that teachers are in class teaching, as expected.
A check list on how heads carried out their daily activities revealed that heads spent on average 1 hour 48 minutes per week attending to visitors. This activity was ranked second among the activities on which heads spent most of their time on the average, per week. Nonetheless, heads spent on average the following times per week on the following activities:

(i) 31 minutes on teaching;
(ii) 06 minutes on teaching feedback;
(iii) 23 minutes on lesson observations;
(iv) 49 minutes on planning curriculum;
(v) 1 hour on District and Provincial meetings;
(vi) 1 hour 2 minutes on walkthroughs;
(vii) 1 hour 35 minutes on disciplinary meetings;
(viii) 2 hours 3 minutes on other meetings; and
(ix) 18 minutes on staff development.

For example, it was established, that the least times were spent on giving teaching feedback, staff development, and teaching (instructional leadership roles) whilst most time was spent on attending other meetings; attending to visitors; and carrying out disciplinary meetings. From these findings, it is clear that valuable time is spent on issues which have no direct bearing on the teaching and learning and the professional development of teachers. This is contrary to the observations made by Johnson (1997), Cotton (2003), Waters, Marzano and Mc Nutty (2004), Botha (2004), Gamage et al. (2009) who expressed the need for heads to remain focused on the teaching and learning of students, so that there is improvement in student performance. DeFour (2002) encourages heads of schools to focus mainly on how students learn so that those who are slow learners could benefit from interventions planned by heads. However, in situations where heads spend more time outside the classroom as observed in the schools under study, students who require more assistance might not be identified. The observation above confirms that most
schools heads did not prioritize the importance of the roles they performed in schools; hence their focus on less important duties.

5.6 TEACHING

Heads had heavy workloads; as a result, they did not have adequate time to teach and carry out instructions. Failure by heads to teach was a contravention of the stipulations of the Zimbabwe MoESAC (2006) circular that gave a directive to all heads to teach scheduled lessons over and above other duties they performed in the school. This was a serious omission on the side of these administrators as students lost valuable learning time. This is also contrary to the instructional leadership model which emphasises the need for both teachers and heads to focus mainly on teaching and learning as part of their roles, in order to improve student achievements.

In support of the need for heads to teach, Goldys (2009) and Pham (1997) stated that a head must always teach and research so that he/she is kept abreast with current instructional leadership domains and other developments in education. This directive was enforced by the Zimbabwe Ministry of Education, Sports Arts and Culture after it was alleged that heads were concentrating more on administrative duties than instructional roles. However, Phillips (2009) emphasised the need for heads to work closely with students so that they come up with teaching approaches that will benefit teachers. Findings were not consistent with the above statement since it was evident that schools did not involve students in decision making in most school activities. For example, whilst teachers were consulted in curriculum selection students were just fitted in classes without giving them room to select subjects of their interest. Such an approach barred students to engage in dialogue with school authorities.

Gamage, Adams and McCormack (2007) also support the need for heads to teach by recommending that heads should be practicing teachers so that they are role models to subordinates. The same notion was acknowledged in the United Kingdom when it was indicated that the most vital thing that enhanced instructional leadership in schools was when all heads of schools taught (Weindling, 1990). Gentilueei and
Muto (2007) strengthens the above view by revealing that heads of schools that were comfortable with teaching students while serving as administrators had a powerful effect on students’ performance in schools. Contrary to the foregoing statement, findings from the study revealed that most heads under study were not teaching at all since they spent more time on administrative issues than professional duties. The check list completed in the six rural schools confirmed the above observations. Findings revealed that some heads had confirmed that they were teaching but failed to produce adequate preparatory documents to substantiate their claims. This raised doubts if they were at all teaching.

One head was very blunt about his failure to teach when he said: “I am not comfortable with teaching; this is why I do not have a scheme book. I do not have adequate time to teach. So I do not want to cheat by just having a scheme book without using it.” Failure by some heads under study to produce valid evidence such as schemes of work and plan books was a clear indication that they were in fact not teaching. Heads of schools under study who claimed that they were teaching were not teaching effectively since they did not have the necessary preparation books. As such, their teaching was haphazard and could not yield the desired academic effects. In the light of this information, there is need for heads to lead by example and show their expertise which should be emulated and followed by subordinates. The findings therefore confirm that teachers were not benefiting much from the heads’ experiences bearing in mind that the majority of heads are promoted on good classroom competence.

Heads of schools are normally appointed after having demonstrated outstanding teaching experience; so there is need for them to spend more time teaching so that they demonstrate their skills to junior teachers. Similar observations were made in a study carried out by Makuvaro (1997) in Zimbabwe on challenges faced by primary school heads, where students and teachers confirmed that heads of schools were generally effective teachers. However, they bemoaned their failure to attend lessons regularly. This statement further confirms the failure by heads to attend to their classes as reflected by the findings in this study.

However Grady (1999) outlined the advantages of the teaching heads and these include the following:
(i) the head ends up knowing students better;

(ii) the head maintains his/her teaching skills and hence could monitor and demonstrate skills to subordinates;

(iii) the head is at an advantage since he/she will be aware of classroom activities and also maintain good rapport with parents.

The main disadvantage noted by Grady (1999) of the teaching head was lack of time to carry out all the duties. The second limitations identified included too many interruptions, meetings and inadequate time to appraise teachers on their performance of duty. The other short coming identified was when teachers felt that they were being ignored by the head. Teachers have social problems and family problems which can affect their output at work hence the head has to be with such teachers counseling them at times.

It emerged from the findings that all heads under investigation confirmed that there were changes on the time they spent teaching for the past 5 years. The findings further revealed that participants confirmed that the causes of the changes were due to the increase of responsibilities on heads. It was alleged that administrative duties took much of the heads’ time and this made them fail to teach their classes. This was regardless of the fact that heads could delegate or distribute some of their roles to the deputy head, HODs or other senior teachers. The fact that heads of schools admitted that they spent less time teaching, acknowledges their failure to assist students under their care. Mutopa et al. (2006) stated that failure by school heads to attend to their classes meant inadequate supervision of students and this adversely affected the students’ performance.

It was further revealed that since their appointment to substantive posts as heads, they were not inspected as classroom practioners by the District Education Officers. Although HODs may supervise heads, heads are normally supervised by education officers from the District Office or Provincial Office (MoESC, 2006). It emerged from the findings that the Education Officers carried out institutional supervision when they visited schools as opposed to classroom observation on heads of schools. One education officer indicated that there was no policy that compelled them to observe
heads while teaching. This statement was meant to justify why education officers were not performing lesson observations on heads. However, heads of schools were required to be supervised whilst teaching as a way of monitoring them.

The findings from the study indicated that most heads who were not teaching were in violation of the standing regulations of the Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture. It emerged that heads blamed their failure to teach too many responsibilities on their shoulders, which kept them away from the classroom. The findings are in tandem with a study carried out in Ghana in the Komenda-Edina Eguafo-Abrem District. The study revealed that heads who were teaching complained about heavy workload (Oduro 2003). Cardno’s (2003) study that was conducted in New Zealand also affirmed that heads’ increased workload, especially on administrative duties, adversely affected how they performed leadership roles in schools. Education officers who participated in the study had conflicting views on the teaching of heads when one asserted that heads performed many roles; hence their failure to teach. On the contrary, the other education officer felt that heads had negative attitudes towards teaching, hence their failure to teach. However, it is necessary for heads to develop positive attitudes towards teaching so that they cultivate interest amongst subordinates. It is believed that when heads of schools teach, there is a corresponding response in the improvement of students’ performance.

Teacher participants advised that heads faced challenges as they carried out teaching responsibilities. The curriculum followed in some schools was too wide for an average student; as a result, teachers needed more time to prepare. When heads failed to teach such students, it worsened the situation of the students, resulting in most students performing poorly in some schools. Such situations created a negative impact on the results in general. The other setback identified was that of heads having too many roles as indicated previously in the study. This is in contrast with view Heller and Firestone’s (1995) view discussed in Chapter 2 of this study which indicated that the head’s functions could be easily distributed to other subordinates in the school.

Given these circumstances, heads could easily distribute their leadership chores to the deputy heads, HODs or other teachers in order to shed off other responsibilities so that heads remain with manageable roles. This is also in line with the distributive
leadership model which emphasises that heads should relinquish their roles as ultimate decision makers but trust others in making decisions for them (MacBeath, 2003).

Although the schools under investigation faced some challenges, it was noted that some schools had improved their pass rates from previous years. It also emerged that the performance of teachers had improved through the heads’ assistance. It emerged that one of the schools under study performed well due to the efforts by the school in providing teachers with various incentives every term. This suggests that teachers would perform well when they are motivated and rewarded for the good efforts. The study leant that other schools that did not award incentives to their teachers did not perform comparatively well.

The results in schools are most likely to improve where heads of schools as leaders carry out instructional leadership roles, effectively including teaching. Even when the head teaches a non examinable subject, other teachers may be motivated when they witness their head teaching as time tabled. When the head teaches, one is viewed as moving away from the traditional model which identifies the head as a manager or administrator ensuring that rules and regulations are adhered to without fail.

Other strategies followed were heads teaching during weekends although this had limitations because other students could not attend lessons.

5.7 PROMOTING A POSITIVE SCHOOL LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

It is the head’s duty to promote a culture that is conducive not only to students’ learning but to the entire school community as advocated by Buffle (1989) as cited in Gamage et al. (2009). For a positive climate to exist, it demands cooperative teamwork in formulating strategies to enhance such an environment. Heads need to formulate policies and procedures that would deliberately support subordinates.
5.8 SUPPORT OF TEACHER AUTONOMY AND DECISION MAKING

The findings from the study revealed that most heads under study normally allowed teachers to make independent decisions which were minor, for example, on classroom management issues and, at times, on sporting activities. It was also revealed that certain heads did not involve teachers in making their own independent decisions since the heads were finally held accountable for all developments that took place in the school.

There was evidence of collective decision making in one of the schools under investigation; two teacher representatives were accorded a platform in the main meeting to give comments on achievements and areas where the administration did not perform well during the course of the term. It emerged that this was done every term during the opening and closing of meetings as a safety valve for accountability and assessing the achievements of school targets. Such a consultative approach was viewed as a positive move from the head and this could have positive impact on the performance of the teachers. Nonetheless, this was unique to this particular school since the rest of the schools under investigation did not have a similar practice. The findings collaborated with Rutherford’s (2002) study in a Catholic Church primary school in Birmingham where it was found that effective heads promoted collegial approaches while practicing positive and flexible leadership styles.

The need to involve the entire school community is also indorsed by Hoy and Miskel (2005) in the shared decision making model, Putting it Together (PIT). The model emphasises the need for subordinates to have expertise so that there are meaningful contributors in decision making process of the school. For example, subordinates are expected to make decisions on curriculum issues in the school; hence, the need for such individuals to be knowledgeable about curriculum issues. The formation of committees as indicated in the findings is also another dimension illustrating the involvement of subordinates in decision making in the schools. The committees are run by well experienced teachers whose contributions in the various capacities would be very beneficial to the school. The model believes that the engagement of subordinates in decision making facilitates the smooth running of the
school and also creates a conducive atmosphere. The situation where HODs are entrusted with running school affairs in their respective departments as shown in the findings, is yet an interesting development confirming that schools distributed leadership to subordinates. HODs should also entrust teachers under them so that they also operate independently as teacher leaders.

Teacher leaders can play a very significant role in facilitating autonomy and decision making in schools as elaborated in Chapter 2. Teacher leadership is evident in schools where heads empower subordinates so that they independently manage school activities. Yunus, (2011) asserts that teachers can assume influential roles if they are actively involved in decision making. A situation where teachers are only involved in minor decisions as observed in the study would be contrary to the above view.

It is observed that teachers are capable of injecting tremendous impact on the achievement of students in class if actively involved in school affairs (Mcrel, 2006). Harrison and Killian’s (2007) acknowledge the roles (discussed in Chapter 2) which aim at empowering the teacher as a leader who facilitates the empowerment of other teachers. This is realised when teacher leaders provide resources among peers and make sure that they are equitably distributed. Teacher leaders also encourage demonstration of lessons among peers so that they exchange experiences amongst themselves (Mcrel, 2006). The need to involve teachers as leaders in the school setup is to make sure that there is teamwork, collaboration and autonomy in the school. Whilst the above encourages delegation and distribution of roles, they also reduce the amount of heads’ responsibilities. However, the findings of the study did not reflect situations where teachers were exposed as elaborated by Mcrel (2006). This was a clear testimony that most schools under study were not empowering ordinary teachers and hence portrayed dictatorial tendencies which are counter-productive.

Teacher participants from other schools registered displeasure on the failure to be consulted on curriculum and routine administrative duties in the schools, but only on minor issues. Observations made during meetings held in one of the schools reflected a tense atmosphere at least in the two meetings observed. The head was dominant in the meeting and this resulted in teachers not contributing freely in the meeting.
The majority of heads under study did not rotate chairing the main staff meetings held in the schools, revealing dominance by heads. This further displayed failure by some heads to engage teachers in leading discussions on issues that were of substance in the schools. It was interesting to note that teachers participated more in staff meetings where the head allowed ordinary teachers to rotate as chairperson of the meeting than where the head was the sole chairperson. These observations have serious implications in terms of teacher participation. For example, meetings and school activities where teachers are given a chance to air their views freely, a conducive teaching and learning environment is most likely to prevail.

5.8.1 Staff development

Research acknowledges the need for heads to systematically carry out staff development programmes since they enhances the performance of teachers and also benefit students (Bolam, 2000 cited in Fraser et al., 2007). In the same vein, Lindberg (2011) is of the view that professional development is necessary in schools since there are constant changes in the working conditions of teachers with the impact of global information and technological advancements. The above mentioned observations reinforce the need for heads to make sure that staff development programmes are consistently implemented in schools so that the staff is conscientised on latest developments in the teaching and learning field.

5.8.2 On-site/in-school staff development programmes

On-site or in-school staff development programmes are programmes which are initiated within the school. The programmes are carried out mainly after inadequacies have been identified in the school and facilitations are normally implemented by the teachers within the school. The findings from the study indicated that heads under study carried out various on-site staff development activities in schools as supported by Cobbord and Dare (2011).

This was conducted in order to carry out professional development activities in schools and also to fulfill Ministerial policy on implementation of staff development activities. The on-site staff development activities according to the findings were targeted to benefit both experienced and inexperienced staff particularly newly
qualified teachers. These findings are consistent with Levine (1989) in Gamage et al. (2009), who discovered that people generally operate at different stages hence they recommended that different staff development programmes should be held for those coming straight from college, as well as for the more experienced.

It is during meetings and workshops that heads and teachers share valuable information on various educational aspects. The participants network as well after the workshops so that they share ideas among themselves. The professional development programmes carried out enriches for example, the recently qualified teachers from colleges who need to be inducted into the ministry’s regulations and school policy, among other issues relating to the execution of duty. Those experienced also need to attend staff development sessions on recent changes in teaching methodologies and how such changes affect the school curriculum.

In support of on-site staff development programmes carried out in schools, Coolan (2002) acknowledges that staff development programmes conducted within the school environment are the best since they capture the actual requirements of the teachers within the school environment that they operate in. According to the findings, the roles of the head include facilitating the staff development activities, and coordinating and evaluating the programmes. Similar findings were confirmed by Blasé and Blasé (2002) when they identified five talking strategies that engaged heads of schools in a reflection dialogue with teachers, which emphasise staff development. MoESC (1993) also states that staff development activities are facilitated by heads of schools through various meetings and other programmes held in the school.

The fact that heads of schools facilitated staff development programmes calls for them to be knowledgeable in most professional aspects of the school and this is confirmed by Ovando and Ramirez (2007) and Glickman (2002). Heads of schools who are knowledgeable about educational issues would be generally capable of effectively facilitating staff development programmes, for improving performance of teachers. Therefore, heads can be kept abreast with up to date knowledge on educational developments through engaging themselves in research and attending refresher courses.
While the findings revealed that heads of schools attended monthly meetings at district level where a number of professional issues were discussed, there was no evidence of any research activity having been carried out in the District. This is in contrast with Caldwell quoted by Greenfield and Ribbins (1993) in Botha (2004) who emphasises that there is need for heads to be acquainted with classroom and school effectiveness so that they are connected to the outside world.

Nevertheless, there was inconsistency in the way on-site staff development programmes were carried out in schools under study. It also emerged that documents analysed did not contain details of staff development sessions conducted save for one school which had one set of minutes. Schools are instructed to at least hold one staff development sessions per term (Zimbabwe MoESC, 1993). It would be difficult to establish the number of staff development programmes carried out in schools if such programmes are not recorded. In the same vein it is difficult to render feedback where there are no records of previous activities carried out on staff development.

5.8.3 Off-site staff development programmes

Information collected revealed that heads had mixed views on the number of times off-site staff development programmes were carried out in their schools. Half of the participants indicated that off-site staff development programmes were carried out at least once per term. The programmes included training of teachers as external examination markers, coaching clinics for referees and training athletics trainers. Generally heads acknowledged that off-site staff development programmes held in the schools were successful to some extent. Quinn (2006) acknowledged that most organisations benefit from investing in off-site staff development activities. Literature confirms that the benefits of off-site staff development included performance improvement where the quality of teaching improves in addition to improvement in solving problems in the school (Quinn 2006). The findings are consistent with the above statement since HODs improved report writing skills after staff development workshop on report writing. The other benefit identified was behavioural improvements Quinn (2006)’s findings revealed that in some cases, teachers’ attitudes towards their work improved, for example, in the way teachers conducted
assembly. Also, the educator’s towards work improved a lot after a staff development on discipline was carried out.

The findings further indicated that heads of schools played the role of identifying participants and ensured that those who attended off-site staff development programmes gave feedback to the rest of the school community upon their return. The implications of the above positive developments are pointers to the importance of carrying out staff development in schools.

The study found that the setbacks or challenges experienced by schools in off-site staff development programmes were similar to those discussed above. An additional set back to off-site staff development programmes was the failure by organisers to circulate invitations on time so that participants could reach venues on time. It also emerged that teacher participants concurred with heads when they indicated that there was no consistency in the manner in which off-site staff development programmes were held.

However, teachers’ added to the above challenges that heads often lacked skills to diagnose appropriate staff development activities for schools. This was viewed as a serious impediment since the identification of an inappropriate off-site staff development programme could demotivate participants, in addition to wastage of resources and students’ valuable learning time.

The findings revealed that despite the challenges faced in off-site staff development activities carried out in the schools under study, there were also positive developments when they were held. It emerged that examination results improved as a result of teachers who had been trained as examiners in one of the schools under investigation. Other successes were also reported on HIV and AIDS programmes where more activities were also carried out. Teachers in some schools were also involved in coaching clinics, training workshops and workshops for the formation of subject panels. However, the findings further established that workshops on teaching and learning were not frequently held in the schools under study. If the performance of heads as instructional leaders and their subordinates is to be enhanced, then it is necessary to conduct more off-site staff development programmes that focus mainly on the improvement of the teaching and learning of pupils.
However, it was interesting to note that teacher participants' comments on the challenges faced when carrying out off-site staff development programmes were similar to those given by the heads. Some of the challenges identified by teachers included lack of resources and lack of consistency when they held off-site staff development programmes. It emerged that some heads under study were not capable of carrying out need analysis surveys in order to identify appropriate staff development areas.

5.8.4 Financing of on-site and off-site staff development programmes by the district and provincial offices

The study revealed that participants had different views on how the district and provincial offices assisted the implementation of both off-site and on-site staff development programmes, with some identifying areas where assistance was rendered. However, it emerged that the district and provincial offices did not assist schools financially but offered services such as provision of circulars, appointment of facilitators and selection of topics to be presented. Nonetheless, some participants felt that the district and provincial offices did not do enough to assist schools in implementing staff development programmes. This may be attributed to inadequate provision of resources. In an effort to oppose the idea of partially supporting staff development programmes as observed in the findings, Guskey (2002) reminded school heads that high professional development is ideal in all institutions. As a result, heads of schools and the Ministries of Education, globally, should fund such activities if positive outcomes are to be realised.

A situation where financial support on staff development is not availed as observed in the current findings would be counter-productive. Carlos and Gadio (2011) in support of the need for heads to fund teacher professional development programmes observed that, it was a noble idea to avail advanced technology to schools. But if such resources are in schools without carrying out financing teacher professional development it would be wastage of resources since teachers need to be trained first Carlos and Gadio (2011). Findings alluded to the fact that at times teachers develop negative attitudes towards school activities or other decisions made in the school. The same authors above argue that teachers at times resist embarking or supporting an activity that might disadvantage them economically. As
a result it is necessary to motivate teachers by providing incentives so that they can embrace technology availed to them. Heads are therefore challenged to have resources or to lure non-governmental organisations to assist in funding such staff development activities. Findings noted the involvement of non-governmental organisations especially in AIDS related workshops in schools.

5.9 RECOGNITION OF TEACHERS AND PUPILS WHO EXCEL

It is generally believed that rewards are capable of enhancing intrinsic motivation on subordinates (Frey & Jeggen, 2002). Titmus in Frey and Jegen (2002:1) emphasises the need to reward people in an organisation. Titmus in Frey and Jegen (2002:1) argue that, “the economic approaches to human behaviour are as a result of the skilful application of the price.” The foregoing statement confirms that there is a possibility of enhancing the output of workers through rewarding them. In support of the need to reward subordinates in the school, Prendercast (1999) acknowledges that there is a multitude of mechanisms that could be used to induce workers to conform to the interests of employers. Whilst one way could be through heads of schools creating a conducive learning environment as advocated by one of Hallinger (2000)’s dimensions of instructional leadership approaches, awarding various incentives could be yet another possibility.

Findings in conformity with the above revealed that there were efforts in the schools under investigation to reward students, teachers and heads for having produced outstanding performance. It was also interesting to note that school authorities extended the rewards to the members of the community too.

The study revealed that schools, the District Office and the Ministry of Education, Sports Arts and Culture recognised the need to motivate the school community through awarding them with prizes. It emerged that schools held Speech and Prize Giving Days where teachers and students who excelled in various activities were given prizes for outstanding performance. In some cases, schools awarded prizes to the community for its involvement in school activities. This was viewed as a positive development which encouraged parents to keep on supporting schools in various ways. District Awards were also held throughout the Province as a way of complementing school efforts in motivating teachers. These activities were held
yearly where heads of schools, teachers and students were further awarded prizes for outstanding performance.

The findings also revealed that the MoESAC was involved in motivating schools through awarding the Secretary’ Bell, an award given by the Secretary to the most deserving school for overall good achievement. The areas assessed for the award included outstanding performance in academic and sporting disciplines. The involvement of the school, district and the Ministry of Education Secretary in recognising good performance of the school community motivates further the heads, teachers, students and the entire community to achieve better results. This is a positive way of enhancing students’ performance, which is the main goal of schools’ existence. The findings of the study are affirmed by Gamage et al. (2009) who acknowledge that effective leaders encourage situations that activate the culture of motivation which results in influencing high levels of student achievement. In support of the need to motivate subordinates, Hallinger and Murphy in Bush (2003) state that instructional leaders ought to promote a positive learning environment by providing incentives for teachers and students as elaborated in Chapter 2. Findings from H3 School which had best results in the six schools confirmed the benefits of motivation, since teachers were awarded incentives that motivated them, hence the good results.

5.10 MEASURES PUT IN PLACE TO ENSURE PERFORMANCE OF DUTIES BY HEADS OF SCHOOLS

From the discussions made in the study, it has been noted that the Ministry of Education Sport Arts and Culture devised several rules, regulations and policies that compel heads and teachers to carry out their duty as mandated. Such guidelines facilitate the smooth execution of duty by heads inclusive of the teachers. For example the Statutory Instrument No. 1 of 2000 regulates all activities in the public service as a way of monitoring how civil servants have to conduct themselves when carrying out official duties. Routine check-ups are randomly carried out by the District Office Education Officers and the Provincial Office on schools. However, due to shortage of transport and unfavourable economic situation prevailing in Zimbabwe, less visits are made by the above officers in schools (MoESAC 2009).
At school level heads make sure that all systems in the school function properly through supervision of activities in the school. Heads carry out lesson observations, book inspection and other routine checks in the school in order to make sure that the school meet its set goals. The monitoring of school activities is also evident when heads of schools delegate or distribute roles to other subordinates in the school. Such collaborative efforts are also indorsed by Lashway (2000), DuFour (2000). The fact that schools in Zimbabwe are under instruction to hold at least one staff development session per term, was meant to regulate schools so that they hold the activities in the school to benefit students.

5.11 CHALLENGES

Several limitations were raised by participants that militated against the efforts of heads to perform their duties. It is believed that if such limitations are eradicated or reduced, heads may perform school duties satisfactorily and this could improve students’ performance. The short comings are discussed below.

The findings revealed that heads found it difficult to teach over and above other duties they carried out in the school. However, teaching is one of the most important roles among others that ought to be performed by heads if meaningful learning is to be realised in schools. Heads complained of their failure to get adequate time to teach because of having to discharge many roles that they carried out in the school. Therefore, heads should conduct other roles in the school through distributing or delegating duties to other members of the school community as recommended by MacBeath (2005).

Another barrier which militated against the performance of heads as instructional leaders was the failure by heads to implement clinical supervision as a modern supervisory practice. Heads argued that clinical supervision was time consuming and; thus, it was difficult to carry out in the schools under study. Inadequate provision of teaching and learning resources, failure by some heads and teachers to understand what clinical supervision entails was sighted as some of the problems encountered by schools. It becomes difficult to follow clinical supervision where the head in particular is ignorant about clinical supervision as a modern supervisory practice. Emphasis therefore should be made on the need to carry out clinical
supervision where members of the school community are firstly taught about it as confirmed by Pajak (2003) and Cogan (1973). The above observation revealed that clinical supervision as a modern collaborative and collegial approach is not being practiced in total in some schools under study.

The study also found that heads encountered problems when carrying out book inspection on teachers. The major stumbling block stated by head participants was failure to have adequate time to carry out book inspection more often due to the many roles they carried out. However, it should be noted that the supervision of activities in the school cannot be performed by the head only but also with the assistance of other subordinates. The head should delegate some of the responsibilities to the deputy head or other senior teachers in the school. Ovando et al. (2007) maintains that teacher assessments should not be conducted by the head alone, but should also involve other members of the school community.

Heads should also encourage peer mentorship where teacher leaders conduct peer assessments on various school activities that include book inspection. In support of the need to include teachers as leaders in carrying out school activities, Harrison and Killian (2007) identified ten roles carried out by teacher leaders in schools. Some of the roles were discussed in Chapter 2. The involvement of teachers in school activities as illustrated above would be consistent with the participative decision making model. This model encourages teamwork and collaborative approaches in carrying out school activities as elaborated by Hoy and Miskel (2005).

The other barrier faced by heads was failure to carry out staff development programmes as planned, due to lack of time once more. Heads are expected to attend staff development activities carried out in the school, so that they encourage, motivate and inspire teachers to work hard.

Other setbacks included negative attitudes by teachers and lack of human and material resources such as facilitators and libraries to carry out research. The findings concur with Diaz-Maggioli (2004), and McRae, Ainsworth, Groves Rowland, and Zbar (2001) who confirmed that inadequate provision of resources and the teachers’ commitment to duties may affect the general performance of schools. As a result, heads need to create positive impacts by creating conducive learning environments through organizing more staff development sessions in the school.
Despite the challenges enumerated above, the findings further revealed that when on-site staff development programmes were carried out in the schools under study, there were notable improvements on teachers’ performance of duty in general. Of interest was the revelation from the study that HODs improved their report writing skills after a session on how to write supervisory reports. The fact that the findings also confirmed that teachers’ commitment to duty improved after staff development programmes were carried demonstrated the importance of such programmes and hence the need to carry them out more often. This is consistent with Samo (2008) who acknowledges that professional development on teachers plays a significant role in effecting change in schools. Such changes enable heads of schools to perform their roles effectively since they will be supervising well informed and motivated subordinates, and this would accelerate school improvement and student performance.

The findings also highlighted that heads also encountered setbacks when carrying out off-site staff development programmes in schools. The major challenge identified by head participants was funding. In some cases staff development programmes are held at zero budgets. Therefore, schools should participants attending off-site staff development workshops. Depending on the financial status of schools, some schools failed to send participants to such workshops. Given the prevailing economic situation in Zimbabwe, it is difficult to conceive how schools or an individual teacher could fund such activities.

Despite the above limitations, the findings showed that there were scores of notable successes. For example, the findings revealed that some head participants noted some achievements in the way they managed curriculum in the school whilst others did not notice any change. The findings from teacher participants also revealed mixed results on the successes/failures made by heads in managing curriculum in the schools under study.

5.12 SUMMARY

The major findings of the research revealed that heads of schools found it difficult to cope with the multiple roles they carried out in schools. The challenges cited included unavailability of time to balance performance on the various roles carried
The findings revealed that in some cases heads of schools carried out duties outside school confines such as military duties for the head at a military school or ended up counselling parents and students. Such deviations from the normal focus of duty adversely eroded the heads’ time to concentrate more on instructional leadership roles. Generally, the schools under investigation performed poorly in comparison with the national average pass rate and poor performance, according to the findings and this could be attributed to the divided attention by heads, among other reasons.

The findings also confirmed that heads consulted stake holders when reviewing school curriculum. However, there were no documents to substantiate such claims in all schools under investigation. Such records are required to be kept by the schools so that there is a record of proceedings for future reference. On lesson observations, it was confirmed that some heads still follow the traditional method while others use clinical supervision. Some head participants displayed ignorance of clinical supervision and therefore did not use it. The findings, however, confirmed that subordinates were benefiting from supervision carried out by heads of schools when they had time to do so.

It emerged that both on-site and off-site staff development programmes were carried in schools and members benefited from the programmes. However, the programmes were not consistently held in schools. A number of limitations were also highlighted which included inadequate provision of resources and failure by both the District Office and Ministry of Education to wholly finance the programmes so as to sustain them.

The next chapter concludes the study by profiling the summary, the conclusion and the recommendation of the study.
CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter of the study, a summary of the study is presented followed by a brief outline of the methodology used to carry out the study. This will be followed by recommendations drawn from the study.

6.1.1 Summary of key issues

The study mainly focused on the extent to which heads performed instructional leadership roles in selected secondary schools in Zimbabwe. The need to research on how heads carried out instructional leadership was prompted by complaints from stakeholders following the declination of ‘O’ level results in the district under study. The stakeholders felt that some heads of schools were not carrying out their supervisory functions well and this could be one of the contributing factors to the poor pass rate in schools. Since instructional leaders are in charge of directing and guiding the learning processes, it was viewed necessary to establish how they performed their roles. The performances of schools tended to depend on the type of leadership in place, hence the need to find out:

6.1.1.1 The time devoted to instructional leadership roles by heads of schools.

6.1.1.2 The instructional leadership roles that secondary school heads perform.

6.1.1.3 Measures that have been put in place by schools and MoESC to ensure that heads perform their leadership roles effectively.

6.1.1.4 The challenges that heads experience in performing instructional leadership roles.

6.1.1.5 lessons that we learn from the findings that can be followed to enhance the
In pursuit of the above objectives, the researcher adopted the qualitative research approach which enabled the researcher to access views and feelings directly from the participants (Cohen et al 2006). The study therefore adopted a case study design which involved six heads of schools that formed the case under investigation. The researcher was able to collect data using interviews, observations, and document analysis to obtain relevant information. Interviews allowed the researcher to probe participants further in order to get accurate responses on how heads performed instructional leadership roles in schools.

The three different methods of collecting data enabled triangulation of findings where, for example, results from interviews could be validated with document analysis. Creswell, (2007); Jonson & Onwuegbuzie (2004) acknowledges that triangulation is necessary especially where convergence and corroboration of results is necessary. Through triangulation it was possible to compare views of teachers, HODs, Heads and Education Officers in order to come up with balanced information. Observations gave the researcher insights on how teachers interacted and what takes place during deliberations in main staff meetings which could not be achieved through other research methods. The discussing commence by outlining the roles carried out by heads in general before discussing the findings under the three dimensions propounded by Hallinger (2008), namely the need to identify the vision, mission and goals of the school, making sure that there an instructional programme in the school and providing a conducive learning environment. Below are some of the findings of the study.

6.2 MAIN FINDINGS

6.2.1 Responsibilities of heads

The study found out that there was overwhelming evidence that confirmed the failure of heads to cope with complex and multifaceted roles that they perform as instructional leaders.

Whilst the majority of heads were able to furnish evidence of the most important roles they performed, they however did not mention teaching and researching.
Teaching is one of the aspects that heads are required to view as most important inclusive of research. When heads failed to acknowledge the above as important, it was deduced that the latter do not teach or carry out research as expected, or take these functions seriously. When heads teach and also carry out research, it would set an example to colleagues and learners which is most likely to enhance performance in the school.

It was established also that heads of schools spent more time on administrative duties than on instructional leadership. Findings further revealed that heads were overloaded with work and this made it difficult for them to operate effectively. Heads are at liberty to either distribute or delegate some of their duties to senior teachers and HODs.

6.2.2 Aspects of leadership roles performed by heads

6.2.2.1 Crafting the school vision and mission statement

The findings confirmed that instructional leaders involved stakeholders in designing the school vision, mission and goals. The findings confirmed that these were sometimes modified to suit current changes in the schools in order to accommodate policy and curriculum adjustments. For example, the Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe re-focused its education system following the introduction of vocational and technical subjects in schools. It was necessary for schools to re-align their vision, mission and goals in order to accommodate such changes.

It was also necessary for heads to make sure that records in schools were properly maintained. However, the study revealed that heads were poor in record keeping as there were no documents to account for their actions in the formulation and evaluation of the vision, mission and goals of their schools.

6.2.2.2 Managing the instructional programmes (Curriculum and lesson observations)

The findings from the study confirmed that consultations were made by heads on stakeholders on the choice of curriculum to be implemented in schools. It emerged that the heads contacted stakeholders who included teachers, HODs, SDCs/SDAs and the community at large. The involvement of stakeholders in the formulation of
the curriculum is viewed among some of the measures taken by heads to involve teachers in decision making.

One of the schools under study adopted a system whereby every term two members of staff reviewed progress and shortcomings by the management team against set targets and made recommendations to the head for implementation every term. This was yet another avenue of including teachers in decision making.

6.2.2.2.1 Lesson observations

The findings revealed that heads applied varied techniques in conducting class observations as part of measures to ensure that teachers taught students as stipulated on the time table. The findings confirmed that lesson observations were well planned, particularly at the beginning of term, due to meetings held that laid out the observation programme for the term.

However, the findings further established that some heads still used the traditional approach of inspection where teachers were ambushed without alerting them of the intended visit as advocated by Cogan 1973 and Goldhammer's clinical supervision model. However other heads contacted supervisees and advised them on their intention to observe them. Whilst the consultation was within the expectation of clinical supervision, the findings confirmed that clinical supervision was not wholly followed in the schools. It further emerged from the study that HODs as subject specialist in many of the cases were delegated the task of carrying out class visits. Nonetheless, there was no documentary evidence to indicate how these members of the management team conducted their activities.

On the frequency of observation carried out by heads of schools, it was confirmed that heads at least carried out one observation per teacher, per term. However, one of the schools under study managed to carry out two lesson observations per teacher, which turned out to be the best school in the district. This could be attributed to various factors, including teachers being interviewed before they are appointed. In other schools teachers are just deployed from the district office. The findings also revealed that teachers in the same school were also given monetary rewards every term inclusive of free accommodation and lunch. With a teacher pupil ratio of 1:15 other schools had an average of 1:45, that the teachers in the former
school had fewer students to monitor and hence gave closer individual assistance. The above factors put the school at an advantage in comparison with other schools.

The findings also revealed that the majority of heads did not constantly conduct exercise book inspections from which feedback would be given to teachers. However where inspections took place, there were no reports availed to confirm that such inspections were carried out and feedback given.

6.2.2.2 Teaching

On teaching, the findings revealed that most heads were not teaching although they were supposed to teach. Those who attempted to teach taught Guidance and Counseling which is a non-examinable subject. The District Education Office as immediate superiors to heads are supposed to observe heads teaching, however findings revealed that most heads had not been observed teaching since they were promoted. Lack of compelling policy was cited by education officers as possible reason for their failure to have sit-ins for heads.

6.2.2.3 Creating a conducive learning environment

6.2.2.3.1 Staff development

The study established that participants under investigation were positive about the outcomes of staff development programmes held in various schools. However they bemoaned the inconsistence in holding the staff development programmes due to lack of resources such as libraries and failure by heads of schools to implement the programmes due to their busy schedules. Libraries are very important facilities that enable students and teachers to develop a relationship between staff development regimes and staff performance, since most participants noted improvements in performance after continuous development programmes were held in some areas.

- On-site/in-school staff development programmes

The findings revealed that on-site activities were carried out after some impediments were observed in the school, whereby teachers fail to give students adequate work. It was also elaborated in the findings that several continuous staff development activities were held in schools and they were intended to benefit both newly appointed teachers and the most experienced. It was however discovered that
despite the benefits enjoyed by students and teachers as a result of carrying out staff development activities, these were inconsistently held in schools and not documented. This hampered the intended outcome of holding continuous teacher development programmes in schools.

- Off-site/ out of school staff development

The findings revealed that heads had little control over off-site teacher continuous development since at times some of the participants were invited by passing heads. Heads were also not in agreement on the number of times off-site staff development activities were carried out in schools. However it was confirmed that where off-site staff development activities were carried out, members benefitted a great deal, though they were also inconsistently held in schools under study.

In some cases heads were actively involved in off-site continuous staff development activities through identifying participants and making sure that those who attended organised workshops gave feedback to other members. This was done in order for all members of the school community to benefit from those who will have attended off-site workshops.

6.2.2.4 Protection of instructional time

Heads carried out formal and informal supervision in an effort to make sure that teachers carried out instructional roles properly. Lesson observation and book inspection were part of the formal supervision carried out in schools. Informal supervision included the unannounced routine visits in the classes which included the MBWA and TMW. The findings revealed that heads of schools spent less time carrying out instructional leadership roles and more time on administrative duties.

6.2.2.5 Recognition of teachers and students who excelled

It was encouraging to note that despite economic challenges faced currently in Zimbabwe, some schools, the District and the Ministry were supportive of the need for heads, teachers, and students and to some extend the community at large to be recognised for outstanding performance. This was done through rewarding deserving members with prizes at school, District and Ministerial level as a way of motivating them.
6.2.2.6 Measures to ensure that heads perform instructional leadership roles in schools

The MoESAC and heads ensure that instructional roles are properly carried out in schools by following set rules and regulations that guide heads in their performance of duty. Education Officers at District Officers monitor the performance of heads in schools. Whilst heads of schools take advantage of the structure in the school where duties could be delegated or distributed, findings revealed that heads at times ended up carrying out the same roles.

6.2.2.7 Challenges

Heads enumerated several limitations that militated against their efforts to perform their roles effectively. The barrier related to teaching was that heads failed to wholly implement clinical supervision in schools. Several reasons for their failure were also furnished, for example, they indicated that clinical supervision was time consuming hence they could not carry it out since they had many duties to carry out. The findings acknowledged that lack of well specialised facilitators and other teaching materials affects efforts to carry out clinical supervision in schools. Lack of knowledge about clinical supervision was also viewed as a major stumbling block in the implementation of clinical supervision in schools.

Another major challenge encountered in schools was on staff development activities held in the school. As already indicated, it was found that most staff development programmes could not be held because of failure to fulfill the programmes due to shortage of time. The other set back was teachers’ attitudes, whereby teachers did not value staff development activities carried out in schools.

However despite the above shortcomings, heads of schools continued to monitor activities in schools for the benefit of students. As means of combating some of the shortcomings, heads had for example to carry out teacher continuous development programmes at zero budgets especially on the on-site staff development. Since the major limitation was identified as lack of time for heads to carry out their duties, heads could take advantage of the facilitative instructional leadership approach. The approach, according to Lashway (2000) puts emphasis on the heads to shun the old instructional leadership which followed the top-down approach. The facilitative approach emphasises distributed leadership and it would be most ideal in schools
(Lashway 2000). In this case, heads would be able to shed off most roles so that they appoint competent members from the school to take over some of the roles from the head. A situation whereby heads involve the school community in running school activities, tallies with Hoy and Miskel’s (2005) participative decision making model which encourages collaboration. The model advocates for a scenario whereby there is need to identify or establish the acceptance zone from teachers. For example, schools without school bursars may appoint competent teachers from the school to assist in running financial matters.

6.3 THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings are consistent with the theoretical framework that informed the study as elaborated below. When trying to gain meaning from the study on the performance of heads as instructional leaders, it is important to realise that instructional leadership dimension guided the performance of heads as they carried out instructional leadership roles. The instructional leadership model according to (Hallinger 2008), put emphasis on the need for heads to initially select the most appropriate vision, mission and goals of the school. It also emphasises the need to ensure that the vision, mission and goals of the school are well communicated to the whole school community.

Findings from the study confirmed that heads selected clear and relevant vision, mission and goals of the school and communicated them to other members of the school community. Gamage et al. (2009) concur with the above statement when they agree with Hallinger (2008) who believes in shared vision, mission and goals of the school. The other dimension is the instructional leadership dimension which enables heads to make sure that there is an instructional programme that guide heads on supervisory roles. Heads under study were engaged in the planning of supervisory activities which were done at the beginning of term. This planning facilitated a programme of action on the supervisory programme initiated in the school. In other words, this revealed that this dimension of the model guided heads in carrying out instructional programmes in schools under study.

Findings also revealed that heads followed the last dimension of instructional leadership roles which placed emphasis on maintaining a favourable learning
environment in the school. This is when staff development activities and rewarding those who excelled in various activities in the school would be utilised as a means of motivating subordinates to work towards achievement of school goals. The maintenance of a good learning environment creates harmony and loyalty among members of staff especially when members of the school community interact through continuous teacher professional development. However it should be noted that the instructional leadership model is also supported by other models so that it has impact on its effect on guiding heads as they perform supervisory roles. The models include the participative decision making model by Hoy & Miskel (2005), which put emphasis on the need to involve the entire school community in school activities. The focus of heads as learning leaders as put across by DuFour (2002) also aims at drawing the attention of heads on the performance of students as opposed to mainly concentrating on how teachers teach. DuFour (2002) puts focus on heads identifying students who fail to understand concepts taught and create interventions for them to improve. Teachers as leaders collaborate and re-teach such students so that they improve. The new dimension by Lashway (2002) could be taken into consideration so that it is supportive of the instructional leadership model’s effort to guide heads in performing their duties.

However a number of observations are drawn from the instructional leadership model in view of how heads carry out instructional leadership roles. It would seem as a guide on how heads ought to perform their duties. Its emphasis on the three dimensions but only ignores the need to address the social aspects of students in their learning.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS

It emerged from this study that instructional leadership was inundated with a number of challenges from overload of work by school heads to lattice of proper supervision of heads as class teachers and lack of resources. Nonetheless, heads as instructional leaders managed to conduct the majority of their duties except that of teaching and researching which most of them were not aware of as one of their core roles.
The findings however revealed that the six heads under study spent little time carrying out instructional leadership roles more time was spent on administrative duties. Heads were also not teaching citing that they had too many roles which they carried out hence could not get adequate time to carry out other duties. It could therefore be inferred that heads have high demand of their roles resulting in their failure to budget their time accordingly.

Heads however carried out the multifaceted roles under the three main dimensions identified by Hallinger (2008), as elaborated in chapters 1 and 2. Whilst most schools attempted to carry out the satisfactorily, some aspects of the roles were not properly executed by heads. The major setback according to the findings being the fact that heads could not find adequate time to fulfill some of their roles.

Heads under study generally followed the top down approach when executing their duties as a result they underplayed the need to follow modern supervisory approaches such as clinical supervision. Students’ voices were also missing in the study especially in the selection of curriculum to be followed in the school. Students, teachers and the entire school community should collectively contribute in most activities in the school that include curriculum selection.

The findings portrayed a scenario whereby there was role complexity regarding the various aspects of instructional leadership discussed. The findings outlined various support systems that could be followed in the school in order to enhance the smooth operations thereof. In addition to the formal lesson observations and book inspection carried out as a way of monitoring performance in schools, it was learnt that heads delegated and distributed duties to the deputy head and senior teachers. HODs as subject specialists were mainly depended upon for professional guidance and curriculum review.

The MoESAC was also involved in monitoring school performance through visits by the District Office officials, though the visits were not systematically carried out due to inadequate resources.

Findings also outlined various challenges encountered by heads as they carry out instructional leadership roles in schools. One of the major challenges compliments what has been already discussed on the failure by heads to execute duty due to many roles they carry out. Though heads could easily distribute some of the roles, it
would seem that some heads are not free to do so since heads were reported to be carrying out most of the duties on their own inclusive of delegated duties. The second major challenges faced by some heads include inadequate provision of teaching and learning materials and also inability for schools to fund continuous professional development for both teachers and heads. Findings confirmed that where on-site and off-site staff development programmes were carried out there was marked improvement in the execution of duty.

6.4.1 Contributions to new knowledge

Given the combination of models that included the instructional leadership, distributed and shared decision models that were used in the study of six Hurungwe education schools, enabled the production of new insights on how heads perform their duties as instructional leaders.

This has revealed weaknesses and shortcomings on how heads operate without following instructional, distributed and shared decision making approaches which are very fundamental in carrying out proper leadership approaches in schools. Such approaches enhance the effectiveness of both teachers and heads; therefore they are capable of influencing improved student performance in schools. The fact that heads at time use unsupportive, bureaucratic models which defeat their efforts also reveals the need for in-service training for heads and the need for more staff development programmes to be held in schools. This has policy significance and implications for the study.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

From the findings this study has made several recommendations. Among the many, the study recommends that:

(i) More time should be allocated to instructional leadership roles so that more attention is focused on the teaching and learning of students. Findings showed that heads took more time performing administrative duties than professional or instructional duties.

(ii) Heads should follow modern supervisory approaches such clinical supervision when carrying out lesson observations and there is need to include the voices of
students especially in the selection of the school curriculum and in other school activities too.

(iii) Heads need to be conscientised on the most important roles they are supposed to focus on so that they also include teaching and researching as some of the most important roles they carry out in schools. The findings revealed that heads did not identify teaching and researching as most important roles that they ought to carry out in schools.

(iv) Heads should seriously consider shedding off some of their roles to the deputy head, senior teachers or HODs so that they concentrated on other duties such as instructional leadership roles that include teaching.

(v) Heads ought to document most important activities that include lesson observations, book inspection, staff development activities and curriculum review processes. The findings reflected that heads of schools were not maintaining records on the above activities.

(vi) All heads should be teaching as recommended by the Ministry and the District Education Office should monitor or observe heads teaching. Information from the study findings confirmed that most heads were not teaching at all.

(vii) Ministry of Education should reinforce circular no. 15 of 2006 which directed all heads to teach in addition to other roles they carried out in the school and the District Education Office to make up follow ups more often to make sure that heads were teaching as time-tabled.

(viii) The Ministry should make it compulsory that heads teach examinable subjects instead of them teaching Guidance and Counseling which is non-examinable.

(ix) CPD programmes that included on-site and off-site development activities need to consistently held in schools. The District Education Office should therefore monitor the implementation of such programmes.

(x) The Ministry should empower heads to delegate duties to subordinates who should be held accountable for all omissions made in the execution of duty. Such individual should be paid an extra salary for the job. The findings revealed that
heads ended up carrying out delegated duties since they were held accountable if the delegated individual does not carry out the assigned.

(xi) The department of education should appoint two deputies to relieve the head of some of the management duties, while the other assists in the academic matters. Such a move will remove pressure on the head, overload of responsibilities and make the head more effective in the teaching and class management roles.

(xii) The study was confined to six secondary schools in the same District and Province, future research is recommended on a larger scale to include other districts and Provinces.

(xiv) Future research may also embark on comparative views within Africa or even abroad.
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APPENDIX A : INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

SECTION A: GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Date of Interview __________________________

2. Type of school: Church [ ] Government [ ] Private [ ] Rural district council [ ] Urban council school [ ].
Location of school: urban [ ] peri-urban [ ] rural [ ].
Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

3. Marital status ____________________________

4. Age range: Below 20 years [ ] 20-29 years [ ] 30-39 years [ ] 40-49 years [ ] 50-59 years [ ] 60-69 years [ ] 70+ [ ]

5. Experience as a classroom teacher ___________ years.

6. Experience as a head of school ______________ years.

7. Please state whether you are a substantive or an acting school head ________________________________

8.1. If acting head how long have you been in that capacity? ______________ years.

9. What is your academic qualification? _________________________________________________________

10. What is your highest professional qualification?
Certificate in education [ ] Diploma in education [ ]
Bachelor of education [ ] Honours degree [ ]
Masters in Education [ ]
Any other specify_____________________________________________________________________________
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS

SECTION B

Responsibilities

1. What comes to mind when someone refers to you as the instructional leader or curriculum leader of the school?

2. What would you say are the most important instructional leadership roles that you carry out in the school as the head of school?

3.(i) Please explain when your school crafted the vision and mission statements of the school.

(ii) What role did you play as a head in the crafting of the vision and mission statement?

(iii) If you did not play any role in the crafting of the vision and mission statement, who did?

(iv) Was there any review carried out on the vision and mission statements of the school?

(v) If yes, who initiated the review?

4. (i) Does the school set its own goals?
(ii) If yes, who are involved in the setting of the goals?

5. How are the individuals who set the goals chosen?

6. How do you make sure that the school lives up to the vision, mission and goals of the school?

Curriculum issues

7.(i) Please tell me how you select subjects for your school curriculum.

(ii) Do you involve teachers in the selection of the school subjects for the school curriculum?

(iii) If you do, how do you select the teachers bearing in mind various subjects offered at secondary school level?

(iv) How often do you review the school curriculum?

(v) If there are any reviews carried out, who were responsible for recommending the reviews of the school curriculum?

(vi). What role do you play as the head of school in the review of the school curriculum?
Classroom observations and feedback

8. (i) Please describe how you carry out classroom observations in your school as head of school.

((Initial planning with supervisees, Involvement of other senior members, discussions with supervisees, how often is supervision carried out, application of clinical supervision).

(ii) How often do you carry out classroom observations on your teachers?

(iii) Does the supervision you carry out enhance improved instructional skills on teachers?

(iv) How do you give feedback to the teachers so that they reflect on recommendations you make?

(v) In what way do you think the supervision you carry out enhances instructional performance among teachers?

(vi) What challenges do you encounter as you carry out lesson observations on your teachers?

Using student data for programme improvement/ Inspecting students’ exercise books.

9. (i) How often do you inspect pupils’ exercise books for all your teachers in the school?
(ii) How do you carry out book inspection per teacher to ensure that all teachers’ work is up to the required standard?

(iii) Please explain how you render feedback to the teachers on the inspections you make?

(iv) What are the challenges you face when carrying out book inspection on students’ exercise books?

(v) What successes do you observe on students’ performance as a result of the book inspection you carry out?

**Protection of instructional time**

10.(i) How does the head ensure that teachers stick to teaching 35 minutes per period stipulated by the ministry of education?

(ii) How often does the head remind teachers on the need to adhere to the 35 minutes teaching period per lesson?

(iii) What measures does the head employ to ascertain that teachers follow the 35 minutes teaching period?

**Teaching**

11.(i) What criteria do you use to allocate teachers to teach each subject in your school?

(ii) How many lessons or periods as head do you teach?

(iii) Which subject do you teach?
(iv) Is the subject examinable or not?

(v) If examinable, what is your pass rate on average for the previous three years?

12. Who observes you as head of school to ensure adherence to departmental standards of the subject you teach?

13. How then do you balance your teaching responsibility with:

(i) instructional/ curriculum management duties

(ii) routine administrative duties?

Professional/Staff Development activities

14.(i) Please explain how you carry out on-site development programmes in the school.

(ii) Who are responsible for conducting on-site development programmes?

(iii) How do you carry out off-site development programmes in your school?

(iv) Please explain how you select those who conduct off-site and on-site programmes.

(v) What role do you play as head of school in conducting on-site and off-site development programmes?

(vi) In your own view are teachers benefiting from the on-site and off-site development programmes carried out in the school?

(vii) Please explain how the staff development activities are financed.

15.(i) Are there any indicators of your teachers in the school planning together school activities and working as a team?
(ii) Please elaborate how you encourage teachers to work independently in the school?

16. Which aspects in your school do you allow teachers to decide on their own without referring to you as head of school in order to recognize teacher autonomy.

**Recognition of student and staff achievements**

17. Please explain how you reward the students and teachers as a way of motivating them and maintaining conducive school climate.

**Successes and Challenges**

18. Please give the successes in the following areas you carry out as head of school:

(i) instructional leadership/ curriculum management

(ii) teaching responsibilities

(iii) routine administrative duties.

19. Furnish me with challenges that you face as head in the following:

(i) Instructional leadership/ curriculum management

(ii) teaching responsibilities

(iii) routine administrative duties.

20. May you suggest possible ways of combating the identified short comings?

*End. Thank you! Tinotenda!*
APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

SECTION A

1. Date of Interview______________________
2. Gender Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Marital status _________________________
4. Age range:    Below   20 years [ ]
               20-29 years [ ]
               30-39 years [ ]
               40-49 years [ ]
               50-59 years [ ]
               60-69 years [ ]
               70+ [ ]
4. Experience as a classroom teacher __________ years
5. Post of responsibility in the school if any________________________________
6. Number of years in post above________________________________________
7. What is your academic qualification?______________________________________
8. What is your highest professional qualification?
   Certificate in education   [ ]
   Diploma in education      [ ]
   Grad. C.E.                 [ ]
   Bachelor of education     [ ]
   Honours degree            [ ]
   Masters in Education      [ ]
   Any other specify________________________________________________________
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

SECTION B:
Responsibilities

1. What would you say are the most important instructional leadership roles that are carried out by heads of schools?

2. What role did you play as a teacher in the crafting of the vision and mission statement?

3. (i) According to your observations does the school set its own goals?

(ii) Are you consulted as a teacher when goals are being set in the school?

4. How does the head make sure that teachers in the school live up to the vision and mission statements set?

Curriculum issues

5.(i) Who is responsible for the selection of subjects for your school curriculum?

(ii) Are you involved in the selection of the school subjects for the school curriculum?
(iv). According to your observations how often is the school curriculum reviewed?

(v) If there were any reviews carried out, who were responsible for recommending the reviews of the school curriculum?

Classroom observations and feedback

6. (i) Does the head of school observe you teaching?

(ii) If he observes you, how often does he/she carry out the visits?

(iii) Please explain how you are made aware of the head’s intention to observe you teaching.

(iv) How are you given feedback by the head on the observed lessons?

(v) Please elaborate on the benefits you gain from the head’s feedback on the lesson observations carried out.

Using student data for programme improvement/ Inspecting students’ exercise books.

7. (i) How often does the head inspect students’ exercise books?

(ii) Does the head write any reports on the observations made?

(iii) If reports are made are they beneficial to you in terms of improving your instructional skills?
Protection of instructional time

8.(i) How does the head ensure that as a teacher you are always present in the class teaching for 35 minutes as per requirement?

.(iii) What measures does the head employ to ascertain that teachers follow the 35 minutes teaching period?

Professional/Staff Development activities

9.(i) Please explain how on-site development programmes are carried out in the school.

(ii) Who are responsible for conducting on-site development programmes?

(iii) Please elaborate how out off-site development programmes are carried out?

(iv) How are those people who conduct off-site and on-site programmes selected?

(vi) In your own view are you benefiting from the on-site and off-site development programmes carried out in the school?

10.(i) Are teachers at times planning school activities together and working as a team?

(ii) Does your head encourage teachers to work independently in the school?

11. Please explain circumstances where as teachers make decisions on your own without referring to the head of school.

Recognition of student and staff achievements
12. Please explain how the head of school rewards the following as a way of motivating them and creating a conducive school climate:

(i) students

(iii) teachers.
APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EDUCATION OFFICERS

SECTION A

1. Date of interview______________________________

2. Gender: Female [ ] Male [ ]

3. Marital Status________________________

4. Age range: Below 20 years [ ] 20-29 years [ ] 30-39 years [ ]
   40-49 years [ ] 50-59 years [ ] 60-69 years [ ]
   70+ [ ]

5. Experience as a head of school ____________ years.

6. Experience as an Education officer ____________years

7. State whether your appointment is substantive or acting______________________________

8. State whether you are substantive or not ________________________________________

9. What is your academic qualification?____________________________________________

10. What is your highest professional qualification?
    Certificate in education [ ] Diploma in education [ ]
    Grad. C.E. [ ] Bachelor of education [ ]
    Honours degree [ ] Masters in Education [ ]
    Any other specify________________________

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EDUCATION OFFICERS
SECTION B

Responsibilities

1. In your view what are the most important duties that are carried out by heads of schools as instructional leaders?

2. Please comment on how heads of schools monitor adherence to their school vision and mission statements.

3.(i) Please explain according to your observations in schools if heads of schools involve teachers in the crafting of the school vision and mission statements.

(ii) Are heads of schools following their visions and mission statements in their daily operations?

4.(i) According to your observations in schools, do heads of schools review their school curriculum?

(ii) If they do, are the reviews in conformity with the ministry’s expectations on subject allocation?

Classroom observations and feedback

5.(i) Please comment on the effectiveness of lesson observations carried out by heads of schools on the teachers.

(ii) What inadequacies are observed among heads of schools in their effort to carry out classroom observations?

Using student data for programme improvement/ Inspecting students’ exercise books.

6.(i) Please explain how effective are book inspection reports made by heads on teachers in guiding the teachers on their instructional improvement.
**Protection of instructional time**

7. (i) What mechanisms do heads of schools follow to make sure that teachers are always present in class teaching?

(ii) How as the district do you make sure that heads are present at school to monitor the teachers’ adherence to the teaching times?

**Teaching**

8. Please explain how heads of schools balance their teaching with:

(i) Instructional/curriculum management duties and

(ii) routine administrative duties.

**Professional/Staff Development activities**

10. (i) According to your observations in schools how effective are on-site staff development programmes in improving the knowledge base and instructional skills of teachers and heads?

(ii) How effective are the off-site staff development programmes?

(iii) What are the shortcomings of the above programmes in schools?

(iv) What are some of the positive developments noticed in schools?

**Recognition of student and staff achievements**

11. Please discuss your observations on how schools *recognise* efforts made by both teachers and students as a means of encouraging them to remain focused on acceptable/good performance.
Successes and Challenges

12. Generally what are the noticeable successes by heads in the following areas in schools?

(i) instructional leadership/ curriculum management

(ii) teaching responsibilities

(iii) routine administrative duties.

13. What could be the observable challenges that heads of schools face in the following:

(i) Instructional leadership/ curriculum management

(ii) teaching responsibilities

(iii) routine administrative duties.

14. How as a district can you alleviate the identified short comings?

END. THANK YOU! TATENDA!
APPENDIX D: CONSENT LETTER FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS

I am a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Fort Hare, School for Post-Graduate Studies, as a part of my academic programme, I am conducting research on The Performance of Secondary School Heads as Instructional Leaders in Hurungwe Secondary Schools. I therefore need to collect information from you on the above research topic. I understand that you have a very busy schedule but I am kindly requesting you to participate in the interview to be conducted on the above subject.

Should you consent, be assured that the responses will be used for the purpose of this study only, so strict confidentiality will be observed, no names of individuals or schools will be disclosed.

Researcher’s signature

Date:____________

I __________________________ hereby give consent to participate in the study on The Performance of Secondary School Heads As Instructional Leaders in Hurungwe Secondary Schools. I understand that I am participating willingly without being coerced in any manner. I also understand that I have the right to withdraw from participating in this study if I wish so.

Participant ‘s signature

Date____________
### APPENDIX E: INSTRUCTIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES CHECKLISTS FOR HEADS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>TIME:</th>
<th>FROM</th>
<th>TO</th>
<th>TOTAL TIME SPENT</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Office work /Preparation</td>
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<td>2. Planning curriculum issues</td>
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<td>3. Teaching</td>
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<td>4. Teaching feedback</td>
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<td>6. Student supervision</td>
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<td>7. Attend to parents</td>
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<td>8. Committee meetings</td>
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<td>9. District/Provincial meetings</td>
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<td>10. Other meetings with external officials</td>
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<td>11. Professional Development</td>
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<td>13. Collection and disbursement of school funds.</td>
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<td>14. Monitoring enrolment in schools</td>
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<td>15. Elaboration on Public Service Regulations</td>
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<td>16. Walk through</td>
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# APPENDIX F: INSTRUCTIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE ACTIVITIES CHECKLISTS FOR HEADS AND SENIOR TEACHERS

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<th>ACTIVITY</th>
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286
31 May 2010

The Provincial Director
Mashonaland West Province
Box 328
Chinshozi

Dear Sir,

Re: Mr. Sevious Mutopa – PhD Candidate

This is to confirm that Sevious Mutopa is a PhD candidate at the University of Fort Hare. His student number is 200804152. His research title is An Investigation into the Performance of Secondary School Heads as Instructional Leaders in Hurungwe Educational District, Mashonaland West Province, Zimbabwe. He is due to collect data from schools through interviews and observations from the month of June 2010. Kindly grant him permission. I would also be grateful if you could kindly provide him with documents that may assist with information regarding the area of his study.

I would like to assure you that any information that will be collected will remain confidential and no name of Ministry, school or person will be disclosed. The student will ensure that he does not disrupt ongoing activities during the period he will be collecting data.

Sincerely

Prof. Symphorosa Rembe
Mr. Mutopa’s Supervisor
APPENDIX H: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH – FROM THE PROVINCIAL OFFICE

Dear Sir or Madam:

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN SOME SCHOOLS IN MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE

Your application letter dated 31 May 2010 for authority to carry out a research/survey in some schools in Mashonaland West refers.

Be pleased to know that the Provincial Education Director has granted you permission to carry out your research on these conditions:-

a) that the learning and teaching programmes will not be interrupted in any way.
b) that you avail the Provincial Education Director a copy of your research findings for the benefit of the Province.
c) that the permission or authority may be withdrawn at any time by this office or a higher office should need be.

We wish you success in your research and studies.

By this letter all Heads of schools you wish to visit are kindly requested to give you any assistance in your work.

EDUCATION OFFICER PROFESSIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND SERVICES
FOR PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE

Ministry of Education Sport and Culture
Mashonaland West Province
P.O Box 328
Chinhoyi

Ref:
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
Mashonaland West Region
P.O Box 328, CHINHOI

- 7 JUN 2010

Ministry of Education Sport and Culture
Mashonaland West Province
P.O Box 328
Chinhoyi

07/06/2010
APPENDIX I: AUTHORITY TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH – FROM THE DISTRICT OFFICE

All correspondence to be addressed to
"The District Education Officer"
Telephone: 064-6050.8730 Telecs.
Fax: 064-6730

ZIMBABWE

REF: P/Mutopa, S.
E.C. NO.
Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture
Hurungwe District Office
P.O. Box 150
MAGUNJE

8 June 2010

Dear Mr. S. Mutopa

RE: APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN SOME SCHOOLS IN HURUNGWE DISTRICT; MASHONALAND WEST PROVINCE.

With reference to the above subject and as a follow-up to the authority granted to you by The Provincial Education Director be advised that you have permission to visit schools in Hurungwe District to carry out an educational research.

Please ensure that the conditions stated by The Provincial Education Director are adhered to. These are as follows:

a) That the learning and teaching programmes will not be interrupted in any way.
b) That you avail The Provincial Education Director a copy of your research findings for the benefit of the Province.
c) That the permission or authority may be withdrawn at any time by this office or a higher office if need be.

I wish you all the success in your educational research. I have confidence in that our schools will cooperate with you as they have always done.

Yours sincerely

M.T. Ndevere
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER, HURUNGWE