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**A LOT OF MANAGING, A LITTLE LEADING: The
Work of Newly Appointed Secondary Deputy
Principals and Assistant Principals**

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the
degree of
Master of Educational Administration
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I certify that the thesis entitled **A LOT OF MANAGING, A LITTLE LEADING:
The work of Newly Appointed Secondary Deputy Principals and Assistant
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ABSTRACT

This study examines the perceptions of a group of newly appointed, New Zealand secondary deputy and assistant principals. The study is set against two dominant educational discourses of the last two decades: the reforming discourse of the 1990s, which positioned school principals as chief executive officers with business and management skills; and a leadership discourse which emphasises leadership over management and the role of the principal as the educational leader of the school. The focus of the latter is on improving student achievement and developing and maintaining an effective school. In both discourses the importance of the principal has been established and reinforced through legal and policy decisions and initiatives. The review of the literature shows, however, few studies about DPs/APs and their professional work in either discourse.

The purpose of the research is to undertake a qualitative case study of newly appointed secondary DPs/APs in 2006 and their perceptions of their work as leaders and managers as they began their new work and then six months later. The study used two questionnaires, and in-depth interviews with six DPs/APs. The first questionnaire collected demographic information about this group, as well as to their understandings of the work they would do as they took up their new positions. In-depth interviews of six DPs/APs were carried out to explore their leadership and management work six months into the job, which was supplemented with a follow-up questionnaire to the other participants. It is intended that the research will provide greater understandings of the work of a group of school leaders and managers about who little is known and whose voice is not heard in the educational leadership discourse.

Many findings in this study reinforced previous findings from a small number of other studies. In particular, the work of DPs/APs was heavy, reactive and largely managerial, although the extent of this was largely unanticipated. Many of these newly appointed DPs/APs wanted a greater balance between the leadership and management aspects of their work. The principal remained the most important influence on their professional work, which was largely learnt on the job without any formal professional development. The importance of previous experience acting in the role emerged as important in understanding and gaining confidence in the position. By far the greatest challenge facing these newly appointed DPs/APs was staff relationships, which highlighted issues of power and authority that arose moving from a predominantly teaching role to that of a senior manager.

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INTRODUCTION

No one grows up hoping to become an assistant principal. One may hope to become a doctor, lawyer, accountant, principal, or teacher, but not an assistant principal. The assistant principalship, however, is an important school position; a rite of passage for aspiring principals or a career for unique individuals (Glanz, 2004, p. xv).

This thesis has its origins in the ten years I spent as a deputy principal in a co-educational secondary school. During my interview for the position in 1993 I indicated my intention at the time to become a principal. I was told during this interview that being a successful deputy principal was the right sort of training to become a principal. This would be a job that I passed through on my way to somewhere else, the rite of passage described by Glanz. It seemed to me that I left the world of teaching behind and I entered an exciting and challenging world where no day was the same.

It was trial and error to find my place and to learn about this job. There was no mention of DPs/APs in the literature that I read and little acknowledgement of the types of jobs/tasks in my job description that I ended up doing. There were no professional courses or professional reading that I could access that were specifically focused on my new role. The literature I read during this time was dominated by descriptions of leadership by the principal and his or her vision in creating an effective school. My own learning was done entirely on the job.

I was fortunate in three ways in my choice of school. Firstly, I was well supported and accepted by a collaborative senior management team and in particular the principal, who always had time to discuss issues, debate dilemmas, and was interested in seeing me succeed. His style was collaborative and inclusive and the interests of students and their learning, he believed, should lie at the heart of our every decision. Secondly, my job description was much wider than many of my colleagues. I had leadership of curriculum and professional development in which I had considerable decision-making authority. There were opportunities within the school structure undergoing considerable change under Tomorrow's schools, to set up curriculum teams and to share decision-making within the school. In a similar way professional development teams also were developed to plan whole school professional learning and the more effective use of time and money. The principal believed that he and the senior management team had a crucial role in mediating the huge number of changes that there were a constant given in our professional lives. Thirdly, there was an expectation that senior managers in the schools and heads of department if they wished should work closely with the board of trustees

reviewing school structures and systems, developing policies and contributing to the future direction of the school. Developing new relationships with the community was a key focus of both the board of trustees and the senior management.

The impact of the new educational reforms on the school and on workload of the principal and teachers was profound. As well as the introduction of business style strategic plans and mission statements there was also the development of performance management systems, information systems, financial accounting systems and the introduction of a new national curriculum and qualification system. It seemed to me that all this work was done after school hours when the real job of making sure that the school ran smoothly for teachers and students was complete. While there were great opportunities to develop leadership skills and abilities, there was also a huge range of management and administration activities that were on going and relentless.

Although the opportunities and experiences I had as a DP influence this thesis it is my experiences when I took up a contract in 2003 with a professional development provider that particularly shaped the research focus and purpose. Leadership and management advisers had not existed when I took up my position as a DP ten years before. Part of this new job was to support principals and other school leaders, including newly appointed deputy principals. Once again I found their absence in the leadership literature that was written during this time. Support and programmes I developed for DPs/APs were largely based on my own experiences, and by adapting material and ideas from my readings of the leadership literature and about specific topics such as performance management, change management and dealing with difficult people.

My appointment as a leadership and management adviser coincided with an increasing emphasis from 2001 onwards, by the Ministry of Education on developing leadership for twenty-first century schools, a strategy which was linked to school improvement and raising student achievement (Eddy & Bennison, 2004). In particular this initiative focused on the crucial importance of principals to improve student outcomes in schools. The development of a First-time Principals programme in 2002 highlighted this policy development, with subsequent initiatives such as a dedicated website for principals (Leadspace), residential programmes for experienced principals, the commission of leadership research that supported the professional development of all principals, and the release of the Kiwi Leadership for Principals in 2008, which is both a statement about principal leadership in New Zealand, as well as a development tool (MoE, 2007). Those studying leadership of schools, reading the plethora of literature that has been

written on the subject, and following the policy directions of the Ministry of Education could easily mistakenly think that leadership resided in the hands of one person in the school, the principal. While not denying the immense value and contribution that the leadership policy development of the MoE will make to the leadership of schools, it has reinforced my decision to understand more fully the leadership of other groups, and in particular the position of DP/AP that still has much of a “cinderella” status in New Zealand schools.

Thus my thesis began as a result of my experiences as a deputy principal and my belief that it was an important position in its own right; my concerns at the absence of specific leadership and management literature about the role of DP/AP; and the requirement to provide relevant professional support and professional development, through my roles as a leadership and management advisor, and committee member of the Auckland Secondary Deputy and Assistant Association. I had the opportunity to investigate the work of DPs/APs, with a view to better assisting the professional development of newly appointed DPs/APs, while I was undertaking studies for a Master of Educational Administration degree at Massey University.

The purpose of the research is to undertake a case study of newly appointed secondary DPs/APs in 2006 and their perceptions of their work as leaders and managers as they began their new work and also their experiences and perceptions six months later. It is intended that the research will provide greater understandings of the work of a group of school leaders and managers about whom little is known and whose voice is not heard in the educational leadership discourse. The case study is set against two dominant discourses of the last two decades. Firstly, in the 1990s this discourse focused on the reforms of the education systems with an emphasis on management skills of principals (Ball, 1994; Codd, 1993). Latterly it has focused on a predominant leadership discourse, which has emphasised the role of the principal as the educational leader ‘pivotal to improving learning outcomes for all students’ (MoE, 2007, p. 4) and to school improvement and effectiveness (Earley & Evans, 2004). In both discourses the importance of the principal has been established and is paramount. There have been few studies, however, about the leadership and management of DPs/APs in these last two decades (Cranston, 2007; Graham & Smith, 1999; Harris, Muijs & Crawford, 2003).

In Chapter One I review the small number of studies of secondary DPs/APs conducted both in New Zealand and internationally. I discuss the four themes that emerged from this review: the managerial nature of the roles and responsibilities of DPs/APs; the lack

of knowledge about the group in the literature, particularly from a gender and ethnic perspective; the influence of the principal in every aspect of their professional lives; and their professional learning, which has largely taken place on the job. Some of the ways in which writers and commentators have suggested that the position could be reconceptualized is discussed in the last section of the chapter.

In the second chapter I discuss two somewhat competing discourses that have dominated educational administration for the last few years and have highlighted the leadership and management of one person, the principal. Firstly, I examine how the educational reforms and the development of a managerial culture in the 1990s have changed the position of principal from instructional leaders to that of chief executive officer, with managerial responsibilities. I then discuss the preoccupation with leadership, which has dominated the leadership and management discourse in recent years, examining different definitions of leadership and management, and the influence of instructional, transformational, and more recently emergent forms of leadership such as the co-principalship and the notion of leadership of learning. Finally, I consider the reconceptualisation of the work of DPs/APs, within this self-managing environment and leadership discourse.

The review of the literature and the contextual and conceptual literature has led to the research methodology and design, which I describe in Chapter Three. A qualitative case study, using questionnaires and interviews was chosen as the most appropriate approach to conducting the research. In Chapter Four I present the findings of the questionnaire. I describe the background of the 40 participants and their schools, and present the analysis of the perceptions of these DPs/APs about their work as leaders and managers, as they began their new and important roles. The detailed perceptions and experiences of six of individuals, collected through interviews is analysed in Chapter Five, along with a shorter follow-up questionnaire which was sent to the original participants. Both the interviews and the follow up questionnaires were conducted after several months into the job. Similarities and differences between the perceptions of DPs/APs at the beginning of their work and after several months as leaders and managers in their schools are highlighted in this chapter. The implications of the study and suggestions for future research as a result of this study have been included in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER ONE

UNDERSTANDING THE PROFESSIONAL LIVES OF DPS/APS: A REVIEW OF THE NEW ZEALAND AND INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I review the literature in New Zealand and internationally about the position of secondary Deputy Principals (DPs) and/or Assistant Principals (APs). The review provides an insight into the professional lives of DPs/APS with a particular focus on understanding how newly appointed DPs/APS perceive their work as leaders and managers. I will begin the review with a general overview of the position. The first section will identify four ways in which the position has been traditionally conceptualised. I will discuss these four conceptualisations in terms of what is known and understood about the position in New Zealand before examining each in light of international literature particularly from Great Britain, The United States and Australia. I will also highlight any specific findings that may have emerged about DPs/APS new to the position. The second section will focus on the how the position has changed in recent years and summarises the calls for the re-conceptualisation of the position both in New Zealand and internationally.

OVERVIEW

'Remarkably little is known or published' (Southworth, 1998, p. 24) about deputy principals and assistant principals; a theme echoed in New Zealand (Cranston, 2007; Graham & Smith, 1999), in Australia (Cranston, Tromans, & Reugebrink, 2004; Harvey, 1994), in the United States of America (USA) (Celitken, 2001; Glanz, 2004; Hartzell, Williams, & Nelson, 1995), and in Great Britain (Harris, Muijs, & Crawford, 2003; Ribbins, 1997). This limited empirical research base has increased the difficulty of developing 'a coherent conceptual framework' (Harris et al., 2003, p. 5) about this important leadership position. Heck and Hallinger (1999, p.141) identified the substantial and growing research base that examines the changing role of the principal in self-managing schools in both the New Zealand and international literature and lamented that:

The preoccupation with documenting *if principals make a difference* has subtly reinforced the assumption that school leadership is synonymous with the principal. Scholars have, therefore, largely ignored other sources of leadership within the school such as assistant principals and senior teachers.

The invisibility of the position is further compounded by the absence of statistical data. Graham and Smith noted in 1999 that the Ministry of Education in New Zealand has not collected data since 1996 on the status or even numbers of DPs/APs in secondary schools (PPTA, 1997). Before 1996 the positions of deputy principal and assistant principal were funded by the Ministry of Education and were a structural part of every state and integrated school. As part of the move towards self-managing schools and following changes to the collective employment contract (PPTA, 1996), schools can now use as many or as few management units as they wish to support DP or AP positions or can choose not to have them at all. The lack of national data is still a concern today as illustrated by the National Association of Secondary Deputy Principals (NASDAP), which collects data, although incomplete, through its own national surveys (NASDAP, 2003; 2006)

While there is considerably more data available from the USA about the professional lives of the assistant principal (as the position is known in the USA), even so Kaplan and Owings (1999) found only eight articles focusing specifically on the assistant principal's position out of 793 professional leadership articles published between 1993 and 1999 (p. 81). Harris, Muijs, and Crawford (2003) also commented on the small number of published articles in their review of the international literature for the National College of School Leadership in 2003. Hartzell, Williams, and Nelson (1995) further argued that the full extent of the position remains largely hidden even from those who work in the same schools, which further compounds among DPs/APs' the feeling of being undervalued, unacknowledged and invisible.

Despite the restructuring of education following the introduction of Tomorrow's Schools in 1989 and its subsequent devolution of school management and leadership to schools and their communities, during the following decade, little research was carried out in any quantity or depth about the position of deputy principal or assistant principal in New Zealand secondary schools (Cranston, 2007; Graham & Smith, 1999). While much has been written internationally on the reform of educational leadership to meet the challenges of continuous reform (Heck & Hallinger, 1999), Fitzgerald (2004) has suggested that in New Zealand 'the gaze has remained firmly fixed on leadership at the level of principal' (p. 46). This view has been supported by recent educational leadership initiatives, such as the First Time Principals Programme (Eddy & Bennison, 2004) and the draft Kiwi Leadership Framework (MoE, 2007), which focus on developing and supporting principal professional development. While many DPs/APs may take part in

the new Aspiring Principals programme in 2008 (MoE, 2007) the development of principalship is still the clear and focused goal.

In this study I take the position that the work of DPs/APs is worthy of study on its own merit and I want to explore further what a group of newly appointed DPs/APs thinks about their work as leaders and managers within their schools. I wish to build on the work of Graham and Smith in 1999, who concluded in their study that the position was essential and therefore should 'be nurtured and properly valued as we move into the next millennium' (p. 7.3), and more recently Cranston (2007), who concluded that DPs/APs were 'an under-utilised resource, particularly from a leadership perspective' (p.27).

SECTION ONE: TRADITIONAL CONCEPTUALISATIONS OF THE POSITION OF DP/AP

Four recurrent themes are discussed in section one: the nature of the roles and responsibilities of DPs/APs are mainly managerial in nature; little is known about who DPs/APs are, particularly from a gender and ethnic perspective; what is known about DPs/APs is usually described in relationship to principals; and mostly professional learning of DPs/APs is on the job. In each section the New Zealand literature is discussed first followed by a review of the literature from Great Britain, the USA and Australia. While there are some differences in the position particularly between the USA and New Zealand, Australia, Great Britain, a fundamental component in all countries is the notion of the DP or AP assisting or deputizing for the principal (Harris et al., 2003). Following these discussions, the last section of this chapter explores the recent New Zealand and international literature, which calls for a re-conceptualising of the position.

The nature of the roles and responsibilities of DPs/APs are mainly managerial in nature

As much of the available literature has focused on what DPs/APs do in their positions, which is described in 'terms of traditional and restricted sets of administrative, managerial and custodial responsibilities' (Cranston, Tromans & Reugebrink, 2002, p. 27) rather than who they are and what they think about their work as leaders and managers, I begin with an analysis of this literature. Four New Zealand studies have described the diverse, fragmented and managerial nature of the work of DPs/APs and concluded that their roles and responsibilities have been and are still largely managerial

in nature. An early study of the "Roles of Senior Mistress/Master and Deputy Principals in the Central Region" by Judith Manchester in 1983 (cited in Graham & Smith, 1999) highlighted the large array of management tasks carried out by this group of school leaders. Manchester also found significant differences between the tasks of males who carried out administration tasks and females who were involved with interpersonal matters.

A small study by Douglas (1998) supported the managerial focus identified by Manchester in 1993 (cited in Graham & Smith, 1999). He listed 18 main tasks that Otago DPs carried out in their work, with discipline being the single task that took most of their time. He reported that the majority of these DPs/APs had experienced an increased workload. In 1999, Graham and Smith duplicated Manchester's earlier study and they found there were some changes in how the role was conceptualised since 1983. One of the major changes identified was the way in which senior management teams (SMT) had been developed to meet a much greater workload since the advent of self-managing schools in the early 1990s. Graham and Smith also found in their survey of DPs/APs that job satisfaction had declined, when they compared their responses with those from Manchester's study; a trend they argued was linked to handling increasing discipline problems, the reactive demands of the job and the increasing hours spent working on administration. More importantly they found DPs/APs linked their decline in job satisfaction and increasing workloads to the move towards self-managing schools during the 1990s, which resulted in greater accountabilities and attention to administrative detail. They also noted that DPs/APs had more educational qualifications than in the 1983 study, with more appointments made to the position from applicants not currently in a teaching position. However, there was still a central focus by DPs/APs on discipline, pastoral care and other administrative tasks such as timetable, attendance and property use. Graham and Smith concluded that there was 'a huge degree of concurrence' (p. 12) between these roles and those identified by Manchester in 1983.

A fourth exploratory study of 77 Auckland DPs/APs was published recently by Cranston (2007). Like the previous three New Zealand studies, Cranston found that for DPs/APs, time was largely spent either in management and administration matters, or dealing with discipline. Over half of the individuals in his study reported 'increased workloads linked to school management, structural and curriculum change' (p. 25), which limited the ability of DPs/APs to take the leadership roles they indicated they would prefer. Leadership activities were described by DPs/APs in Cranston's study as those involved in the strategic leadership of the school, helping to lead the development of a school

vision, developing school culture and developing effective partnerships. As well many DPs/APs wanted to be involved with school wide curriculum change and to lead professional development. Unlike Graham and Smith's (1999) findings, the majority of DPs/APs reported that they were interested in promotion to principalship and were satisfied or very satisfied with their current roles.

Similar findings are reflected in the international literature. Ribbin's (1997) study of English DPs/APs noted that many who were interviewed said that they had more opportunity to lead when they were heads of department (HODs) than as deputy head teachers. Harris, Muijs, and Crawford (2003) in their literature review about the position for the National College of School Leadership, further noted that the concentration by DPs in Britain on discipline, attendance and other administrative tasks rather than on 'real leadership is a theme reiterated across many studies and countries' (p. 8). However, these researchers also more optimistically noted that despite the full leadership capacity of many deputies remaining unrealised, there was evidence that in some schools DPs were actively involved in 'leadership and leadership development' (p. 11) such as curriculum change and strategic leadership.

Similar themes are found in studies from the USA. Marshall's (1992) study of American assistant principals (APs) concluded that the 'work is primarily focused on organizational maintenance' (p. 38). Roberson described this managerial focus more fully in his 2003 study of Texas APs. These APs identified 67 actual duties and responsibilities, the most important of which were discipline, teacher appraisal, school safety, student attendance and school policies. The notion of the AP as a 'jack of all trades' with wide ranging responsibilities has been consistently reported in the American literature over the previous thirty years (Calabrese, 1991; Hartzell et al., 1995; Marshall, 1992; Marshall & Hooley, 2006; Weller & Weller, 2002). Furthermore, Hartzell, Williams and Nelson, (1995) speculated it was a lack of specificity and the disparate nature of the work that may have contributed to the absence of research into the position, largely because researchers have 'found its nature hard to grasp' (p. 22).

Australian research has also echoed the trends and findings in New Zealand, Britain and the USA. I could find only two large studies of Australian DPs. In the first, Harvey (1994) described the roles and responsibilities of Australian DPs/APs as a 'mosaic of administrative routines, which contribute to the maintenance of organizational stability in the school... a *role which...* is largely defined by the needs of other school participants' (p. 17). The focus on managerial and operational tasks rather than on leadership was

how DPs in a large Queensland study described the reality of their work (Cranston, Tromans & Reugebrink, 2002; 2004). The study examined the dissonance between what DPs really did; operational and managerial, and what they said was their preferred role of a school wide leadership of curriculum as well as strategic leadership in a range of issues in the school. These DPs wanted to do more of the type of leadership work carried out by the principal. This study suggested that job satisfaction was highest for DPs who had the greatest alignment between their real and ideal role.

Little is known about DPs/APs, particularly from a gender and ethnic perspective

Not only is there little research about the professional lives of DPs/APs, there is even less known about whom DPs/APs are, especially from a gender and ethnic perspective (Harris et al., 2003). Manchester's 1983 study (cited in Graham & Smith, 1999) investigated the professional life of DPs/APs from a gender perspective and concluded that these roles were divided by gender and that women were poorly represented in this group. While Manchester suggested that the pastoral care/discipline role was that of the female DP/AP, Graham and Smith (1999) argued over a decade later that although this particular role was still pivotal to the position, male and female DPs/APs both carried out this pastoral role.

Despite the movement to reduce the gender specific roles of female and male DPs/APs that was identified very strongly in Manchester's study, a central premise of Graham and Smith's (1999) work is that 'the voice of women DPs/APs in secondary schools is still very faint' (p. 1.6). Understanding this voice has been made even more difficult because of the lack of national data about DPs/APs following the structural changes to the position in 1996 (PPTA, 1996, 1997). The Ministry of Education no longer statistically records the number of DPs/APs in New Zealand schools let alone the proportion of women and men in the position. Interestingly enough, the 2003 survey of DPs/APs by the National Association of Secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals highlighted an increasing number of DPs/APs being appointed, particularly in larger schools. Statistics from the Ministry of Education (2004) illustrate the under-representation of women as principals and as management unit holders of four units and above (usually the role of DPs/APs). This fact supports the argument that 'teaching is a feminised profession and that educational administration is not, and that this dichotomy continues to be reproduced in this country' (Spence, 1995, p. 1).

A similar situation is evident in Great Britain. More comprehensive statistics are available and an analysis of leadership positions in English secondary schools in 1998 have shown that there were still more men who were DPs/APs and headteachers than women (Coleman, 2002). This under-representation of women in British educational leadership is also illustrated by other survey results, which identified only 17 per cent of women DPs compared to 38 per cent of men who either aspired or actively sought the headship (James & Whiting, 1998). A more recent study by Earley, Evans, Collabone, Gold and Halpin (2001), indicated however, that more women than men were enrolling for the new National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (NPQH). In the USA data about the number of women and ethnic minorities who are in Assistant Principals' positions has not been collected since the 1970s and no comprehensive studies of women and ethnic assistant principals, other than in individual states have been conducted (Marshall and Hooley, 2006).

A second theme has emerged from the British literature concerning the differentiation of roles along gender lines. Coleman's (2002) study showed that while both male and female deputy principals were more likely to have curriculum rather than pastoral responsibilities, it was more than 2.5 times more likely that women had pastoral responsibilities than men. Optimistically Coleman also noted that women were increasingly rejecting pastoral responsibilities for those of curriculum. This echoes Manchester's (cited in Graham & Smith, 1999) early study of the role of senior mistress/senior master and deputy principal in New Zealand secondary schools as well as Graham and Smith's (2003) study, fifteen years later. Another theme that emerged from the British literature review by Harris, Muijs, & Crawford, (2003) is that women deputy heads felt more pressure on them to 'perform' than men, which was also reiterated by women in Graham and Smith's (1999) and Coleman's (2002) studies.

The under representation of Maori and Pasifika in the position of DP/AP in New Zealand is difficult to measure for the same reasons as noted in regard to understanding the under-representation of women. Strachan, Couch, Ho, Ford and Pettigrew (2003), in their literature review, *Developing Aspiring and Potential Principals*, did identify, however, the main personal and professional challenges that explain the low retention of Maori teachers and subsequent shortage of senior leaders. Heavy workload leading to stress and/or burnout; the expectation that Maori teachers will work long hours on both cultural and teaching activities; the time taken to develop effective relations between home and school; and inappropriate resources and funding are seen as critical factors

explaining why there are problems with recruitment and retention of Maori teachers, resulting in a shortage of teachers seeking senior positions.

In the British literature Coleman (2002) suggested that there are greater pressures to perform felt by women principals and deputy principals from ethnic groups other than European. Harris, Muijs and Crawford, (2003) also highlighted the absence of any studies on ethnic minority DPs/APs. By looking more widely at educational research from ethnic minorities, however, they concluded that 'being a school leader from an ethnic minority group presents significant personal and professional challenges' (p. 13). These challenges included feelings by these teachers that they had to work harder than their white colleagues to prove themselves and were required to teach subjects for which they were not qualified. Consequently, more ethnic minorities left teaching in their first five years than their white colleagues. Harris, Muijs and Crawford (2003) reported that the appointments pool for promotion to school leadership positions was thus reduced, further exacerbated by being 'less likely to be encouraged to apply for promotion to senior roles than their white counterparts' (p. 13).

What is known about DPs/APs is usually described in relationship to principals

The importance of the principal in every aspect of the professional lives of his or her DP/AP is another important thread that is woven through the literature. Issues of power and hierarchy underlie common descriptions of the relationship between principals and their deputies although they are not always so explicitly described. Douglas (1998) in his study of Otago DPs/APs suggested that the partnership between the principal and deputy principal was particularly important because the way in which they interacted which each other reflected the organisational culture of the school. He identified this relationship unproblematically as a subordinate one, in which the DP has a supporting and complementing role to the principal. Graham and Smith (1999) also identified the principal as the key influence on DPs/APs in their schools, although they noted, however, that even if a collegial team approach was adopted, the relationship was operated 'according to the leadership style of the principal' (p. 4.24). Despite talk about flattened management structures, team work, collaboration and empowerment, 'the principal carries the ultimate responsibility' (p. 5.16) and still does the traditional jobs that principals have always done. Whether DPs/APs have the opportunity to develop their interests and make significant contributions to teaching and learning within their schools, they concluded, is largely at the discretion of their principals.

Another reason given by researchers for the importance of studying DPs/APs is that this is the position from which principals are most likely to be appointed. Ironically, despite concerns about the shortage of applications for principals, there are few in-depth New Zealand studies that explore the career aspirations of secondary DPs/APs and the factors that explain why they seek or do not seek the principalship. Graham and Smith's (1999) findings that only 37% of DPs and 35% of APs wanted promotion contrasted with Manchester's earlier survey, which found that 48% of DPs and 42% of APs aspired to promotion (p. 4.27), supporting the suggestion that becoming a principal was seen as less desirable. In both studies while promotion was defined as aspirations to principalship, it also included aspirations to DP/AP positions with more management units and/or in larger schools. Graham and Smith suggested that the reduction in career aspirations of DPs/APs between 1983 and 1999 was because they did not want the stress, workload and the increased responsibilities carried by principals since the advent of Tomorrow's Schools, a trend also identified by Wylie (1997).

Two studies in 2003 focused on the view of principals about principal succession rather than on the views of DPs/APs, but they have added indirectly to our understanding of the issue by commenting on the decreasing numbers of DPs/APs seeking promotion. Strachan, Couch, Ho, Ford and Pettigrew (2003) found that the highest vacancies and areas experiencing most difficulty in attracting principals were in rural, low decile, schools with high Maori and/or Pacific roll, and Maori medium schools. In the second study, Billot (2003) went further and argued that principal succession or 'finding people who are able and willing to replace principals when they retire' (p. 46) was the major issue affecting the profession. Interestingly, in both studies it is principals who have identified the reasons why there are problems with succession and the voice of their DPs/APs remain silent, reinforcing issues of power and hierarchy and the invisibility of the role.

The pre-eminence of the head teacher is a central theme of Ribbins's 1997 study of the role of the deputy in Britain. He described DPs as historically portrayed as an extension of the head teacher, without an authentic role or position of their own. This, he posited, is the reason for the invisibility of the deputy head compared to that of the head teacher; expressed more poetically in the USA as the assistant principal always operating within the shadow of the principal (Daresh, 2004). Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) linked this invisibility to the hierarchical and prevailing view of the assistant principal as 'a second level leader whose major function is to implement the visions of those who lead

them' (p. 153). This view is supported by Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004) in more recent research, who suggested that even the use of the term deputy or assistant principal in Australian secondary schools may reinforce 'a subordinate, relational and dependent role' (p. 230) and not give full justice to the abilities and strengths of those in the position.

Mertz (2000) has explored these notions in depth and found that a common professional norm of assistant principals in her American study was their stated position that they were 'serving the boss, and the principal as boss' (p. 8). This definition of boss she suggested reflected traditional hierarchies and power relationships even though both principals and APs in her study did not regard themselves as part of this traditional hierarchy and talked frequently about working together as a team. She further suggested that this is a norm that is brought to the position by assistant principals as well as reinforced by principals once APs take up their jobs. It remains, she concluded, a central tension in the position. The power relationship between the deputy and the principal was earlier explored by Harvey (1994) who rather depressingly concluded that the position of deputy principal in Australian schools was part of a hierarchical system that reflects 'the principles of scientific management... (that) requires the establishment of a hierarchy of control, the division of the production process into tasks and the allocation of people to tasks' (p. 15).

By viewing school management power relationships in this way, the role of the DP/AP remained firmly in the control of the principal and may be part of the explanation why many DPs/APs deal only with 'nuts and bolts issues' and why only a few have an authentic role in sharing leadership within the school. He further suggested that deputy principals should become much more aware of the paradox that exists in their professional lives and learn to live with their role as organisational leaders as well as further emphasising their position as leaders of teaching and learning, or nothing much will change in the future.

That the position of DP/AP is commonly regarded as a stepping-stone to the principalship is an enduring theme in the international literature (Earley & Evans, 2004; Hartzell et al., 1995). Marshall (1992) believed the assistant principal was a critical stage in the career development of the principal because the role provided an opportunity for future leaders to observe and interact with existing principals and learn the behaviours that go with the job. Another reason Bates (2003) noted somewhat more cynically, is that the assistant principalship is an ideal position where 'career gatekeepers' are able to

assess the competencies of individuals and decide which 'incumbents should move into higher positions and which ones should not' (p. 17).

However, Bates' (2003) study also found that only half of secondary assistant principals in Florida wanted to be a principal, while the other half saw their existing position as a lifetime career (p. 133). While the majority of assistant principals in Marshall's (1992) earlier study gave their major reason for seeking that position as the desire eventually to be a principal, Bates (2003) found that assistant principals in her study first and foremost wanted 'the opportunity to use his or her talents, skills and abilities to make a difference in education' as assistant principals (p.135). For those assistant principals who wanted to be principals, however, Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995, p. 158) offered a word of warning when they remarked that:

the nature of the assistant principalship and the skills required to be successful as an AP are oriented much more towards management than towards leadership, a condition that does not promote the development of visionary leadership in its occupants.

Glanz (2004) in a recent study of 200 assistant principals in New York concluded that because the role of the assistant principal was so different from that of the principal, it was not adequate preparation for the principalship. He also concluded that the role of the assistant principal would need to be changed by focusing more directly on instructional leadership around teaching and learning. Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (2003) were even more critical than Glanz (2004) and argued that assistant principalship could be a hindrance to future leadership because the skills and experiences of this position was more akin to management than leadership and 'the practice of the office cripples an individual's ability to think like a critical humanist' (p. 158).

Despite these rather pessimistic findings some other researchers argue that there is a need for greater understandings about the position of DP/AP precisely because more work is being delegated to them as a consequence of increasing workload and the complexity of the principal's job. Thrupp, Harold, Mansell and Hawksworth (2000) and Stewart (2000) have commented on the increasingly heavy workload of principals since 1989 when the educational reforms introduced in Tomorrow's Schools in New Zealand and similar restructuring of educational systems in Great Britain, Australia and the United States occurred. While Ribbins (1997) noted that deputy heads get the jobs that the principals do not want, Murphy (1994) and others have suggested that restructuring of school systems calls for changing power relationships with collaborative decision making

at every level of the school system. Kaplan and Owings (1999) identified a place for the assistant principal in this model of shared power and leadership.

How this re-conceptualisation of the position might occur is discussed further in this chapter and also in Chapter Two. This study provides an opportunity to gauge the extent to which the position of DP/AP has been reconceptualised since Graham and Smith's 1999 study.

Most professional learning of DPs/APs is done on the job

Daresh and Playko (1992, p. xi) stated that there has been 'a remarkable lack of focused attention' on the types of support needed and provided for new school leaders. They suggested that leadership was regarded by many as some sort of 'magical process' that occurred without ongoing support and professional development. Things are changing here for principals at least. There are clear trends in New Zealand, Britain, USA, Australia, Singapore, Thailand and many other countries in the last ten years that there is a more systematic approach for leadership development of principals (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Huber & West, 2002; Weindling, 2000). This systematic approach ranges from the provision of aspiring principal courses (Strachan et al., 2003), new principal development programmes (Eddy & Bennis, 2004), coaching and mentoring of beginning principals (Robertson, 2005), through to professional development programmes for experienced principals (MoE, 2007). Conversely, there has been little organised and focused development on the professional learning of DPs/APs (Cranston et al., 2004; Md Nor, 1996). This raises questions for my study and in Chapter Four and Chapter Five I look at the types of professional development and training newly appointed DPs/APs had before they began their new roles, as well as the professional development needs they had identified after some time in the job.

On the job

Md Nor (1996) found in his Waikato study that 'most assistant and deputy principals learn about their job on-the-job' (p.140); with little preparation for new appointments to the position provided by other formal learning or professional development opportunities. This finding is supported by Graham and Smith's (1999) larger study, which found that 46% of participants' main training for the position was on the job (p. 4.19). Only 17% of participants in their study commented that they had specific pre-service training or professional development before or immediately after they took up their positions. The

rest of those new to the job were described by a DP in Graham and Smith's study as 'flying by the seat of your pants' (p. 5.13).

Over the last two decades in New Zealand much of the professional support for newly appointed DPs/APs is through regional deputy principals and assistant principals associations, which together make up the National Association of Secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals (Md Nor, 1996). While NASDAP has a political voice in national educational issues such as curriculum and assessment initiatives, with the Education Review Office (ERO) advisory group and also acts as an advocate for salary and conditions of work with PPTA through membership of Senior Positions Advisory Committee (SPAC), it is the regional associations that provide professional development opportunities. These regional associations hold a variety of regular professional development for their members in the form of mini-conferences, professional development days, after-school and/or dinner meetings. While often these professional development activities involve outside speakers, they also involve DPs/APs sharing areas of expertise or new initiatives in their school. Md Nor (1996) suggested that DPs/APs feel these regional meetings are a valuable type of professional development because they are relevant, based on their needs and involve networking with colleagues. With an absence of formalised induction for new DPs/APs in New Zealand I was interested in exploring how individuals in my study identified their professional learning needs.

Md Nor (1996) also discussed the importance of a more formalized pre-appointment programme, based on adult learning theories and experiential learning, for all teachers seeking leadership and management positions in schools. He suggested that there needed to be opportunities to understand the educational challenges facing school leaders and to gain some understandings of the nature of the position and the various models of school leadership. This he argued might better prepare DPs/APs for the realities of their new roles. In his view this should be followed by induction for those newly appointed to their positions and on-going professional development, all of which involved work shadowing and mentoring by experienced peers or principals, which would result in 'professionalising the profession' (p. 134) and reflect the need for school leaders to be lifelong learners, a view shared by Strachan, Couch, Ho, Ford and Pettigrew (2003).

In Great Britain most Local Education Authorities (LEA) provide induction programmes for newly appointed deputy head teachers, but these were described by Baker (1992) as

'ad hoc, disjointed and insubstantial' (p. 38). Despite the more recent development of the National College of School Leadership (NCSL), which offers a range of professional development courses for deputy heads, in 2003 there were no preparatory course for teachers who aspired to the position of deputy head and induction programmes still remained the preserve of the individual LEA (Harris et al., 2003). In New Zealand the advent of the First-time Principals programme has provided professional support and mentoring for all new principals but there are no local Ministry of Education induction programmes provided for newly appointed DPs/APs (Eddy, Gwilliam & Waayer, 2004). Similarly, there is no formalised induction for newly appointed deputies in Australia, although Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004) found in their study of Australian deputy principals that 'Induction programs for deputies moving into the position for the first time were identified as desirable' (p. 238).

The experiences of newly appointed DPs/APs in New Zealand, Britain and Australia regarding induction and professional development contrast significantly with those of newly appointed assistant principals in the USA. There are requirements in the United States for assistant principals to undertake formal and mandated university leadership programmes before they are licensed to take up their positions (Glanz, 2004; Weller & Weller, 2002). The type of programme varies from state to state and most programmes focus on generic leadership development (Marshall & Hooley, 2006). Although the effectiveness of these leadership programmes is highly contested (Hallinger, 2003; Heck, 2003), most commentators acknowledged the importance of professional pre-service preparation and support of both aspiring assistant principals and principals.

In the USA literature there is an emphasis on principals and APs learning their roles through professional and organisational socialisation and through mentoring (Glanz, 2004; Marshall and Hooley, 2006). I have provided a brief critique of both of these concepts as they may provide some links to further understanding how new leaders and managers learn how to do their jobs.

Learning through professional and organisational socialisation

The professional growth of newly appointed assistant principals is strongly connected in American literature to socialisation theory (Crow & Matthews, 1998; Daresh & Playko, 1992; Matthews & Crow, 2003). While learning on the job is seen as the most important way in which assistant principals learn about their positions (Mertz, 2000) this learning is most frequently explained through a process known as socialisation.

Hart's (1993) study about the socialisation of first-time principals was linked by Crow & Matthews (2003), Dirda (1999), and Mertz (2000), to the socialisation of first time APs. Hart (1993) suggested that first-time principals undergo a 'double socialisation experience – professional socialisation to school administration and organizational socialisation to their immediate work setting' (p. 12). Professional socialisation was defined by Heck (2003) as 'the process through which one becomes a member of a profession and over time identifies with that profession' (p. 240), while organizational socialisation is how 'one learns the particular knowledge, skills, norms, and behaviour (i.e. 'learns the ropes') of a particular organisational role in a specific work setting' (p. 240). Researchers noted that threaded through this double socialisation experience is evidence of the personal characteristics of the new school leaders, or what Hart described as 'their talents, preferences, characteristics thinking and experiences' (p. 32). Similar socialisation processes are also experienced by newly appointed APs according Crow & Matthews (2003), Dirda, (1999), Domel (2001) and Hart, (1993). Although for newly appointed APs, Matthews & Crow (1998) suggested this is a contested experience which involves a cultural shift from teacher to administrator with old norms, values, allegiances and beliefs often at odds with the different norms, values, privileges and responsibilities of the new position.

Recently Heck (2003) has used this kind of socialisation theory as way to understand 'preparation, induction and early career mobility' of new school leaders and as a vehicle to identify more effective preparation programmes. His longitudinal study evaluated the organisational and professional socialisation experiences of a large group of newly appointed APs and the progression of a subset of this group who became principals. The study traced the impact of these organisational and professional socialisation experiences on professional practice and also offered an insight into how they evolved through the career progression of individuals. He argued that if leadership preparation programmes and in-service professional development were going to lead to improved practice there needed to be more rigorous evaluation of organisational and professional socialisation as it is an area 'long on rhetoric and short on empirical data' (p. 251).

Other critiques of socialisation theory have noted the prevailing focus on the professional and organisational perspective and less on individual agency. There has been little development and evaluation of this personal perspective, or the interaction of assumptions, values, beliefs and experiences of individuals (Matthews & Crow, 2003). Consequently the latter researchers have argued there has been uncritical acceptance of professional and organisational socialisation, which has affirmed informal, and formal

existing role hierarchies and power structures. Although Marshall and Hooley (2006) used socialisation theory as one framework to understand the lives of APs they were critical of the traditional mix of formal and informal socialisation experiences described in the literature. Instead of an emphasis on managerial and task-oriented activities, they argue that university programmes, certification requirements and other professional development activities also need to focus on developing assistant principals as innovators and instructional leaders. While acknowledging that these changes will not be easy and involve much wider debate and challenges to existing views of schooling, Marshall and Hooley suggested a need for more research that explores DPs/APs own personal views and experiences in their work, so that their own agency and ability to articulate their aspirations and professional development needs are affirmed. This study does provide an opportunity for a small group of newly appointed secondary DPs/APs to provide firsthand accounts of these personal views and experiences.

Mentoring

An associated theme in the American literature about the professional growth of newly appointed assistant principals is the presence and effectiveness of mentoring (Crow & Matthews, 1998; Daresh & Playko, 1992; Matthews & Crow, 2003). In many school districts mentoring is established as a formal, mandated relationship between the principal and assistant principal (Stensrud, 2002). The traditional view of mentoring is that of a one-to-one relationship with the principal defined by Krett (1998) as 'a person who takes an active interest in the career development of another person... and acts as a role model who provides guidance, support and opportunities' for that person (p. 44). Heck (2003) also has supported the notion that the best learning for a new school leader is in the field with an exemplary principal mentor, although Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) argued that this mentoring must go beyond the traditional aspects of the assistant principal's role and focus on real opportunities to learn and develop leadership skills.

Both Crow and Matthews (1998) and Golanda (1991) warned, however, that mentoring of APs by principals is a complex and skilful art. They argued that frequently it is haphazard, with little direction, and based on an assumption that somehow principals have effective mentoring skills and intuitively know what to do. Despite the establishment of mentoring as a mandated requirement in the Rock Mountain School District, Stensrud's (2002) study of the mentoring of APs by their principals found that this requirement was limited or non-existent as it too often depended on the principal's availability, workload and his or her view of its importance. He also found that,

not only must skills be articulated, but the mentoring experience should be designed and planned to accommodate the learning of these skills. A lack of planning and visioning encourages ambiguity for the new administrator and promotes feelings of awkwardness and inadequacy (p. 233).

Fishbein & Osterman (2001) added to the criticism of mentoring, which they regarded as a powerful socialisation process. They warned that unless new leaders are in skilled hands they may emerge as replicas of their mentors, and reinforce existing hierarchical divisions of leadership, power and opportunity. The benefits of coaching and mentoring school leaders emerged as important in recent New Zealand leadership literature (Eddy & Bennison, 2004; Robertson, 2005). Consequently, I am interested in exploring whether newly appointed DPs/APs in this study have used coaches or mentors as a means of supporting their own professional learning.

Following these discussions the last section of this chapter explores the recent New Zealand and international literature, which calls for a re-conceptualising of the position.

SECTION TWO: RE-CONCEPTUALISING THE ROLE OF DPS/APS

Given the kinds of concerns I have been discussing in this chapter it is not surprising that some researchers have begun to look more closely at how the position of DP/AP is changing change and how it is being reframed. While I have argued that the traditional and prevalent view of the position is conceptualised as a largely managerial role maintaining organisational stability within the school there is a growing need and the call for the position of DP/AP to be re-conceptualised to more adequately reflect growing understandings and new thinking about leadership. The attitude, role and skill of principals are critical if DPs/APs are to be part of how this leadership is enacted within schools.

Three themes emerge here from the New Zealand and international literature: the importance that DPs/APs attach to working within a strong senior management team; the growing interest in distributed and/or democratic school leadership models; and an increasing emphasis on the leadership of curriculum.

Working in teams

A major way in which the role of DP/AP can be re-conceptualised is through them working in more participative and collaborative senior management teams with an

emphasis on joint decision-making (Graham & Smith, 1999; Cranston, 2007). Although senior management teams have been a feature of many secondary schools since the 1980s (Cardno, 2002), Fitzgerald (2004) has suggested that the emphasis on self-managing schools and the increasing complexity of school administration following Tomorrow's Schools has led to an even greater need to share the leadership of the school. Graham and Smith's (1999) earlier research found that not only was there 'a clear movement towards teamwork and collaboration' in senior management teams in secondary schools but 'this is what should be happening in those teams' (p. 7.3).

Wallace and Hall (1994) have also commented on the evolution of senior management teams as not only an important characteristic of school organization in Great Britain, but also one way of 'achieving a coherent strategy for implementing multiple innovations' (p. 184). Like New Zealand, the increasing complexity of schools and the growing number of managerial tasks with subsequent increase in workload following the educational restructuring of the late 1980s and 1990s were reasons given for the development of these teams (Earley & Weindling, 2004). Their review of three research projects in British secondary schools between 1992 and 2002 showed a move away from the leadership of the principal to one of shared leadership through teams. These research projects highlighted the impossibility of one person, the principal, implementing the many innovations required as a result of the educational reforms.

In Australia, Harvey (1994) noted there had been some changes that indicated movement from the traditional hierarchical view of the position to one where deputy principals are part of a team, with a greater voice in decision-making and in educational leadership within the school. Cranston and Ehrich (2004) linked current leadership research about the importance of genuine collaboration and shared decision making with the earlier research of Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2002) who found that Queensland deputy principals who had high job satisfaction were also members of an effective senior management team, in which its members shared decision making.

However, despite the rhetoric about a senior management team working collaboratively developing the leadership of all its participants, Cardno (2002) found 'a low emphasis on team training and development' (p. 219). The importance of the principal in determining whether these teams were collaborative in reality was highlighted in her study which supported an earlier finding by Graham and Smith (1999) who found that despite most participants' schools espousing flattened management systems, the authority for DPs/APs to make real decisions only occurred in some individual schools and at the

discretion of the principal. They concluded that more research was needed to understand the tension between the responsibility/accountability function of DPs/APs and whether they had real decision-making powers in the areas for which they were responsible and/or accountable.

International literature also found that the attitude, role and skill of the principal are critical if there is to be a team approach to leading the school (Cranston, Tromans & Reugebrink, 2004; Wallace & Hall 1994). Despite talk about flattened management structures, team work, collaboration and empowerment, the deputy heads in Wallace and Hall's (1994) study revealed that whether they had the opportunity to develop their interests and make significant contributions to teaching and learning within their schools was largely at the discretion of their principals. They further commented that the model of the SMT may not have the leverage needed to develop more collaborative teams as the work done by SMT largely remains hidden and other groups lack the big picture view of school events and support their own sectional interests. Harvey (1994) suggested that it was incumbent on deputy principals to 'advocate their case' (p. 23) with principals in terms of their contribution to making schools more effective for students' learning and shaping a role with greater leadership opportunities; a view shared more recently by Marshall and Hooley (2006).

Democratic models of leadership

In New Zealand, Court (2003) has argued for more democratic models of leadership. Her review of co-principalship literature in 2003 offered some insights in the way in which co-principalship has been used as an alternative to more traditional and hierarchical models of leadership in a variety of contexts and how power can be redistributed in schools. The example of Selwyn College (Court, 2001) echoes Calabrese's (1991) view that co-principalship offered a way of sharing the onerous demands on principals and head teachers. Court (2003), however, argued that the model of Selwyn College evidenced a move to 'more inclusive and democratic school organisations' as it involved power sharing at more than the level of principal and DP/AP. (p. 3). The examples of co-principalship reviewed by Court demonstrated a range of different ways in which individual schools were modelling democratic leadership models and some were 'starting to involve children in decision making about their learning and school procedures' (p. 32).

Calabrese (1991) argued that because of the increasing complexity of schooling in the United States following educational reforms there should be significant changes in the position of assistant principal which would make it more proactive, multi-dimensional and more akin to a co-principal than a principal's assistant. Calabrese's notion of co-principalship was one that viewed the assistant principal, as an authentic partner of the principal whom he proposed would initially act as a mentor. This model of distributed leadership also involved the assistant principal taking up a stronger educational or instructional leadership role around aspects of teaching and learning. However, unlike the Selwyn College model described by Court (2003), there did not appear to involve a wider sharing of leadership beyond the senior management team in the re-conceptualisation of the APs position suggested by Calabrese (2001).

Curriculum leadership

Graham and Smith (1999) found that DPs/APs wanted greater curriculum leadership than existed in their current roles. A desire for greater leadership responsibility for curriculum was also a key finding of Cranston's (2007) recent survey of 77 Auckland secondary DPs/APs. Based on a similar survey of Queensland secondary DPs, that survey indicated that deputy principals with the greatest satisfaction with their roles operated within strong, effective teams where there was a close alignment between what participants perceived as their ideal role and the actual work they did in a typical week. This ideal role was defined by DPs in the study as time spent in curriculum, strategic or educational leadership. The need for the re-conceptualisation of the DP/AP position in secondary schools has been argued from a premise that if 21st century schools are to meet the needs of their learners there needs to be a greater balance between organisational leadership and curriculum or pedagogical leadership within senior management teams (Cranston, Tromans & Reugebrink, 2004).

Cranston's (2007) built on earlier work in Australia, by Harvey (1994) who argued that the need to re-conceptualise the role was crucial if the deputy principal was not to remain trapped by a large number of disconnected tasks; and in the United States by Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995), Michel (1996), Celikten (2001) and Marshall and Hooley (2006). Calabrese (1991) noted that developing the assistant principal as an instructional leader would help define and promote the school's vision, help establish the direction and parameters of the school's instructional or teaching and learning programme, and help promote an environment in which this teaching and learning is promoted. According to Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) a new conceptualisation of

the assistant principal would see the role less task oriented and more competencies focused so the assistant principal was viewed as a team partner, advocate for excellence, visionary leader, change agent, communicator and motivator as well as playing a major role in curriculum leadership (pp. 76-78). Celikten (2001) reiterated Harvey's (1994) call for APs to become instructional leaders proactive in the enhancement of the teaching and learning of students, rather than continually reactive to the behaviour management and attendance of these same students. Michel (1996) suggested that the assistant principal is in the perfect position to share leadership with teams of teachers, students and parents 'making the assistant principal into the leader of a teacher team' (pp. 5-6).

In my study I explore whether the selected DPs/APs share this increasing emphasis on DPs/APs leading teaching and learning, which has appeared more recently in the literature.

CONCLUSION

This chapter has summarised the major themes that have emerged from the rather scant New Zealand and international literature about the work of DPs/APs. Much of the discussion has focused on what are traditional understandings of the position and the types of work done by this group of school leaders. The last section reviews the call for the position to be re-conceptualised and explores the growing emphasis on leadership within teams, some democratic model of leadership and leadership of curriculum. Because little has been written about the work of DPs/APs as leaders and managers I wanted to explore and understand how newly appointed DPs/APs perceived this work at the beginning of their appointment and after a few months in their new position. The aim was to reach some understandings about how this group conceptualised the position and whether their early experiences in the position might influence or change these conceptualisations, which is reflected in the research problem and questions generated by this study, outlined below.

Research Problem

How do newly appointed DPs/APs in a range of New Zealand secondary schools in 2006 understand and experience their work as leaders and managers?

I have taken the research problem and ask the following questions:

- How do the DPs/APs perceive their work as leaders and managers as they take up their new positions?
- How do the DPs/APs perceive their work as leaders and managers a few months into their positions?
- How have the perceptions of the DPs/APs remained the same or changed as a result of their experiences in the position? If they have changed, why?

While the focus of this chapter has been on the literature about the work of DPs/APs, the focus of the next chapter is on how DPs/APs fit within the ways that school leadership has been conceptualised more widely in the literature. It will examine some of the major ways this conceptualisation has evolved in recent years set against a background of the educational reforms that have been introduced from the late 1980s. The chapter concludes by revisiting suggestions for re-conceptualising the work of DPs/APs.

CHAPTER TWO

CONTEXTUAL AND CONCEPTUAL LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to understand the position of DP/AP within the current educational environment. The chapter is divided into four sections. In the first section I discuss how the educational reforms and the development of a managerial culture in the 1990s have impacted on the leadership of schools and draw out ways in which these might affect the work of DPs/APs. In the next section I discuss some of the different definitions and interpretations of leadership and management that have been contested. The third section explores three major ways that school leadership has been conceptualised in recent times; instructional leadership, transformational leadership and the more recent, emergent ways in which leadership is being conceptualised in the literature. In the last section I draw together the main ideas from each section and describe how these ideas might re-conceptualise the position of DP/AP in New Zealand secondary schools.

SECTION ONE: THE EFFECTS OF MANAGERIALISM AND THE PUBLIC SECTOR REFORMS

During the late 1980's and 1990s in countries like Britain, Canada, The United States, Australia and New Zealand large-scale educational systems reforms introduced new public sector reforms into schools (Codd, 1993, 1999; Peters & Olssen, 1999; Wylie, 1995). These reforms were complex and contested and the reasons for them have widely described in the literature (Codd, 1993, 1999; Court, 2001; Grace, 1995). In this section I will summarise the effects of these reforms in terms of their impact on the leadership of schools.

The radical transformation of the New Zealand education system reflected both a growing criticism during the 1970s and early 1980s about the inefficiencies and inequalities of highly centralised bureaucracies and a political and ideological shift towards what has been called the "New Right" or neo-liberal ideology (Codd, 1995). The Picot report of 1987 described "falling standards" and "rising mediocrity" in schools, and called for greater parent and community participation in the involvement of children (Codd et al., 1990). The Labour government's response to the Picot report was

Tomorrow's Schools (Lange, 1988) and New Zealand entered an era of self-managing schools whereby the school system has been characterised by a significant delegation of decision making usually concerning resources and property to individual school communities but within a centrally controlled and determined framework of accountability and standards (Caldwell & Spinks, 1998). Bottery (2004) has argued that self managing schools have created a 'paradoxical combination of "empowerment" for school leaders to be more entrepreneurial, yet at the same time being asked to implement and to come into line with more and more central directives' (p. 86).

In New Zealand schools the reforms resulted in the development of a managerial culture that Codd (1993) posited as 'hierarchical, competitive, individualistic and highly task-oriented (p.159). He later described how this pervasive culture of managerialism had impacted on the leadership of schools, redefining the role of the principal from instructional leader to 'executive or manager' similar to managers in business (Codd, 1995, p. 29). This form of management emphasised generic skills such as financial, property and human-resource skills, which it was espoused could be easily translated to schools with a subsequent improvement in how they were run. Pivotal to these management skills was the notion of effectiveness and quality, which Codd (1999) argued 'has become a powerful metaphor for new forms of managerial control' (p. 47). Robinson (2004) recently noted that the emphasis on these management skills and managerial effectiveness came at the expense of developing professional leadership centred on teaching and learning. For DPs/APs their position during the early 1990s under a managerial culture was less certain as it was argued that there was a greater opportunity for wider educational and curriculum leadership which would be shared by the principal (Harvey, 1994) because of the principal's increased workload.

Ball (1994) commented, however, that in England, as a result of the public sector reforms, school leaders were required to conceptualise leadership differently to what had been a traditional leader of teachers approach, and he identified three different ways in which this was done. Firstly, leadership was conceptualised as "professional management" with the production of strategic plans with identified and measurable targets around student achievement (p. 54). Codd (1993, 1995), also identified this type of professional management in New Zealand. Secondly, Ball (1994) identified "financial management", as an imperative for school leaders. While it was argued that local school control of the budget would lead to greater administrative and financial flexibility in the day-to-day running of the school, it resulted in markedly increased workloads for principals and a reduction in resources available to fund this so-called school autonomy,

a parallel also found in New Zealand (Codd, 1993). Ball (1994) described the third conceptualisation of school leadership as 'entrepreneurial management', which incorporated consumer choice of schools. In New Zealand the parallel to the English experience has included consumer choice of schools and more recently export education, with many secondary schools, particularly in Auckland, dependent on fee-paying international students (Codd, 2002). Blackmore (1999) noted from an Australian perspective that these forms of managerialism 'reduce leadership to technique and not purpose, passion and desire' (p. 164).

An effect of the educational reforms in New Zealand was that a hierarchical and singular notion of leadership as embedded in the position and authority of the principal has been reinforced and made central to the notion of effectively led and managed schools (Wylie, 1995). There has been an emphasis on the leadership and management by principals who have been expected to meet the demands of their local communities, be responsive to the needs of staff and students as well as simultaneously meet the accountability demands of the government represented by the Ministry of Education (Billot, 2003; Court 2005; Harold, Hawksworth, Mansell & Thrupp, 2000; Wylie, 1997). It is not surprising that many studies of leadership in schools have become synonymous with only one school leader – the principal, and the work of other school leaders such as DPs/APs remains in the shadows.

There have been a number of studies of work of principals within this restructured environment in New Zealand (Billot, 2003; Cardno & Collett; 2004 Wylie, 1997). Principals in all three studies identified the dilemmas that existed between their professional roles as leaders of teaching and learning and their managerial roles focused on financial and administrative accountabilities to the central bureaucracy. Role overload and the ambiguity created by conflicting demands between the professional and managerial components of leadership remained a central dilemma for these school leaders (Billot, 2003). Principals in studies by Billot (2003) and Cardno and Collett (2004) overwhelmingly described their preference for the leadership rather than the managerial aspects of their jobs. In similar studies in Britain, headteachers expressed surprise in just how much leadership skills and abilities were demonstrated in the schools in their study, given the influence of managerialism in the form of site management, policy implementation and greater accountabilities to the centre (Dalton, Fawcett and West-Burnham, 2001).

While New Zealand based studies of principals since Tomorrow's Schools have described some of the shifts or redefining of the role from principal to manager or chief executive officer in schools, they have also charted the attempts by these principals to remain focused on student learning (Billot, 2003; Robertson, 1998; Wylie, 1997). Similarly in Britain, it has been suggested this focus on students by school leaders has tempered 'the worst excesses of market-driven managerialism' (Law & Glover, 2000, p. 5). However, Robinson (2004) in New Zealand has called for the balance to be tipped even further away from generic management skills towards greater pedagogical understanding and leadership of curriculum. Pedagogical leadership, she has asserted, is needed to mediate mandated management requirements, and to focus schools on 'leadership practices that support high quality teaching and learning' (p. 42). The leadership in Robinson's study is the preserve of the principal, although Cardno and Collett (2004) suggested that the focus on leading curriculum cannot be done by principals alone and must involve other curriculum leaders in the school such as DPs/APs.

In my study I wanted to explore if newly appointed DPs/APs worked closely with students and their learning or if, as Marshall and Hooley (2006) have asserted, 'the array of assistant principal tasks actually distances them from curriculum and instruction' (p. 94). In particular I was interested in seeing if the managerial imperatives established by the public sector reforms gave greater opportunities for DPs/APs to have a more central role in leading curriculum. One dominant theme that emerged from the review of New Zealand and international literature in Chapter One was the importance of the principal in determining the work of DPs/APs and thus reflecting and reinforcing hierarchical power relationships. Less clear is how the impact of the changing work of principals as a consequence of the educational reforms has impacted on the work of DPs/APs and their conceptualisations of their work. From the studies of Douglas (1998) and Graham and Smith (1999), it would appear that, with the exception of an increased workload, there has been little change to the traditional conceptualisation of the role of DPs/APs as managers committed to organisational stability following the public sector reforms. An interesting question for my study is the extent to which this conceptualisation of the position may have changed in the first few years of the 21st century.

As the focus of this research is to explore how newly appointed DPs/APs in a range of New Zealand secondary schools understand and experience their work as leaders and managers, in the following section I explore theories of leadership and management in

educational settings in New Zealand, cognisant of the influences of the international literature.

SECTION TWO: CURRENT DEBATES AROUND DEFINING LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

This section explores some of these dominant theories, outlines how have they developed and examines some of the different approaches to leadership and management that have emerged in recent years. In particular I examine the extent to which these theories and approaches are relevant and useful in understanding how DPs/APs understand and experience their work.

It is easy to get bogged down in the maze of conflicting definitions of leadership and management, but one thing about leadership and management that all commentators seem to agree on is just how complex and contested this discourse has become in recent years (MacBeath, 2004; Fullan, 2001a; Stoll & Fink, 1996). Firstly, there has been a constant call for leadership rather than management in educational research in the last few years (Coleman & Earley, 2005; Bottery, 2004). What appears less clear is leadership by whom and for what purposes, although much of this leadership discourse focuses on the central role of the principal (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Robinson, 2004; Stewart & Prebble, 1993). Paradoxically this focus on leadership and the development of leaders has been alongside the growth of managerialism and the development of the self-managing school with its greater accountability requirements from central government agencies. The wave of educational reform through the 1990s has forced many schools and their leaders to focus on management at the expense of leadership, which is a second theme that has emerged in the leadership/management debate (Codd, 1999). These two themes underpin current thinking about leadership and management.

There is no agreed definition of educational leadership and definitions differ according to the theoretical perspectives of researchers and commentators (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbeck, 1999; Southworth, 2002). According to Coleman (2005) in her review of current educational thinking around the issues, leadership tends to be regarded as the most important activity of school leaders while 'management tends to relate to more operational matters and administration to relate to tasks which are routine' (p. 6). This functional definition supported Dimmock's (1999) earlier categorisation of leadership as higher order tasks involving people and performance; management as

routine operational tasks; and administration as involving lower order activities. Gronn (2003) differentiated between leaders and leading. He defined the two major attributes of leaders as 'influence and identification' (p. 8), and he defined leading 'as the framing of meaning and the mobilisation of support for a meaningful course of action' (p. 8). Hallinger and Snidvongs' (2005) view was that this influence and identification was 'associated with moral purpose, vision' (p. 4) and the meaningful course of action was the ability to 'inspire others to create the schools we would desire' (p. 4). In contrast, they defined management 'as the efficient, organisation, and control of information, people and work processes to achieve the vision and goals set by the organisation' (p. 4). In many ways this definition of management is a perfect fit with the overwhelming focus of DPs/APs on organisational stability through efficient management of school systems, which I identified in Chapter One.

The definitions of leadership and management outlined focus particularly on the relationship between leaders, managers and their followers. According to Simkins (2005) the idea that 'leadership occurs when leaders do things to followers' (p. 11) forms part of a traditional conception of leadership, which also assumes that leadership is invested in individuals who are somehow different from the rest, is hierarchical based, role related and is more important than management. There are, however, some contrasting views of leadership and management that use a different approach to understand this field and challenge the traditional ways in which leadership and management have been conceptualised. Shields (2000) used Bogotch's (cited in Shields, 2000) definition of leadership, which defined it as 'deliberate intervention that requires the moral use of power' (p. 79). She argued this was a different but a very useful way of conceptualising this hugely contested area because:

There is no mention of roles, tasks or traits – indeed, leadership, according to this conception, may be carried on alone or collectively, and from any position within an organization. It occurs both formally and informally, but being deliberate, it rarely occurs accidentally (p. 79).

Her use of this definition reflects a growing emphasis in the literature that understandings of leadership should be conceptualised in terms of values and moral purpose (Fullan, 2001a; Harris, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2000). Hallinger (2003) argued that this approach is a reaction against the effects of managerialism in schools although other commentators believe that moral purpose has always existed in the minds and hearts of school leaders (Sergiovanni, 1991). Furthermore, this emerging conception of leadership is, as Hallinger (2003) stressed, 'a *mutual influence process*' (p. 8), that is less reliant on one person, the principal, choosing to share or distribute leadership to

one in which leadership is about 'constructing meaning and knowledge collectively and collaboratively' (Harris & Lambert, 2003, p.17). Leadership conceptualised in this way can occur anywhere and by any one in a school. There is a place for all teachers to share leadership within this definition.

Other commentators are far more sceptical about the traditional view that highlights leadership rather than management. MacBeath (2004) warned that the continuing pre-occupation with leadership is often more rhetorical than grounded in reality and he supported Grace's (1995) earlier contention that 'we slipped seamlessly from the vocabulary of management to the lexicon of leadership' (p. 1) with little change in actual practice. However, MacBeath (2004) also suggested that management activities might be an activity increasingly subsumed by leadership, and leadership in this context will thus be defined as leadership of operational tasks. Grace (1995) noted that this approach was merely a smokescreen to disguise managerialism. Law & Glover (2000) argued that effective school leaders combined and moved between both leadership and management and 'rather than being mutually exclusive, they can be mutually reinforcing and complementary – helping to create a vital professional synergy' (p. 5). West-Burnham (2004) urged that the debate should be about leadership and management rather than leadership or management or leadership over management which reinforced Sergiovanni's (1991) contention that it was a question of getting the right balance between leadership and management activities rather than a choice of one over the other.

Bush and Glover (2004) have also argued that effective leadership and management are both needed if schools are to be successful and in the rush to develop leadership theories and models the relationship between the two has been neglected. This view might be useful in helping to conceptualise the work of DPs/AP as both leaders and managers. Recent literature has stressed the absolute importance of principals as the educational leaders of their schools (Cardno & Collett, 2004; Robinson, 2004), and the literature outlined in Chapter One found that DPs/APs were managers first and foremost. Shields (2005) has argued that 'whether we call what people do, management, administration, or even leadership is... immaterial. The concepts are not synonymous, but tend to emphasize different and important aspects of the role' (p. 81). Using this approach, perhaps the calls for the re-conceptualisation of the position outlined in Chapter One would not occur. However, she further argued that 'how we ground our approaches, position ourselves, conceptualise the roles, and live our lives in institutional settings' (p. 81) is fundamentally more important than semantics. By exploring the

experiences of a group of newly appointed DPs/APs I hope to understand some of the challenges outlined by Shields.

SECTION THREE: CONCEPTS OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In the previous section I identified the growing emphasis in both the New Zealand and the international literature on the importance of educational leadership by the principal. This section explores some of the major ways educational leadership has been conceptualised in recent years. I discuss in turn instructional leadership and transformational leadership, two main approaches that have dominated the educational leadership discourse over the last twenty-five years (Hallinger, 2003). I then outline some emerging conceptualisations of leadership. I acknowledge that the approaches to the conceptualising of leadership that I will discuss are sometimes shifting and contradictory. However, they do provide a framework for discussing how we think about educational leadership. As Court (2001) has argued, different discourses about leadership have always existed but have been given different emphasises and assumed wider acceptance at different times.

Hallinger (2003) has identified two major approaches to how leadership has been conceptualised in the recent years; instructional leadership, and transformational leadership. He argued that these two broad conceptions of educational leadership 'focus explicitly on the manner in which the educational leadership exercised by school administrators and teachers brings about improved educational outcomes' (p. 1). Despite his optimistic inclusion of other senior administrators and teachers in his initial statements I will argue that most of the instructional and transformational discourse focuses on the importance of only one key leader, the principal, and reflect the traditional conceptions of leadership highlighted by Simkins (2005) and others (Bush & Glover, 2004; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbeck, 1999). The invisibility of DPs/APs in the educational literature, which was outlined in Chapter One, is also reflected in the wider educational leadership discourse.

Instructional leadership

Instructional leadership models which emerged internationally in the late 1970's and 1980s shared the view that the principal was the school leader central to defining the school mission, managing teaching programmes and creating a positive school climate (Hallinger, 2003). In New Zealand, Codd (1993) suggested, early concepts of leadership

or educational administration, as it was called, was fixed within a socio-democratic model of education for the public good. In this model Court (2001) argued 'in the 1970's the principal was constructed as an instructional leader who had administrative responsibilities' (p. 156) but predominantly the responsibility of educational leadership 'was the domain of all teachers, not just the principal (p. 157). That women or Maori did not appear in this domain of educational leadership, does suggest that despite the wide scale recognition of teacher leadership, in most cases, the male principal was the final decision maker. The publishing of a significant Department of Education report, *Towards Partnership*, in 1976 (cited in Court, 2001) recognised other important challenges to the control schools and teachers had, and many would argue still have, over the schooling of children. This report promoted more democratic approaches to the leadership and management of secondary schools, with a call for more collegial processes involving not only teachers, but also students, parents and the wider community (Court, 2001).

The conceptualisation of the principal as the instructional leader in the USA is a strong theme in international literature, which has been changed and re-shaped through the last thirty years. Hallinger and Heck (1996) argued that in the USA in the 1980s, the emphasis on the instructional leader, the principal, was a response to research that was released about effective schools and 'was viewed as the primary source of knowledge for the development of the school's educational programmes' (p. 37). According to Hallinger (2003), in the USA, the school effectiveness movement highlighted the principal as the instructional leader and emphasised the importance of the principal as the leader of teachers and learning. The link of instructional leadership to effective schools was also reiterated in other countries. As early as 1988 in Britain, Mortimer, Sammons, Stoll, Lewis and Ecob identified leadership where 'effective head teachers were sufficiently involved in, and knowledgeable about, what went on in classrooms and about the progress of individual pupils, (p. 251) as a significant factor in improving the effectiveness of schools. According to Walters, Marzano and McNulty (2003) this discourse was long on 'theories, anecdotes and personal perspectives' (p. 2) but less clear on how principals did this in reality.

The model of instructional leadership has been criticised because of its focus on hierarchical power relationships and leadership by a heroic few. While learning is central to this model, Bush and Glover (2003) argued that instructional leadership indirectly focuses on students because the target of principals was to positively influence the 'the behaviour of teachers in working with students' (p. 12). It also assumed that principals had the necessary skills and abilities to positively influence teachers (Leithwood et al.,

1998) and, as Bush & Glover (2003) have maintained, emphasised 'the direction and impact of influence rather than the influence process itself' (p. 12). Southworth (2002) suggested broadening the definition of instructional leadership. He argued that the narrow view of the principal as an instructional leader emphasises that it is the principal who has the knowledge to give to teachers to make shifts in their practice. He advocated that while the leadership role of the principal is important, a broader view of instructional leadership would also value and recognise the knowledge and leadership of those the principal is leading. This view of instructional leadership would include the work of DPs/APs, who Glanz (2002) believed often had more recent knowledge and experience in leading curriculum than their principals.

Transformational leadership

The educational reforms of the 1990s and restructuring of education along business lines strongly influenced the move for principals to be less focused on instructional leadership and to be seen as leaders who transform the learning culture of their schools (Bush & Glover, 2003; Hallinger, 2003; Stewart & Prebble, 1993). In their review of approaches to leadership, Bush and Glover (2003) argued that transformational leadership is more about 'a type of influence process based on increasing the commitment of followers to organisational goals' (p. 15), based on the idea of visionary leadership or heroic leadership with leaders leading and followers following (p. 15). Leithwood and Duke (1999) suggested that while instructional leaders focus on teacher behaviour to do with student learning, transformational leaders focus on 'the commitments and capacities of organisational members' (p. 48). As in all aspects of the leadership discourse, definitions and understandings of transformational leadership are highly contested.

The work of Stewart and Prebble (1993) strongly influenced understanding and thinking about notions of transformational leadership within a New Zealand context. Their model of transformational leadership linked the principal's power and influence to the school's functioning and effectiveness and to the subsequent creation of a dynamic educational organization. While this process had its origins in the instructional leadership model of the 1970s and 1980s it was given fresh impetus by the move to school based or site based management following the educational reforms of 1989. Within this transformational approach, principals were conceptualised as role models, who had an idealised and inspirational influence on their followers; through vision; a stress on creativity; and the encouragement and nurturing of different ideas from their followers.

Fundamental to the notion of transformational leadership was the belief that the influence of the principal is best served leading the transformation of the school culture and influencing teacher culture to change in the classroom, and as a result indirectly increasing student achievement. The role of DPs/APs as transformational leaders was not addressed in Stewart and Prebble's model, even though Marshall and Hooley (2006) have acknowledged that they are often much closer to teachers and curriculum than principals.

Leithwood's seven dimensions of transformational leadership (Heck & Hallinger, 1999) provided a wider framework for the activities of transformational leaders. He argued that each dimension had specified leadership practices and further asserted that although the focus of his model was the principal, transformational leadership should 'influence people by building from the bottom-up rather than the top-down' (p. 4). In Leithwood's transformational model DPs/APs would be part of a much wider and more democratic leadership model in which all staff, parents and students are involved.

Grace (1995) has been much more critical of the acceptance of transformational leadership by school leaders and researchers, whatever the model. He argued that it has been the 'outcome of individual, hierarchical and patriarchal forms of school leadership' (p. 63). Court (2003) too has argued that the principal as a transformational leader is elitist, as he or she 'remains positioned at the head of a chain of influence and control, holding final veto power over all school wide decisions' (p.22). Grace (1995) further called for school leadership to be reconceptualised as participative and democratic, which he warned will be a difficult paradigm shift because empowerment will involve principals as school leaders, along with other staff, reconceptualising their understandings and exercise of leadership as well as students, their parents and the wider community. Shields (2005), too has criticised aspects of transformational leadership and has used the term 'transformative' instead to argue that while the transformation of individual organisations is important, leaders must involve the wider community and attend to issues of 'equity, power, and social justice' (p. 82). Much earlier, Harvey (1994) highlighted the importance of DPs/APs sharing in the process, as he believed they also needed to challenge their own assumptions about the role they played in schools and work with others in this transformative process.

Sergiovanni (1991) and Fullan (2000a) also commented that the transformational lens on leadership is too narrow, and that values and moral purpose are central to the work of schools and their leaders. Bush and Glover (2003) and Leithwood and Duke (1999)

suggested that in many models of moral leadership, what is important are the values and moral purpose of the principal particularly as it is the principal who 'provides the school with a clear sense of purpose' (p. 17). Coleman (2005) extended this view and has stated that it is not only school leaders but also their communities who decide what is 'significant, what is right and what is worthwhile' (p. 12). She also described a more equal power relationship between teachers and leaders as well as between teachers and learners than were initially found in earlier definitions of transformational leadership.

Instructional and transformational leadership models in the large part have focused on the leadership of the principal. How these frameworks of leadership are conceptualised by DPs/APs continues to remain one of the 'blank spots' in the educational leadership literature (Heck & Hallinger, 1999, p.158). However, there are some insights from the literature. Brooks (2006) encapsulated a traditional view of the relationship between principal and deputy in his recent training book for British deputy principals when he explained that:

the head leads. The head provides the strategic overview, the vision. They are the figurehead, standing at the prow in a noble posture, shielding their eyes from the sun and scanning the far horizon. Artists want to paint their picture (p.xi).

Although Brooks acknowledged this was an over simplification of the relationship between DPs/APs and their principals, his view does seem to heed Webb & Vulliamy's (1996) warning about power and hierarchies and the possibilities of the manipulation of followers by strong 'heroic' leaders. For DPs/APs, Brooks (2006) positioned them as 'sweating down below with galley slaves, beating the drum' (p, xi). He noted that the artists are not even slightly interested in painting this picture. It is my hope that this thesis will make a contribution to rectifying this situation.

That 'school leaders make a difference in the capacity of schools to implement education reforms and in the learning outcomes of students' (Hallinger & Snidvongs, 2005, p. 2) is an important theme reiterated through the plethora of leadership literature that has been published in the last two decades (Dimmock, 1999; Fullan, 2001b; West Burnham, 2004). What is highly contestable is why this so, and what school leaders do in order to make a difference in the lives of their students. What is interesting and which has been previously commented on is that frequently there is an assumption in the literature that leadership is in the hands of one person – the principal. This assumption is an important factor and influence in understanding how DPs/APs have understood and continue to understand their work in schools.

Emergent leadership discourses

Recent thinking in New Zealand and internationally about leadership development and the proposal of alternative leadership models by researchers, school leaders and teachers is beginning to challenge traditional hierarchical models and power relationships, as well as looking for other ways to deal with the tensions between managerial imperatives and the learning needs of students and their teachers (Court, 1998; Gronn, 2003; Harris, 2005; Lambert 2005; Robinson, 2004). Dalton, Fawcett and West-Burnham (2001) succinctly describe this change as regarding leadership as the activity of many rather than the preserve of a few. The call to return to the moral and ethical imperatives of education (Sergiovanni, 2000), to a broader educational leadership focused on democratic participation and shared decision making (Codd, 1995), and to leadership more directly focused on teaching and learning (Robinson, 2004), are all attempts to move away from the earlier discussions of instructional leadership and transformational leadership focused more on the authority of one individual, the principal and his or her influence on teachers and teaching.

I now explore the notion that schools are places where leadership should be nurtured and developed at every level of the school and community (Codd, 1995; Robinson, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2000) and secondly, to examine the reframing of instructional leaders as leaders not only of teachers, but more importantly of learning (Lambert, 2002; Robinson, 2004).

The importance and necessity of teachers, students, parents and the wider community participating in improving educational outcomes for all students is part of a recent emergent leadership discourse (Shields, 2005; Robinson, 2004). While Leithwood and Duke (2005) suggest rather pragmatically that this may be because it is recognised as a factor contributing to organisational effectiveness, other commentators have argued that it is a movement driven by the need for democratic decision making - an authentic attempt to share power and leadership (Shields, 2005). Although there is considerable debate about how all the participants in schooling can participate fairly and equitably in decisions affecting them, the notion of distributed leadership has occupied a central place in recent educational leadership literature (Bennett, Wise, Woods & Harvey, 2003; Gronn, 2003; Harris, 2005).

The literature has focused on how leadership should be distributed or dispersed throughout an organization and is therefore vested in a range of both informal and formal

leaders. Harris (2005) suggested that distributed leadership 'in theoretical terms means multiple sources of guidance and direction' in schools and is focused on how individuals work collectively to share expertise and practice in the interests of their students and for organisational change (p. 163). Bennett, Wise, Woods & Harvey (2003) found in their literature review of distributed leadership that, while short on common definitions, distributed leadership was more importantly a way to think about or conceptualise leadership as it was underpinned by democratic principles, which Lambert (2002) had conceptualised as leadership for all.

The collaborative model of co-principalship developed in some New Zealand schools focused on this need to reconceptualise leadership as a shared activity based on a collective decision-making (Court, 1998, 2001). The Selwyn College model (Court, 2003) of shared leadership moved towards a more inclusive decision making process which involved not only a co-principalship between two deputy principals replacing the hierarchical senior management team, but teacher and student participation in decision making and leadership. While existing traditional structures such as heads of departments and a senior management team remained, there were authentic attempts to place decision making amongst teacher groups that included students. This resulted in a co-principalship which 'was seen as successfully building and integrating more democratic and inclusive leadership practices into many aspects of the work of the school' (Court, 2003, p. 13-14).

While the main reason for the co-principalship of Selwyn College was based on a philosophical belief in collegial decision-making, other benefits may mean greater support is given to this type of dispersed leadership in the future. As well as a realistic way in which senior leaders can share increasing workloads, co-principalship may be a solution for the declining numbers of applicants for principal positions that are reported in both the New Zealand and international literature (Huber & West, 2002; Strachan et al., 2003; Robinson, 2004). It may, as Court (2003) suggested, lighten workload and both retain experienced principals and encourage more applicants for senior management positions. Despite its many challenges, the concept of co-principalship seeks to challenge existing hierarchical school structures and provide alternative school structures that will benefit all in the school system. For DPs/APs this model may challenge their existing assumptions about these school structures and may provide the opportunity to experience the wider and more complex demands of school leadership.

Despite wide acceptance of more participative leadership by teachers and school leaders, Bennett, Wise, Woods & Harvey (2003) and Gronn (2003) could cite few empirical studies about the effects of distributed leadership, a finding supported by Court (2003) and Shields (2005), who warned that there needed to be greater empirical evidence to judge its effectiveness on improving teaching and learning. Grace (1995, p. 65) sounded more than a word of warning when he commented that:

most head teachers are the operative school leaders and that few examples exist of serious organizational democracy, involving major decision making by head teachers in association with teachers, pupils and other school staff.

Leithwood & Jantzi (2000) also warned that hierarchical leadership which provided resources and support, and set the direction of the school was a necessary prerequisite for vertical teacher leadership which was also necessary to increase student engagement and achievement. According to Bennett, Wise, Woods and Harvey (2003), DPs/APs would have a central role in 'engaging more people in leadership activity (which) is at the core of distributed leadership in action' (p. 15).

There are few studies in New Zealand and internationally of how the role or DPs/APs think or conceptualise their roles, given the attention on these alternative models of leadership. Harris, Muijs and Crawford (2003) suggested that the concept of distributed leadership may help reconceptualise the role of the DP/AP from a traditional managerial focus to one in which responsibilities may be redefined and where DPs/APs are also involved in sharing in 'building culture and managing change' (p. 15). However, they warned that currently distributed leadership is a theoretical concept into which 'the role of the assistant/deputy principal is simply transposed' (p. 15), with little empirical understanding of the work of the DP/AP. They called for greater research to explore the exact nature of the relationship between school development and change, the leadership practice of deputy principals and where exactly they fit into these new conceptualisations of leadership practice. In arguing for greater democratic involvement for DPs/APs and a shift to a more authentic role in decision-making, we need to be mindful that any shifts may just reinforce existing power relationships and only slightly broaden traditional hierarchies. In this theoretical construct of leadership, principals not only share power and decision making with DPs/APs but with staff, students and teachers. In my study I am interested in exploring in more detail whether newly appointed DPs/APs share leadership and management with not only the principal but with others in the school.

Whereas earlier conceptions of instructional and transformational leadership tended to focus on the leadership of teachers and teaching as a way to improve student learning, a

more recent leadership discourse positions the principal as not only a leader of teachers but also of students and their learning. The central importance of principals as educational leaders of learning in their schools has received considerable attention in both the New Zealand literature (Cardno & Collett, 2004; Robinson, 2004) and international school leadership literature (Blasé & Blasé, 1998, 2000, Southworth, 2005), and acts as somewhat of a counterbalance to the dominant managerial discourse following the public sector reforms of the 1990s. Instructional leadership is still the term used extensively in the United States to describe the focus of leadership on what is happening in the classroom (Blasé & Blasé, 1998; Fullan, 2001a), while professional and educational leadership are also terms used to describe this emphasis on teaching and learning (Coleman, 2005; Southworth, 2005). While these terms are often used in New Zealand, curriculum leadership is more frequently used to describe the wide range of activities that is part of the leadership of teaching and learning (Cardno & Collett, 2004).

For some researchers and practitioners this focus on curriculum leadership has been conceptualised as leadership for learning or 'learning centred leadership' (Southworth, 2005). Southworth argued that this emerging discourse focused on learning and how students learn, has begun to challenge the discourse of teaching and what to teach, which dominated much of the 20th century. This leadership discourse, he commented, was more inclusive of curriculum leadership as it centred on learning and pedagogy. Both Gronn (2003) and Harris (2005) suggested that this leadership for learning theory is distributed in nature because it has the potential to involve adults and students in learning communities, which Lambert (2005) noted is not about 'leadership in a person, position, role and discrete set of skills' (p.94) but instead invited 'everyone into the action' (p. 94). Lambert also asserted that as leadership is the professional responsibility of everyone in the school therefore it is important that the leadership capacity of everyone must be developed in the organisation. Using Lambert's (2002) constructivist view of school leadership and what is known in the literature about their work, DPs/APs would need to have a much more 'broad-based, skilful participation in the work of leadership' not only of themselves but also with others in their schools (p. 38).

The notion of leadership for learning and distributed leadership has provided a conceptual framework for leadership development programmes in Britain, Australia and New Zealand (Earley & Weindling, 2004; Strachan et al., 2003) particularly for principals. London (2002) summed up this discourse when he said:

Leaders need to be continuous learners. Their jobs demand it, and their careers would be dead without it... Continuous learning is a frame of mind and a set of

behaviours that contribute to ongoing professional renewal and creation of opportunities. Continuous learners are self-directed and proactive about assessing the gaps in their knowledge and skills and finding and taking advantage of learning resources' (p. 251).

One argument given for the need to re-conceptualise school leadership has been the failure of increased accountability and reform to improve teaching and learning in any sustainable way (Elmore, 2000). Alongside this failure to improve student achievement has developed the understanding from school improvement studies that the principal as a transformational leader has had little direct causal link to improved student achievement. Rather, it is teacher leadership, which appears to be a major factor in improved student performance (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Fullan, 2001b; Harris, 2005). Robinson (2004) argued that principals in New Zealand secondary schools would need to reconceptualise their roles as curriculum leaders, if they are to effectively and realistically deal with the growing complexity of leading schools. Blasé and Blasé (2000) suggested that this curriculum leadership could be demonstrated by principals through 'maintaining teaching and learning as the paramount consideration underpinning decision-making' in their schools, share curriculum leadership, as well as ensure that the collaborative vision for teaching and learning in their school is achieved. Cardno and Collett (2004) noted that curriculum leadership was already delegated to many DPs/APs and middle leaders in large secondary schools, as it was unrealistic or unachievable for principals to be directly involved in all aspects of curriculum. They further argued that what needed to happen was that principals of secondary schools had to share direct leadership of curriculum more strategically with other senior and middle leaders if there was to be improved student achievement.

The notions of distributed and curriculum leading that I have been describing sit somewhat uneasily with the largely managerial nature of the work of DPs/APs that I identified in the literature review in Chapter One. In the next section I discuss how re-conceptualising the role of DP/AP could take place within these emerging leadership discourses.

SECTION FOUR: RE-CONCEPTUALISING THE WORK OF DPS/APS

In this section I briefly discuss a model to re-conceptualise the work of deputy principals. Harvey's model (1994), illustrated in Table 1, remains one of the few papers published that focuses entirely on a transformed role for DPs/APs.

Table 1: Traditional and Emergent Facets of the Deputy Principalship

Traditional	Emergent
<i>Purpose</i> - maintenance of organizational stability (organizational effectiveness)	<i>Purpose</i> - educational leadership that empowers teachers to improve student learning (instructional effectiveness)
<i>Emphasis</i> - support of principal, control of student behaviour	<i>Emphasis</i> - critical scrutiny of policy and practice, articulating shared perspectives and culture building, strategic thinking, managing change Planning, policy making, financial management <i>Emphasis</i> - identifying school purposes, establishing priorities
Staff management <i>Emphasis</i> - supervision, support	Staff management <i>Emphasis</i> - human resource development, enhancing professionalism Curriculum management <i>Emphasis</i> - development of courses to meet the needs of all categories of students, monitoring the quality of the teaching-learning process
Administrative routines <i>Emphasis</i> - control of resources, timetable and other schedules to co-ordinate school activities	
Students <i>Emphasis</i> - discipline, welfare	External relationships Accountability, school image
Classroom Teaching <i>Emphasis</i> - teaching and learning process	

(Harvey, 1994, p. 23)

I have included Harvey's model in this chapter for three reasons. Firstly, his conceptual framework was a response to the public sector reforms in Australia, which led to the development of self-managing schools in similar ways to New Zealand. It is one of the few studies that have considered the role and impact of DPs/APs in the reform of education. Secondly the study calls for DPs/APs to have a greater responsibility in teaching and learning, which echoes some of the emergent concepts of leadership that I have discussed previously in this chapter. Lastly, it asked schools, their principals and most importantly DPs/APs to challenge their own assumptions about leadership and examine more critically their own practices. Harvey's conceptual framework summarises the traditional views of DPs/APs that I outlined in Chapter One, but it also provides ways in which the position could be changed. Despite calls for the re-conceptualisation of the role of DPs/APs in schools which was an emergent theme in the literature described in

Chapter One, there are very few in-depth studies that model how this re-conceptualisation might occur.

Harvey (1994) observed that the 'move to greater local decision making about centrally determined policies' (p. 16) and the emergence of self-managing schools in Australia resulted in significant changes to principals' involvement in the operational and management aspects of their roles. However, he had not seen a corresponding change in how DPs conceptualised their jobs. He argued that DPs had a pivotal role in mediating the effects of mandated educational reform because of their position closer to teachers and students.

Harvey (1994) offered a comprehensive framework for how the position of deputy principal in Australia could be re-conceptualised. If adopted, he argued, it would transform the position from a wasted resource to one where deputy principals would demonstrate educational leadership as part of their everyday job. Central to his model was the restructuring of the position so that there was a much greater balance between the management and organisational imperatives of DPs/APs and a greater focus on teaching and learning. Of critical importance in Harvey's model (1994) was the interdependent relationship between leadership and management. He argued that it was how management tasks were conceptualised and given value and importance that needed to be challenged rather than replaced altogether, a view supported by MacBeath (1994) and Sergiovanni (1991).

He noted that often DPs had better understandings of 'the professional needs of teachers and educational needs of students' (p. 18) than principals and suggested that membership of a collaborative team would enhance the contribution of deputy principals. Harris, Muijs and Crawford (2003) echoed these elements of Harvey's emergent framework and called for a more distributed view of the position with the deputy principal 'in partnership with the head teacher within the leadership team' (p. 10), working together to develop the school vision for improving student learning. Although Harvey talked about instructional leadership, his model advocated some transformational leadership practices because he highlighted the ways in which DPs would contribute to developing more effective schools because they would have a central role in leading learning and influencing the practice of teachers.

The strength of Harvey's model was that it provided a conceptual framework for how deputy principals viewed their role rather than merely a list of tasks they should do. By

asking deputy principals to reflect on and critique what they were doing and why they were doing it, Harvey argued it was necessary to develop a sense of professional identity, which had been lost in the 'brevity and fragmentation ... of their professional lives' (p. 22). A move towards more distributed leadership also underpins this emergent professional identity, which Harvey observed would be developed by shared responsibility for both professional and organisational tasks of the school within the senior management team, and creates a central leadership role for the deputy principal in other curriculum teams within the school. However, he stopped short of advocating more democratic models of leadership as described by Court (2001) or Lambert (2005).

Harvey (1994) accepted that this re-conceptualisation would not be easy and that for many deputy principals and others in schools it would involve a paradigm shift from one of leadership as a form of control by the principal, to one of empowerment of colleagues. Although he identified the critical role of principals in sharing educational leadership and enhancing the professional growth of their DPs, he urged deputy principals to use his emergent model as a way to challenge their own assumptions about leadership, examine more critically their own practices and share ways that this model had been successfully allied and developed in some schools. Mertz (2000) observed that because of the preoccupation of this group with organisational stability 'the compartmentalization and specialization of duties is an expression of a structuralist organizational paradigm... and a powerful means of role socialization' (p. 10). For these reasons Mertz noted that this critical examination of their traditional professional identity might be very slow.

Over a decade later Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004) highlighted the need for more critical acceptance of Harvey's (1994) model, which they recognised as a more holistic attempt to interpret a traditional role in changing times and recognised:

The potential to counter the deficiencies of the traditional and historical views of the role, reframe the relationship between the deputy principal and other significant stakeholders within the school, and potentially enhance their professional contribution to school effectiveness (p. 240).

However, they warned there was still a great need for senior management teams to address the issues raised in Harvey's (1994) emergent framework as well as provide the necessary professional development to equip deputy principals with the appropriate skills and abilities needed to work as both leaders and managers. Marshall and Hooley (2006) warned that unless there was a re-conceptualisation of traditional assumptions about hierarchy, leadership and the 'fundamental purposes of schooling' (p. 142) then

there was a danger of quick fix approaches that only 'repair minor problems' (p. 120) and have little or no impact on existing work and the place of DPs/APs in schools.

Little is known about the ways in which DPs/APs develop their understandings about leadership and management, or develop what Harvey (1994) called a professional identity. To the most part this appears to occur through the development of an individual's career; by moving up the ranks from classroom teacher, to experienced teacher, to HOD and then into senior management (Coleman, 2002; Su, Gammage & Mininberg (2003). There is little understanding, however, about how DPs/APs view their work before they come into the job, while they are in the first stages of their new work or how their understandings and practice of leadership and management change with a little time in the job. These are the important research areas for investigation in this current study. Having reviewed the leadership concepts, theories and developments relevant to the research questions that emerged in chapter one, I now describe the methodology and research design that was used to explore these questions.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Marshall (1993) has argued that the most important 'unanswered question in the position' (p.3) is how do DPs/APs derive meaning and purpose from their work? That central question underpins this study of recently appointed New Zealand DPs/APs. I have chosen a qualitative case study research design. In the first section of this chapter I will outline the reasons why a qualitative research method was chosen and then discuss the strengths and limitations of the chosen case study approach. In the second section I outline the research design, explaining the data collection and the process of data analysis. I then identify research issues particularly focusing on the role of the researcher, issues of trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

METHODOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES

Qualitative research

Creswell, (1994, p. 21) aptly stated:

One of the chief reasons for conducting a qualitative study is that it is exploratory; not much has been written about the topic or population studied, and the researcher seeks to listen to informants and to build a picture based on their ideas.

The research question that emerged from my review of the literature in Chapter One guided my choice of a qualitative as opposed to a quantitative research methodology for this study. Qualitative research seeks the emergence of and/or building of patterns and themes from the participants' own realities and in their own words, rather than identifying themes in a deductive way from testing existing theoretical frameworks (Patton, 1990). The inductive approach of qualitative research is most appropriate because there was little previous research into the perceptions or experiences of DPs/APs. Thus my priority was to listen to the voices, understand the experiences of a small group of practitioners and the meanings they bring to them, and identify any themes or patterns that might emerge (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). As Patton (1990) suggested, these themes or patterns could be explored further, and could help to explain or lead to greater understandings of the working lives of newly appointed DPs/APs in New Zealand secondary schools.

As this study explores the participants' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions about their work as leaders and managers, a qualitative methodology enables the exploration of these perceptions with a focus on 'discovery, insight and understanding' (Merriam, 1998, p. 1). Qualitative research provides a way of investigating perceptions based on the belief that there are multiple realities and that the world is not objective but a function of personal interaction and perception (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992). The 'meanings' of this research come from the participants' interpretations of the work they do; from their perspectives. It is subjective and it is their voice that is important to hear in this research study (Creswell, 2002) Thus information collected by the qualitative researcher is usually rich and descriptive and is most often reported in the participants' own words (Merriam, 1998). Words are important in qualitative research, they can be 'organized to permit the researcher to contrast, compare, analyze and bestow patterns upon them' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 7). This contrasts with quantitative research with its emphasis on instrumental rationality and numbers, where reality is viewed as stable, observable and measurable (Scott & Usher, 1999).

In a qualitative study the researcher is the main research instrument in collecting data. In my study the relationship is one of interaction with the participants (Miles & Huberman, 1999), and as an "insider" seeking to make sense of personal experiences, beliefs, understandings and perceptions (Merriam, 1998). As a newly appointed Deputy Principal in 1993 there were no professional courses or professional reading that I could access that were specifically focused on my new role. I learnt how to do the new work on the job. Ten years later in my new role as a leadership and management facilitator, a role that had not existed in 1993, I was required to support newly appointed DPs/APs. I was frustrated by the absence of specific literature about the role to help me and the invisibility of the DP/AP role was accentuated by the growing emphasis in the educational leadership literature about the importance of the principal. Thus my professional experience and huge admiration for the work done by this un-sung group of people were important reasons why I wanted to explore from an academic perspective this group of school leaders. A qualitative approach supported my purpose of understanding the perspectives of this group of school leaders. This contrasts with quantitative research where the researcher remains independent of those being researched (Scott & Usher, 1999).

As my study seeks to explore an area where there is little previous research a predominant concern was 'to chose the approach that best addresses the questions asked' (Coleman & Briggs, 2002, pp. 24-25). I now discuss the case study research

approach, and why I chose it for my study, highlighting its benefits as well and its limitations.

CASE STUDY RESEARCH APPROACH

Definition and purposes

Case study research is most often linked to an interpretative paradigm with a focus on social processes and a belief that individuals interacting in their worlds construct reality – it is generally qualitative and analysed inductively in the view of many researchers (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 2005). It has no ascribed methods of data collection and analysis although some methods such as interviews and observations are more often favoured over others (Denscombe, 2003). Everything from purpose, types, uses, methodologies and strengths and weaknesses of a case study approach are highly contested and reflect the multiple perspectives and complexities of this research strategy (Anderson, 1998, Merriam, 1998).

Researchers often use case study because it aims to 'get under the skin of a group to find out what really happens...to view the case from the inside out: to see it from the perspective of those involved' (Gillham, 2000 p. 11). While there is little agreement about the exact nature of case study, Bassey (1999, p. 58) gave a broad definition of educational case study as

a empirical enquiry which is conducted within a localized boundary of space and time into interesting aspects of educational activity or programmes, or institutions or systems, mainly in its natural context and within an ethic of respect for persons.

This view is supported by Yin (2003), who stressed the use of a case study approach in naturalistic settings, and Burns (2000), who said that a case study approach allowed the investigation to, 'retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events' (p. 46). Educational case study was developed to understand some of the processes of education, which Anderson (1998) argued needed to be 'flexible, adaptable to changes in circumstances and an evolving context' (p. 69). Merriam (1998) also emphasised its 'intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit' (p. 32) and described the advantages of a wide variety of research approaches and methods such as surveys, video recordings, audiotaped interviews and observations.

Justification for a case study approach

A case study research design offers many advantages in my study. I wanted to focus on how DPs/APs understood and experienced leadership and management in the real life context of schools. Case studies frequently ask how and why questions (Yin, 2003), and contain 'thick, rich description' (Merriam, 1998, p. 38). Dixon, Bouma and Atkinson (1991, p. 107) succinctly commented: 'the aim of case study is description. What is going on here?' while Bouma (2000) stressed the advantage of case study in contributing knowledge and understanding of a particular phenomenon rather than data or theory at the end of a research process. Therefore, an exploratory, descriptive case study framework can be used, which is aimed at understanding and describing the world of newly appointed DPs/APs.

Denscombe (2003) described the "case" in case study as focusing on a 'particular phenomenon with a view to providing an in-depth account of events' (p. 32), The case in my research is a group of newly appointed secondary DPs/APs and the phenomenon being explored is their understandings and experiences of their work at the start of their new work and after a few months in their new positions. As Stake (1995) has pointed out case study is not only about process of learning about the case, but is also 'the product of that learning' (p. 237). I planned my study to begin with a general exploration and description of forty DPs/APs to see what I could learn. Although I have identified four studies of secondary DPs/APs since 1983, I could identify none that have specifically focused on newly appointed DPs/APs and their understandings, attitudes and early practice of leading and managing.

Strengths and limitations of case studies

Despite the suitability of a case study research design for my study there are issues identified in the use of this approach (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; 2000). Most of these issues are discussed in the last section of this chapter and focus on the role of the researcher, and issues of reliability, validity and trustworthiness. Another common criticism of case study is that results may not be generalisable as they are unique and cannot ever be exactly replicated (Scott & Usher, 1999). As this study is exploratory, its purpose is not to generalize but to understand and describe the experiences of the participants of this particular study. I acknowledge that the identification of any patterns or themes is tentative.

The research design

I used questionnaires and interviews as the two main methods of data collection to help ensure the robustness of the study (Denscombe, 2002; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003). As Patton (1990) explained 'multiple sources of information are sought and used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective' (p. 244).

A small-scale questionnaire was designed to explore the perceptions of a group of newly appointed DPs/APs, and to help with 'identifying any central themes to explore further' (Patton, 1990, p. 54). This first phase of the design was 'focused on the researcher's perspective' (Robson, 2002, p. 372) as the questionnaire contained questions that I wanted to know. The questionnaire was designed to produce data 'to help provide a general picture and understanding of the research problem' (Creswell, 2002, p. 566) and capture 'a snapshot of the wider population' (Cohen et al., p. 17). As well, it allowed me to identify six participants for the second phase of the research, during which I wanted to explore in more depth perspectives of six of the questionnaire respondents. The third phase of the research used a follow-up questionnaire sent to the participants who had filled in the first questionnaire. This enabled me to further compare and contrast their perceptions about leadership and management, particularly how these might be endorsed or changed after some experience in the job and to confirm any emergent findings. By relying mainly on qualitative data from the questionnaires and through semi-structured interviews of six first-time DPs/APs I planned to 'retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events' (Burns, 2000, p. 313), which is characteristic of qualitative case studies.

Questionnaire design and application

Questionnaires have several advantages as they allow the efficient collection of both qualitative and quantitative data. According to Jenkins (1999, p. 1);

A well-constructed survey enables us to gather a wide range of information on a topic and to measure or quantify our results. Surveys can be used to describe, to explain, to explore, to predict and to evaluate.

Although questionnaires are often regarded as the important component of survey research and therefore linked to quantitative data collection techniques (de Vaus, 2001), they are also used in qualitative research to collect both factual information and participants' perceptions, opinions, attitudes, beliefs and aspirations (Bell, 1999).

Denscombe (2003) argued that they can 'incorporate as wide and as inclusive data as possible' (p. 159).

Questionnaires are regarded as a most appropriate, efficient and economical way of gathering information from a geographically dispersed area (Denscombe, 2003) and when there is a large group of respondents (Cohen et al., 2000). As little was known about the group of school leaders in this study, including their numbers, and they were appointed to schools throughout New Zealand, a questionnaire asking both factual and more open ended questions could be effectively distributed in many different locations (Denscombe, 2003). The questionnaires had further advantages in that they were completed at the participants' convenience, providing greater opportunities for them to think about their responses and with less opportunity for interference or bias from the presence of the researcher (Bell, 1999). However, they do not offer opportunities for further probing or clarification of responses, or the opportunities to collect additional information. Partial responses are characteristic (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).

The first questionnaire (see Appendix 1) asked for important demographical data about who the participants were, their backgrounds and the type of schools they worked in, which Anderson (1998) suggested 'often supplements qualitative findings by exposing information that might otherwise remain a mystery' (p. 182). However, because the objective of the second part of this questionnaire was to identify participants' views on the topic and to help shape the next stage of the research process, it was not suitable for, or aimed at, providing data for a valid statistical analysis. From this first questionnaire I also identified six DPs/APs to be interviewed in order to understand more deeply their perceptions about leading and managing in their schools.

The second questionnaire was administered when the participants were six months into their new jobs (see Appendix 2). Open-ended questions were used in this questionnaire to allow participants to have their say about their experiences six months into their new work and 'to reflect the full richness and complexity' of these views (Denscombe, 2003, p. 156). It also allowed me to compare and contrast participants' perceptions about leadership and management particularly how these might be endorsed or changed after some experience in the job and to confirm emergent findings.

The construction of both questionnaires, which mainly sought to understand perceptions, feelings and beliefs, was as Bouma and Atkinson (1999) commented 'much more complex than asking facts' (p. 69). Designing questionnaires is both time consuming and

difficult (Denscombe, 2003). Therefore, before my questionnaires were sent to participants, the questions were reviewed by committee members of ASDAPA and piloted with two DPs/APs who were not involved in this study. The aim of this trial was to help identify any themes or issues that had not been covered in my draft questionnaires and help ensure the rigour and quality of the data collected (Cohen et al., 2000). It allowed me to check that the questions were fit for purpose as well as to test their clarity (Babbie, 2004). I particularly wanted to check that only questions essential to research were asked as consideration needed to be given to the amount of time taken to complete the questionnaire. The questions needed to be 'unambiguous, specific and relevant to the topic' (Piggot Irvine, 2001, p. 46). This pilot study also helped to refine the instrument and data collection procedures (Jenkins, 1999) as well as to assess the responses for coding, data processing and analysis (Merriam, 1998).

The pilot DPs/APs provided important written feedback on my wording of the questions and the layout of the questionnaire. As a result there were changes made to two of the questions to ensure there were more clear and concise instructions. Feedback from a pilot DP noted, 'the questions are easy to answer on the whole and seem to provide you with the information you say you need'.

The first self-completion postal questionnaire (See Appendix 1) was sent early in Term 1, 2006 to every newly appointed DP/AP whose positions were advertised in the *New Zealand Education Gazette* (forty-seven in total). The covering letter sent with the questionnaire requested the newly appointed DP/AP's participation in the research as well as outlining the purpose of the study, the second and third phases of the study, approximately how long the questionnaire would take to complete, issues around confidentiality and the voluntary nature of the survey (See Appendix 3). The questionnaire also included a Participant Consent Form (see Appendix 4). The letter included a pre-paid, self-addressed envelope for participants to return the questionnaire and consent form. Each questionnaire was coded with an identification number, which was assigned to each respondent. A master list accessible only to the researcher was stored separately from the completed questionnaire with the name and address of each participant. This enabled me to identify and contact the six participants for phase two of the study as well as allowing me to check off the returning questionnaires and to make a second mail-out more efficient and accurate. The questionnaire was re-sent to 16 participants who had not responded by the beginning at the end of April 2006. Five additional questionnaires were returned as a result of this second mail out bringing the

total response to 40 or 85%. This response rate is much higher than the average 20% response in postal surveys cited by Bell (1999) and Denscombe (2003).

A second self-completion postal questionnaire was administered when the participants were six months into the job (see Appendix 2). This shorter questionnaire was sent to only 31 DPs/APs at the beginning of August, 2006, as nine of those who completed the first questionnaire stated that they did not wish to participate any further in the study. A covering letter was sent with the questionnaire explaining the nature of this questionnaire (See Appendix 5). Only 23 of the 31 questionnaires were returned completed, despite a second mail-out that was sent at the end of September 2006. Two participants who did not complete the second questionnaire gave reasons for their non-response. One did not have the time as she was in an Acting Principal role while the other wrote that she had decided on a career change and was leaving teaching. Despite the lower response rate, this second questionnaire provided the opportunity to understand how DPs/APs were experiencing their work after six months in the position.

The participants

Initially I planned to send the written questionnaire to all newly appointed DPs/APs in the Auckland, Waikato and Northland regions who were to take up their positions at the beginning of 2006, because these were areas convenient for me to access from Auckland. Schools who were to appoint new DPs/APs were identified through the *New Zealand Education Gazette*, which advertises educational positions throughout New Zealand every two weeks. However, I decided to extend the questionnaire to all newly appointed DPs/APs throughout New Zealand, 47 in all, when I realised that the initial sample of 29 in my selected areas might be too small. Denscombe (2003) noted that as postal questionnaires generally only have a 20% response rate, larger mailings were needed to ensure a representative cross-section of those being sampled.

In the second phase of the study I used in-depth, semi-structured interviews with six participants. As Merriam (1998) stated the aim is to 'discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore (the researcher) must select a sample from which the most can be learnt' (p. 61). I planned to identify those participants whose responses seemed particularly interesting or worth exploring further. I wanted also to interview a representative sample of three men and three women, from different school settings and types. Participants in two rural and four urban schools, as well as four co-educational and two single sex and one independent school were selected. Cost of travel was a practical reason that limited my choice of participants to those in the North Island.

The personal and educational backgrounds, as well as the types of schools to which the six interviewees were appointed is summarised in the table below.

Table 2: Background of Interviewees and Their Schools

Participant	Age	Units	Years Teaching	Community Roll	Decile	School Type
Sue – DP Female	40-49	10+	16 - 20	Urban 1201+	10	Single Sex Girls/Private
Jill – AP Female	40-49	4 - 6	16 - 20	Urban 801-1200	10	Single Sex Girls/State
Mary – AP Female	30-39	4 - 6	11 - 15	Urban 1201+	3	Co-ed State
Mark- DP Male	40-49	4 - 6	16 - 20	Rural 801 -1200	5	Co-ed State
Phil – AP Male	30-39	4 - 6	11 -15	Urban 1201+	3	Co-ed State
John –DP Male	30-39	4– 6	11 -15	Rural 801-1200	3	Co-ed State

Interview design and application

A major advantage of an interview is to 'reveal things which are only touched on in a questionnaire' (Wiersma, 2002, p. 179). For my study the interview was planned as an important data collection method because unlike survey research it would allow me:

to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe... how people have organized the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about those things (Patton, 1990, p. 72).

The interviews were semi-structured using an interview guide approach with open-ended questions (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 1990) in order to acknowledge the value of the subjective account of the participant. The interview guide (see Appendix 6) provided a focus for the interview as well as allowing flexibility for me to probe and ask further questions and the participant to answer and tell stories. The use of some pre-determined questions was also planned to allow for some comparisons to be made from the information gathered from different participants. It is acknowledged though that comparisons will always be incomplete. While the questions were asked in the same order, there were some additional question prompts and different responses by each participant (Denscombe, 2003). It is acknowledged that during the interview process there is a possibility that participants did not answer openly and honestly (Patton, 1990), especially about challenges and difficulties that they might face in their new positions.

According to Patton (1990) interviews rely on the influence and skill of the interviewer to gain quality information. Anderson (1998) warned that a skilful interviewer must establish a strong rapport with the participant quickly and demonstrate attentive behaviour throughout the interview by active listening and a non-threatening demeanor. Lankshear & Knobel (2004) suggested that it is often the ability of the interviewer that encourages participants to 'open-up', but they warned that an interview will not capture everything that participants think and feel or believe, but rather is an incomplete snapshot at a particular moment of time. However, the use of open-ended questions allowed each participant to talk about their own experiences in their own time and manner, and provide more detail if they wished (Coleman & Briggs, 2002).

The in-depth interviews with the six participants identified from the first questionnaire allowed me to probe and explore their ideas and perceptions as well as allowing me the opportunity to gain deeper understandings of ideas, reactions and experiences. There were opportunities also to ask follow up questions related to particular responses or ask for elaboration or redefinition if a response was incomplete or ambiguous (Fontana and Frey, 1994). The interview process also reflected the less formal and more flexible relationship between myself, and these six participants, which is characteristic of qualitative research (Yin, 2003).

My ability to interview was enhanced by my carrying out prior to the study, pilot face-to-face interviews using the interview guide, with two DPs/APs who were not part of this research. As interviews are conducted in a social, interactive environment involving human relationships and emotions, it is likely during the course of an interview that unconscious distortion or exaggeration of responses might take place (Merriam, 1998). As a novice interviewer I attempted through the use of a pilot interview to reduce inaccurate interpretation but acknowledge that I will never completely eliminate it. The pilot interviews allowed me to experience elements of the process and also allowed for refinement of the interview questions although the intent of the questions was not changed in any significant way. Valuable feedback was given to me not only on the type of questions I asked but on my interviewing skills and as a result I became much clearer and more succinct in explaining the purpose of the research, clarifying individual questions and following up on incomplete or interesting responses or comments. It also gave me practice in using the recording device so that the following interviews were much more relaxed and non-threatening from my point of view.

These six interviews lasted between 45 and 60 minutes at a location of the participants' choice. Two participants were interviewed in their own homes, while the other four asked for the interviews to be conducted in their school offices because of the convenience. With the permission of the participants the interviews were audio-taped to ensure accuracy and provide direct quotations for in-depth data analysis. The audio taping of interviews also minimised the potential to distort the vast amounts of data, obtained during interviews (Bell, 1999). The audio taping plus additional notes made during and after the interviews allowed for cross-checking for accuracy and for clarification purposes. The audiotapes were transcribed and sent to the individual participants for correction, addition, deletion and feedback. The names of each of the participants were changed in order to maintain anonymity. The transcripts provided much interesting material about the experiences, feelings, opinions and perceptions of the participants about their work as DPs/APs.

Data analysis

Data analysis and interpretation began as soon as the first questionnaires arrived because as Miles and Huberman (1994) pointed out, data analysis of early data collected helps to generate strategies for collecting new and often better data. Issues became apparent almost immediately including how to make sense of huge volumes of data, which Patton (1990, p. 432) asserted,

Involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting trivia from significance, identifying significant patterns, and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal.

The analysis of data was an on-going process that began with me reading through the phase one questionnaires, making notes and underlining interesting comments. To some extent the data was already sorted into categories by nature of the questions but because this questionnaire was essentially qualitative in nature the comments in each section needed to be divided into sub-categories. Keywords that were repeated were underlined and recorded in a Word document on the computer. This first analysis followed Merriam's description (1998) of the speculative or tentative stage of the data analysis process. As more questionnaires were analysed the emergent categories were refined and the emergent themes re-considered several times, which corresponded to Merriam's second stage of the analysis process. These were coded further manually with quotes being added alongside the identified themes, which marked the third conceptual stage of Merriam's (1998) data analysis process (see Appendix 7)

During the coding process of the first questionnaire, tables were developed which summarized demographical data about each participant's position, teaching background, qualifications, and number of management units. This was seen as important because the study was a process of discovery, towards new insights into how DPs/APs viewed their work as leaders and managers. These insights could not be understood thoroughly if isolated from their contexts. The coding of responses was an important part of shaping the next phase of the study as the responses in the questionnaire were used to review the interview guide. A second part of the process at this stage was the identification of the six participants for phase two of the study, the in-depth interviews. Here I looked for commonalities and differences that might provide deeper insights into understanding how DPs/APs thought about their work as leaders and managers.

As noted earlier, each of the six interviews was audio-taped and transcribed. My data analysis began straight after the first interview as I reviewed the interview guide and included some additional questions. Each transcribed interview was then read with significant words and phrases identified and underlined and numbered. These numbers corresponded to the categories and themes identified from the first questionnaire. I was mindful that data could be used in different categories and in different ways (see Appendix 8). Inclusive coding categories were used where data provided several interpretations. For example, participants often used the terms leadership and management synonymously as well as giving examples that could fit either category. I also searched data for patterns and themes centring on similarities and differences in the participants' responses. This was an iterative process and as I reflected further some data was modified and rejected as the themes became stronger. Bassegy (2002) described this as a process 'which continues until the researcher feels confident that the analytical statements or themes are trustworthy' (p. 71).

I repeated a similar process with the follow-up questionnaires, underlining key words, identifying categories, coding and recoding information. As strong patterns and themes began to emerge these were verified by triangulation with data from the first questionnaire and with the interviews. I also compared these emergent themes with the themes already identified in the conceptual and research literature. The aim of using these three approaches in developing the central themes to be discussed in my analysis was the production of 'thick description' (Merriam, 1998), which is a characteristic and strength of qualitative research.

Research issues in this study

This section discusses some important research issues that influence this study, acknowledges the role of the researcher in the case study, describe how issues of reliability and trustworthiness have been achieved, describes the ethical principles that underpin the study, and finally I discuss how those have been implemented.

The role of the researcher

A major criticism of case study and indeed qualitative research is that it is too subjective and relies too much on the objectivity and skill of the researcher (Stake, 1995). Qualitative researchers, however, place the researcher in the centre of the action and argue that it is this that is the strength of qualitative work (Wolcott, 1990) and the only way to capture the subtlety and complexity of human beings Denzin & Lincoln (1994). My own perspectives and experiences as a deputy principal colour every part of this research process. I argue that they have been beneficial in understanding and explaining the perspectives of DPs/APs who have participated in this study. They are an important characteristic of qualitative research and as Strauss (1987, cited in Court (1989) contended, 'Mine your experiences. There's potential gold in there' (p. 56).

Needless to say it is important to recognize the potential for bias at every stage of the research process and I acknowledge that it will have influenced this study, as I am the primary instrument for collecting and analyzing the data (Merriam, 1998). To limit researcher influence I have sought to strengthen the trustworthiness, validity and reliability of the research process (Bush, 2002) through the triangulation of data across multiple sources of evidence, and through the adherence to ethical principles, which I outline in the following sections.

Issues of reliability, validity and trustworthiness

Bush (2002) noted that that 'validity, reliability and triangulation are all important and complex terms whose meaning and salience varies according to the stance of the researcher' (p. 59). Despite those who criticize the interpretive, qualitative approach used in this study, case study research should aim for the 'same degree of reliability and validity as any good research method' (Anderson, 1998, p. 157) and be conducted ethically.

Reliability generally refers to the probability that any research findings can be replicated by asking the same questions about the same issue following a similar research design

(Merriam, 1998). Certainly this study could be conducted with another group of newly appointed DPs/APs using the same questionnaire and interview guide but what cannot be replicated is the participants' perceptions. This research is a snapshot of a particular group of people, newly appointed DPs/APs in 2006 at a particular point in time. Burns (2000) has argued that replication in case study is impossible, as asking the same questions of different participants during interviews will result in differences because each participant is unique. What is more important according to Lincoln & Guba (2000) is that the findings of a qualitative study such as this one make sense to an outsider and are consistent and trustworthy.

Trustworthiness rather than validity is used in this study 'to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon which it is intended to describe' (Bush, 2002). Because this case study uses both semi-structured interviews and questionnaires for data collection, a process of cross checking and corroboration enhances its trustworthiness. This triangulation of information across the questionnaires and interviews, using comparison and contrast showed me whether analysis of data led in the same direction (Stake, 2000). Participants who were interviewed were given the opportunity to check their transcripts to expand on any their responses, comments or observations, which they felt had not been fully covered in the interview and to give permission for the use of their material (See Appendix 9).

Because of its exploratory nature this study does not rely on statistical data for the purposes of generalization and any emergent themes are tentative in nature and need further exploration (Stake, 2000). However, the richness of the data in the study should allow the reader the opportunity to reach his or her own 'high quality understandings' (Stake, 1995, p. 88). As Merriam (1998) suggested, the results of any study should be judged by its ability to extend our understanding about the particular research question posed.

Ethical issues

'As with any research design, the researcher...will need to attend to the matters of confidentiality, privacy, avoidance of harm to participants, and informed consent' (de Vaus, 2001, p. 192). Because of the nature of case study investigation, with the close researcher-participant relationship, the often personal nature of the data collected, and the dissemination of findings, an adherence to ethical principles in every aspect of research is very important. My study was conducted in accordance with the Massey University Human Ethics Committee (MUHEC) requirements, which include the major

principles outlined in the ethics code: informed consent; confidentiality; minimization of harm and truthfulness.

Informed written consent from each participating DP/AP was obtained and documented before the study began (see Appendix 4). An information sheet was constructed and sent to each of the 47 DPs/APs who were identified as beginning new positions at the start of 2006. This information sheet clearly introduced myself as the researcher, explained the purposes of the research (Denscombe, 2003) and included an explanation of the three research phases: phase one explained the questionnaire, the approximate time it would take to complete as well as who it was being sent to; phase two outlined the selection processes for the six participants who would be interviewed face-to-face, and how the interview would be conducted while phase three outlined the follow-up questionnaire, when it would be sent and approximately how long it would take to complete. Because all participants have a right to freedom and self-determination this information sheet clarified issues of withdrawal from the study, which was at any time of the participant's choosing, the right not to answer questions and the right to ask any questions of the researcher (See Appendix 3). Participant consent was obtained in two ways: Firstly through a consent form to take part in the study. This consent form covered the three phases of the study separately and gave participants the opportunity to take part in any of the three phases. Secondly, an authority for the release of the tape transcripts was completed by the six interviewees, who had the opportunity to read the transcripts of the tapes, and give permission for their release (See Appendix 9).

Confidentiality is the main technique used to protect *privacy* and I took a number of steps to ensure that the identity of participants and their schools was safeguarded. In this study I could not guarantee anonymity. As the questionnaire in the first phase of the study was used to select the six participants in the second phase of the research, the questionnaires could not remain anonymous unless participants chose not to volunteer for the second phase of the study. However, as far as possible I kept the completed questionnaires confidential by using a numbered code held by myself in a secure place. Only when the six-sub cases were chosen for the second phase of the study was there a need during my analysis to identify these six participants by name. These interviews were conducted with participants who had given informed consent as described above. A transcriber was used to transcribe the six interviews that were then collated by me (see Appendix 10, Transcriber Confidentiality Agreement). Care was taken in my writing up to maintain the anonymity of each of these participants and their schools by using a

non de plume e.g. Participant 1. After the research was concluded the list of names and corresponding numbers was destroyed.

Avoidance of harm to the participants was minimized through allowing the interviewees to clarify, amend or withdraw any aspect of the research with which they feel uncomfortable (Bell, 1999). According to Cohen et al., (2000) the dignity, privacy and interests of the participants must come first and no harm should arise from their participation in the research. A copy of the transcribed interviews was sent to each of these participants. I needed to carefully consider the relationship of researcher and participant, issues of power relationships and any possible conflict of interest. As a Leadership and Management Facilitator in the first three months of 2006 at TEAM Solutions, part of my role was to provide professional support for any first-time DPs/APs in the Auckland area as requested by them or their principal. Even though my role later changed I decided to avoid any conflict of interest by selecting six participants outside of my regional work place. This avoided me being asked to support one of the participants in their professional role or their attendance at any professional development courses run by me.

Truthfulness is related to trustworthiness of the research. The need to be as objective as possible is fundamentally important at every level of the research because as noted earlier 'the researcher is the primary instrument for data collection, data have been filtered through his or her particular theoretical position and biases' (Merriam, 1998, p. 216). Most importantly I attempted to ensure the truthfulness of the research by sending back transcripts to participants for review, by clear explanations of the purposes of the research, both written and verbal, and by the triangulation of multiple sources of data.

Other issues

One important issue which has affected my research study that needs to be acknowledged was my decision to ask for leave from completing this thesis for part of 2006 because of the pressures of taking up a new management position. Although I continued and completed the data collection stage of the research process during 2006 as indicated in this methodology chapter and did some analysis of the phase one questionnaire, I started but did not complete the analysis of the interviews or phase three questionnaire in that year. Miles & Huberman (1994) asserted that analysis of data in a qualitative research design should occur simultaneously with data collection, as data analysis of early data collected helps to generate strategies for collecting new and often better data. While this happened following the return of the first questionnaire, I do

acknowledge Merriam's (1998) warning to case study researchers about the need to start analysis in conjunction with data collection 'as a meaningful analysis of data will not be possible if analysis is begun after the data is collected' (p. 173). My perception is that the time off did affect some of the organising and refining (expanding, eliminating and reframing) of the data collection or what Watling (2002) calls 'formative analysis'. However, most of the process of creating categories and coding had been completed.

In the next two chapters I present my findings for all three phases of the research design.

CHAPTER FOUR

CHANGE, CHALLENGE, ADJUSTMENT AND ACCEPTANCE: QUESTIONNAIRE ONE RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the results of the phase one questionnaire (see Appendix 1), which was completed by 40 secondary DPs/APs at the beginning of their appointments to their new positions. As explained in Chapter Three, all secondary schools that advertised for a DP or AP in the New Zealand Education Gazette, commencing in term one or two, 2006 were sent the questionnaire. The very high return rate of the first phase questionnaire is illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Total Number of DPs/APs Surveyed and Questionnaires returned

Number of Questionnaires	47
Questionnaires Returned	40
Percentage Returned	85

According to Denscombe (2003), and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), postal questionnaires such as the one I used, typically have a response rate as low as 20%. Although generalisation in the statistical sense of the word is not an aim of my study, responses from forty participants does add weight to the tentative themes that I identify in this and the following chapter. The high return increases the strength of the study, as 'the aim of good research is to keep such non-responses to a minimum and to achieve the highest response rate that is possible' (Denscombe, 2003, p. 19). It also provided a large enough group to identify six participants for the next phase of the study, which I report and discuss in Chapter Five.

This chapter is divided into three sections. The first section describes the general characteristics of the 40 newly appointed DPs/APs. It provides rich data about the participants, including their personal and educational backgrounds as well as the types of schools in which they have taken up their new appointments. The second section analyses the responses to the questions, which asked how these 40 newly appointed

DPs/APs experienced and understood their work as leaders and managers as they took up their new positions in 2006. DPs/APs highlighted four themes as they took up these positions: change, challenge, adjustment and acceptance. I then summarise in section three the main ways in which DPs/APs understood their work as leaders and managers as they took up their new positions.

SECTION ONE: BACKGROUNDS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THIS GROUP OF DPS/APS

In this first section I report and discuss the position titles of the DPs/APs; their differences in relation to their gender, ages, size and type of school and number of management units; their ethnicity; teaching experiences; prior leadership and management experience; and their qualifications.

Title of position

I have built my study on the earlier work of Graham and Smith in 1999, which I described in Chapter Two. However, since these studies, many self-managing schools have restructured their senior management teams and consequently developed their own understandings and even language used about the DP/AP position (PPTA, 1997). Schools can now use any term they wish to describe a senior position within the school. In their 2006 registration of membership, NASDAP identified fifteen different titles used by schools to describe the position (NASDAP, 2003). For that reason I am cautious about differentiating the position of deputy principal from that of assistant principal in this study. Despite these changes most newly appointed participants used the term DP or AP as their title, even if they understand the nature of the position in different ways.

As illustrated in Table 4, the position deputy principal is held by two thirds of the 40 participants, while most others hold the position of assistant principal. It was difficult to compare the data collected from the 40 participants with national data, as national statistics about DP/AP positions has not been collected since 1996 (PPTA, 1997). Two individuals, who identified themselves as associate principal and head of senior school, provide some evidence of restructuring of senior management teams. Some of the participants in my study also indicated in the later part of questionnaire that they were part of a more flattened management team with a number of DPs operating at the same level. Others indicated that they were still part of a traditional hierarchical structure with the principal at the top, followed by a DP, then an AP.

Table 4:

Name of Position Held by Participants

	Males	Females
Assistant Principal	6	6
Deputy Principal	10	16
Associate Principal	1	-
Head of Senior School	1	-
Total:	18	22

Gender

As also illustrated in Table 4 above, slightly more females were appointed to deputy principal positions than males in 2006, although the position of assistant principal was held by equal numbers of males and females. In my study the proportion of women and men who have been appointed to DP/AP positions in 2006 reflected the national statistics about gender of teachers but not the national statistics for those holding management units (Statistics are collected for all holders of management units in schools, including DPs/APs). In 2006, 58% of all secondary teachers were women and 42% were men. However, equal numbers of males and females held management units in secondary schools in that year (MoE, 2006). This under-representation of women in middle and senior management and their over representation as teachers has been identified in the literature by Fitzgerald, (2004), Court (1989, 1995), and Strachan (1999).

My study contrasts with the earlier work of Manchester (1983, cited in Graham and Smith, 1999) and Graham and Smith (1999) who found that more men occupied the higher status position of deputy principal than women, while women were assistant principals in much greater numbers. However, the larger number of females than males who gained positions as DPs/APs in 2006 reflects Graham and Smith's assertion that by 1999 women had made 'some ground in winning senior management positions' since 1983 (p. 4.2). Males, however, are still over represented as principals. In 2006 there were 221 male principals compared to 90 female principals of New Zealand secondary schools (MOE, 2006). According to Fitzgerald (2004) gender imbalances that continue to

position women as teachers and men as leaders and managers is one of the most persistent patterns in schools in New Zealand and elsewhere.

Ages

Males and females were also fairly evenly represented across all age groups, the largest number of male and female DPs/APs were in the age group 40 – 49.

Table 5: Age and Sex of Participants

Age	Female	Male
Under 30	-	-
30 - 39	7	6
40 - 49	12	10
50 - 59	3	2
Over 60	-	-
Total:	22	18

In 2006 the average age of secondary school teachers was 46 years of age (MoE 2006), which reflects the average age of both females and males in my study. However, Douglas’s 2007 study of 159 secondary DPs/APs in the Palmerston North, Wairapa, Hawkes Bay and New Plymouth areas, area revealed that there was a gender/age difference similar to the findings in the earlier study by Graham and Smith (1999). In both studies men reached the position of DP/AP at an earlier age than women.

Appointment external/internal

Just over a quarter of the 40 DPs/APs took up a position in a school in which they were already employed, while 28 took up their positions in a new school.

Table 6: Participants Appointed Externally/Internally

Appointed Externally	28
Appointed Internally	12
Total:	40

Interestingly, one school employed an individual after that person had spent four years out of a school. This contrasts markedly with Douglas's 2007 survey of 159 DPs/APs in the Massey School Support area, where 60% had moved into the position within their existing school. In Douglas's survey area there were many more small, isolated rural schools, with a significant number of DPs/APs who had been in the positions for more than five years. Strachan, Couch, Ho, Ford and Pettigrew (2003) found that there were fewer opportunities in rural areas to move between schools to seek promotion.

In my study there are more urban schools represented with greater opportunities for promotion without shifting locations. This may explain the greater numbers of DPs/APs who have been appointed externally.

Size and Type of School

Gender differences did emerge when the participants' type of school and roll size were considered. Table 7 illustrates that significantly more men than women were appointed to positions in co-educational schools with higher rolls, which was also reported in Graham and Smith's (1999) earlier study. Conversely, more women were appointed to smaller co-educational schools than men.

Wylie (1999) also found in her study of principal appointments, that more women were appointed to smaller rural schools than men. In my study, of the three DPs/APs appointed to boys' schools, it is worth noting there was a woman appointed to a DP's position in a boys' school and no males appointed to similar positions in girls' schools, a point also reported by Graham and Smith (1999). There were more women than men appointed to schools with student rolls over 1201 but these also were mainly to positions in girls' schools. As discussed in Chapter One it is difficult to compare my results with national statistics, as the Ministry of Education does not collect data specifically about the position of DP/AP.

Table 7: Position In Relation to School Size

School Type: Gender	Co-Educational		Boys' Schools		Girls' Schools	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Roll size						
1 - 400	2	5	1	-	-	3
401 - 800	2	2	-	-	-	-
801 - 1200	8	1	1	1	-	3
1201 +	4	2	-	-	-	5
Total:	16	10	2	1	-	11

School Type and Location

The majority of participants were appointed to schools in urban areas while ten DPs/APs took up new positions in rural areas, all of them in co-educational schools.

While Table 8 does not show the geographical location of participants and their schools, each of the six University/School Support Services regions in New Zealand is represented, as well as school type and urban and rural locations. With the exception of the small number of boys' schools in my study, I achieved a sample that is representative of DPs/APs appointed in 2006.

However, it must be noted that I did not define what I meant by rural and urban in this study so participants have not necessarily defined these terms in a similar way.

Table 8: School Type and Location

Type of School/ Location		Co-educational	Boys	Girls
State:	Urban	13	3	2
	Rural	10	-	-
Integrated:	Urban	3	-	5
	Rural	-	-	-
Private/ Independent	Urban	-	-	4
	Rural	-	-	-
Total:		26	3	11

Management Units

The majority of both male and female participants had 4-6 management or salary units attached to their new positions, which is illustrated in Table 9.

Table 9: Management Units Related to Gender/School Size

Management Units Gender	4 - 6		7 - 9		10+	
	M	F	M	F	M	F
Roll size						
1 - 400	2	7	-	-	-	-
401 - 800	2	2	-	-	-	-
801 - 1200	6	7	2	-	-	-
1201 +	1	1	2	5	1	2
Total:	11	17	4	5	1	2

There appears to be little evidence that this factor is related to gender or to the type of position held, but the number of management units appears to be linked to school size in my study. Those DPs/APs in larger schools tended to have more management units, which equates to a higher salary than those in smaller schools, whether they were male or female, or were holding a DP or AP position. DPs/APs in smaller schools with a roll size 1 – 400 students, tended to have fewer management units than those in larger schools (PPTA, 1997). Douglas’s 2007 survey of DPs/APs also found that those with the greatest number of management units, held positions in large single-sex schools or very large co-educational schools. This not only reflects how funding is linked by the Ministry of Education to school size (the larger the school the more management units are allocated to that school), but also to internal decisions made by individual schools about how they allocate these management units and to whom (PPTA, 1996).

It would have been useful to compare my results with national statistics but again this material is not collected nationally (MoE, 2006).

Ethnicity

The following table shows the ethnicity of the DPs/APs who participated in the study.

Table 10: Ethnicity of Participants

Ethnicity	Numbers
NZ European	28
European (Great Britain)	3
Australian	3
NZ Maori	3
Pasifika	1
Not Specified	2
Total:	40

Although most of the participants were New Zealand European/Pakeha there was a small number of newly appointed Australian and British DPs/APs. Five of these

participants identified themselves as recent immigrants who had come to New Zealand in the last three years. The five immigrants are representative of increasing numbers of teachers from overseas, who have been recruited in the last ten years by the MoE and individual schools, to solve teacher shortages in the secondary sector (MoE, 2006). One participant from Britain gave some insight into this relatively recent phenomenon in the written part of the questionnaire. He arrived in New Zealand two years ago. He had extensive experience as an HOD in an English school and considered he was ready for promotion to senior management. Before leaving Britain he completed leadership qualifications, but took an assistant teacher's position when he arrived in New Zealand, in order to gain understanding of the education system before applying for a DP/AP position. It is interesting to note that Douglas (1998) and Graham and Smith (1999) did not report this recruitment trend in their studies.

There was only a small number of newly appointed New Zealand Maori and Pasifika participants, which reflects the under representation of Maori and Pasifika in the position, as highlighted by Strachan, Couch, Ho, Ford and Pettigrew (2003). This factor was also identified as a pattern in Graham and Smith's (1999) study.

Teaching Experience

As shown in Table 11 below, most participants in this study have been teaching for at least 11 – 20 years.

Table 11: Teaching Experience of Participants

Years	Males	Females
6 - 10	4	3
11 - 15	6	5
16 - 20	6	8
21 +	2	6
Total:	18	22

Marginally more men than women had 10 years or less previous teaching experience. Conversely, considerably more women than men had more than 21 years teaching experience prior to taking up their first position as a DP or AP. This reflects national and international literature that reports women putting off promotion until later in their careers due to child rearing, and for that reason women take longer to gain promotion than men (Coleman, 1996; 2003; Hall, 1996). Douglas (2007) and Graham and Smith (1999) also found that women gained senior positions later than men. However, the study does not represent the findings of some American studies which revealed that women had on average ten years more teaching experience than men before they took up their first senior management position (Young & McLeod, 2001; Shakeshaft, 1989).

The influence of family, and the effects of child-raising on women's careers was only commented on by a small number of female participants in the written questionnaire and by two of the interviewees in this study. One male participant also commented on the impact of family life. It is an area that needs further study in order to clarify the influence of child rearing on women and men in the study, rather than by those who chose to comment.

Teaching Subjects

The major teaching subjects of the participants in this study reflect all seven learning areas in the current New Zealand curriculum. However, the largest curriculum areas in terms of student participation contribute the greatest number of DPs/APs, with fewer DPs/APs from smaller curriculum areas such as technology and languages.

Fitzgerald (2004) noted that women holding middle management salary units in secondary schools are 'concentrated in the humanities, arts and social sciences areas' which she argued have less management or salary units attached to them than science, mathematics and technology areas, which have more salary units and whose leadership is dominated by men. In my study there are some gender imbalances in the teaching subject areas of DPs/APs. While there are significantly more men than women who teach science, and women than men who teach languages, Fitzgerald's findings are not reflected in mathematics and social sciences. Further research into the number of salary units held by participants, as well as their subject areas would provide more information to better understand the extent of gender imbalances in this area.

Table 12: Major Teaching Subject of Participants

Teaching Subject	Numbers	
	Males	Females
English	3	6
Mathematics	3	4
Accounting/Economics	3	3
Social Studies	3	2
Science	4	1
International Languages		3
Physical Education	1	2
Maori	-	1
Technology	1	-
Total:	18	22

Prior leadership and management experience

DPs/APs in this study have mostly followed a traditional career progression highlighted in the literature (Graham & Smith, 1999; Marshall and Hooley, 2006). As Table 13 shows, half of the participants in the study were heads of department (HODs) prior to their appointment to their DP or AP position.

Coleman (2002) has described the movement of individuals from teacher to head of department to DP/AP as a traditional career progression and reported that this was the path almost all head teachers in her British study had followed.

Table 13: Previous Main Position of Participants

Type of Position	Males	Females
Head of Department	11	8
Assistant HOD	2	1
Director Teaching/Learning	1	1
Teacher-in-charge	1	-
Acting AP/DP	2	8
Dean	-	3
Principal	1	-
MoE	-	1
Total:	18	22

In total, 25 of the 40 participants were previously curriculum leaders; either as HODs, assistant HODs, teachers-in-charge of subjects, or in the case of two schools with larger student populations, directors of teaching and learning. While the major responsibility of this group was to manage teaching and learning within their specific curriculum area, since the shift to self managing schools in the 1990s (Fitzgerald, 2004), most had expanded this role to include the appraisal of teachers, and change management as well as a range of quality assurance functions.

The predominance of curriculum leadership responsibilities may explain the small number of participants who indicated that their main role in the school prior to appointment was as a dean. My study echoes that of Graham and Smith (1999) who found that fewer people were entering senior management teams from a previous position as a dean. Coleman (2002) suggested that the emphasis on curriculum rather than pastoral care was because curriculum responsibilities had a higher status than pastoral activities in terms of promotion. Women in Coleman's study deliberately sought curriculum responsibilities during their careers rather than pastoral care roles which they thought would identify them too closely with traditional views of women taking on a 'caring or servicing role' (p. 19).

Ten participants were 'acting' in the position prior to their appointment for periods of time that varied from six weeks to twenty weeks. All ten commented later in the questionnaire that this previous experience was instrumental in encouraging them to apply for a permanent position as DP or AP, as well as giving valuable insights into nature of the work involved. Eight of the ten in acting positions were women and this finding reflects Coleman's (2002) assertion that many females need to be confident that they can do the work before they apply for promotion. It could also be argued that men felt confident to apply for positions more directly from HOD positions and did not feel the need to have 'a practice run' before applying for promotion. Further research on career aspirations would provide more understandings of the factors affecting the career aspirations of potential DPs/APs. Only two participants did not follow a traditional career progression. One male participant had been a principal, who cited workload and loss of job satisfaction as the major reasons that he had decided to step down from his principal's position. Another participant had been in the Ministry of Education, while a third took up her position after lecturing in the tertiary sector.

Many of the participants also described in their written comments subsidiary roles that they held prior to their appointment as DPs/APs. These included principal nominee, responsibility for curriculum co-ordination, professional development, chair person of the education committee and staff representative on the BOT. Five HODs also held positions as deans but cited their HOD position as their main role.

Educational background

All DPs/APs in this study had an academic qualification and the majority of participants held a postgraduate qualification or higher. This contrasts with a much lower number of DPs/APs who had post-graduate qualifications in 1999 as outlined in Graham and Smith's study, and more recently in Douglas's 2007 study. Both studies included long serving DPs/APs in their survey. The large number of DPs/APs in my study with post-graduate qualifications, reflect a growing emphasis on the importance of teachers continuing their own professional learning (Strachan, et al., 2003). My results, however, do not reflect Wylie's (1999) finding that fewer DPs/APs had the time to do university study compared to the early 1990s. One DP held a specific qualification, the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers (NPQH), which he had completed in Britain before immigrating to New Zealand. Unlike New Zealand, the NPQH is now mandatory for those applying for headteacher positions in England and Wales (Bush & Glover, 2004). Of the eight participants who indicated that they were currently studying towards

further qualifications, seven were working towards a Master of Educational Leadership or Administration qualification.

Table 14: Highest Educational Qualification of Participants

Type of Degree	Numbers
Masters Degree	11
Postgraduate Qualification	17
Bachelors Degree	9
Diploma HR Management	1
Diploma Home Science	2
Total:	40

Having described the background and characteristics of the 40 DPs/APs, I now turn to explore the perceptions of this group about a range of factors related to beginning their new roles.

SECTION TWO: UNDERSTANDINGS AND EXPERIENCES OF DPS/APS AS THEY BEGAN THEIR NEW POSITIONS.

In the second part of Questionnaire one (see Appendix 1) I asked a number of open-ended questions which sought to explore the perceptions of the 40 DPs/APs about the reasons they had applied for the position, those who supported them in their career aspirations, the challenges they thought that they would face, the skills and abilities that they brought to their new work, as well as the professional development they had undertaken to prepare themselves for their new positions. The five parts of this section of the chapter report on and discuss their responses. To better highlight the 'voices' of the participants I have removed speech marks and put the direct quotations in italics. Each participant is identified by a number to maintain anonymity.

Reasons why DPs/APs applied for their positions

All 40 participants gave a number of reasons as to why they wanted to become a DP/AP. These responses ranged from cryptic, one line answers to three participants who outlined their philosophy about leading learning. I have also used the responses of the six interviewees who gave more details in their interviews about the reasons they applied for their positions. There were three categories of responses: personal and professional aspirations; ideas about leading and managing; and the desire to support teaching and learning. These responses are summarised in Table 14 on the following page. Threaded through these three main categories are two reoccurring themes, challenge and change, which I will explore further at the end of part one.

Table 15: Reasons Why DPs/APs Applied for Their Positions

Types of responses	Number of Responses
Aspirations	
Career Progression	21
Skills and Abilities	12
Acting in the Role	10
Support of Others	5
Desire To Lead / Manage	
Manage Systems/Processes	17
Lead Change	8
Strategic Leadership	3
Improve Teaching and Learning	5
Need for Change/Challenge	13
Other	3
Total:	97

Personal and professional career aspirations

As outlined in Table 15 by far the greatest number of responses focused on the personal/professional career aspirations of the DPs/APs.

There are some interesting parallels between the responses from many participants in the phase one questionnaire and the six interviewees in my study, with Coleman's 2002 study of the career progression of female and male headteachers in Britain, as I will show. Twenty-one participants described their decision to apply as part of the next step in their careers. Participant 8 said that he had achieved all he could as an HOD and now it was time to *step-up*. Fifteen participants, both men and women described a traditional career progression, which was planned, linear and progressed towards seniority and higher status. For example Participant 46 talked about *his five year plan to become an AP/DP*, which he said he achieved in the first year. Only five participants talked about the DP/AP position as the necessary preparation to become a principal. Participant 44, for example, talked about her desire to become a principal, which was linked to having *more say in the running of the school*. This finding echoes Coleman's 2002 study, which found that many men and women did not decide to become head-teachers until they had established themselves in the position of deputy.

The experiences of the six interviewees provide greater detail about the importance of career motivations in their decision to apply for promotion. Mark and John followed a traditional, educational career pathway, moving from teacher, to head of department, and to the deputy/assistant principalship. This career pathway has been extensively described in the literature (Young and McLeod, 2001; Coleman, 2002) and reflected the pathway of many of the participants in this study. Mark and John described their decision to apply as 'the next step' in a linear, uninterrupted career pathway within the secondary schooling system. Mark explained, *it was a logical step and I was ready*. Like Mark, John had every intention of becoming a principal as *I had thought about it when I was at Teachers College, to be principal right from day one so it was always a long-term goal of mine*. Both men planned their careers with the principalship in mind. They expressed high levels of confidence about their ability to do the new work, which was linked to their experiences along this linear career progression.

I consider myself a career teacher. I have been doing it for nearly twenty years without a break so straight from university to college and onwards and I saw an opportunity at this particular school... I was confident about my own abilities (Mark).

For Mark and John, becoming a DP/AP was not a goal in itself, but the means to an end – what you had to do to become a principal. Coleman (2002) noted from her study that while many men and women followed this traditional career progression, which she described as a 'male' model of career advancement, she also found that it was men who decided to become a headteacher much earlier than women.

Phil was the youngest interviewee and although he followed a traditional career pathway, his appointment to an AP position happened more quickly than he anticipated and was largely unplanned. The unplanned nature of his appointment reflected both women and men in Coleman's (2002) study, although she found more women than men drifted in to senior positions. After working with the senior management team for a term, an invitation given to all senior heads of department, he was invited by his principal to 'act up' following a sudden vacancy in the SMT. *It gave me an idea of what the day-to-day role was like and ...the whole school decision-making processes.* This opportunity gave Phil the confidence to apply for the job when it was advertised, although he did wonder if he should have done more time as a head of department.

All three women interviewees in my study had experiences outside the traditional career progression that influenced their career choices. The influence of child-raising and time out of teaching were strong influences reported by Sue and Jill, but none of the men. This also was a factor, which influenced the career progression of women in Coleman's (2002) study who had a more unplanned and non-linear career progression than those of the men. An earlier study by Acker (1994) found not only did women have more diverse career experiences than men but that women's career plans changed over time as a response to changes in family responsibilities and their partner's work plans. Sue and Jill echoed the experiences of six women principals in Hall's 1996 study as they too 'made choices that enabled them to combine work and personal/family commitments, whether or not they had children' (p.26). Sue and Jill had time out of teaching when they had their children and also worked part-time before taking up fulltime roles. They were also the oldest of the interviewees. Coleman (2002) reported that women in her study had more diverse experiences in their career progression than men and were generally older than men when they reached their first senior management position.

Previous experience acting in the position of DP/AP was an important reason given by ten participants, explaining why they had applied for the position. As Participant 2 commented:

I spent over half a year in a relieving assistant principal capacity and felt that during that time I made an impact. I was able to bridge the gap between teacher and administration and gained a lot of support.

It is significant that eight of these participants were women. They described the opportunities and importance of acting in the role 'to look at the job and describe what it was like to be in it' (50) and to try out things and be part of a team (52). In addition two of the interviewees, Sue and Jill, also had the opportunity to act in the role for a few weeks. Jill explained:

It gave me an opportunity to see what it was really like in senior management. I enjoyed the diversity of the challenges that each day brought and this reinforced my feeling that becoming an AP or DP was the right step for me to take in my career.

Like Phil, Sue had been invited to sit within the senior management team in her previous school, which she described as like being a *minister outside cabinet... I was not part of the decision making group*. However, the experience provided the impetus for Sue to apply for the position, albeit at another school. Coleman (2002) commented that many women, unlike men, need to feel confident that they can do the job before applying for promotion. As well as experience acting in the role, five women in this study described the significant impact of family, a trusted colleague or the support of their principal in making the decision to apply for the new position, which has also been found as a characteristic of women seeking promotion (Coleman, 2002). It gave them the confidence that they had the necessary skills and abilities do the job, but also importantly reinforced that this was the job they wanted.

Desire to lead and manage

As illustrated by Table 15 at the beginning of this section, over half of DPs/APs in this study referred to the desire for greater leadership and management responsibilities as reasons why they applied for their positions.

A greater number of participants in my study expressed the desire for increased management rather than leadership responsibilities. Coleman (2005) regarded management as the activities that ensured organisational stability, such as managing student discipline, timetable, teacher relief, and other activities that ensured the smooth operation of the school. Thus, the management work done by DPs/APs ensured that in the school environment teachers could teach and students learn (Marshall and Hooley, 2006). Leadership within the school according to Coleman (2005) and Robinson (2004) was focused on curriculum leadership within the established vision and direction of the

school, leading change and thinking strategically about supporting teaching and learning in the future. A smaller number of participants commented on these leadership activities as reasons why they had applied for their new position.

It was difficult to explore the exact understandings DPs/APs in my study had of leadership and management as the terms were often used synonymously, with little detail or examples given. Although nearly half the participants described their desire to be a manager or have a greater role in managing systems and processes, they provided little detail about their understandings about management or gave examples of management activities. Participant 21 wanted to use his existing management skills to *manage school wide*, while Participant 18, an internal appointment, was interested in *managing and changing systems in the school like assessment*. Two other participants wanted to have a greater role in management and talked about the management skills they had and would bring to their new positions. Again both were internal appointments who wanted to change systems and processes within the school particularly *organising things better for everyone* (23). One participant used the term administrator to describe what he would be doing in the new position, again with no explanation.

Most of the participants who described their desire to lead or have a leadership role did so in very general terms. Most commonly this was described as *leading across the school* (7), or *wanting to make change things in the school so in this job I can be a decision maker and have more influence and power* (21) as opposed to the previous roles of *leading a curriculum area* (9). Only a very small number of participants discussed what they meant by leadership and defined it in terms of their own beliefs and what they wanted to be and do in the position. These three participants referred to leadership as defined by Coleman (2005) and Robinson (2004) as they all described their desire to lead teaching and learning at a school wide level, be involved in setting the future direction of the school as well as leading change. Interesting enough these three participants had opportunities to act in the role and two participants also had wider curriculum opportunities outside of the school. Participant 50 described her experiences:

I found that I was increasingly enjoying grappling with issues of policy and strategic planning in education as well as the mentoring of staff across a range of learning areas and with a range of experience. Because of the support for the notion of distributed leadership in my school... I was able to create opportunities to extend my skills beyond my curriculum area.

These three participants clearly articulated that while they wanted to make a difference, be part of changing how schools worked and have a greater say in school wide decision-

making, they also wanted this to be working 'with' people rather than through exerting power 'over' people. Their language was inclusive and they used words like supportive, collaborative, consultative and teamwork. While acknowledging that they would have a greater influence as a DP or AP, they also believed that it was important that it was a shared power and responsibility. Participant 8 said:

I have responsibility for curriculum development and staff learning groups. I want to work with others to develop quite specific goals within these portfolios. It is important that we work together, that everyone can see the big picture and that everyone has an opportunity to contribute and lead if they want to...

This contrasted with many of the other participants, who talked about having more control, changing things, being a decision maker and have more influence and power. These participants described a more traditional and hierarchical view of leadership than the participatory leadership described by the other three participants. These contrasting views reflect the differences identified by Harvey (1994) between a traditional conceptualisation of the role of DPs as largely hierarchical in nature expressed as 'power over', and the emergent view of DPs as educational leaders and members of a collaborative team, as discussed by Cranston (2007). Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) noted that the realisation of the positional authority attached to an AP position and consequent issues of power and authority can often be considerable challenges and need to be recognised and considered by those applying for promotion to these positions. Sadly they commented there is seldom any formal recognition or discussion about this change in status.

To improve teaching and learning

As illustrated in Table 12 in section one of this chapter, nearly three-quarters of DPs/APs had come directly from a position of curriculum leadership to their new positions. However, it is notable that so few of the 40 participants in my study saw teaching and learning as important reasons why they were interested in the DP/AP position, given that so many of them were curriculum leaders and led their own curriculum departments. Perhaps this is not surprising given the prevalent view expressed in Chapter One that the role of a DP is essential managerial in nature (Cranston et al., 2002; Graham and Smith, 1999) and an increasingly prevalent view that the principal is the leader of teaching and learning in the school (Robinson, 2004). The leading of teaching and learning was not mentioned by most participants, suggesting that the majority of this group may have regarded their new appointment as an explicit shift out of teaching.

Five participants, however, discussed their belief that they could influence and improve the quality of teaching and learning in their schools by becoming a DP/AP. Participant 50 regarded this as a reciprocal process as she also wanted to be challenged and to develop her own existing skills and abilities as well. Participant 15 wanted *to lead work on student engagement in a more practical and applicable way and make a difference for our students. I also need to work with others who know more than I do (15)*. Participant 6 considered the position was *'about teaching and learning and this is a chance to lead that' (6)*, while Participant 20 regarded the opportunities for leadership in *a change of role will give me new experiences and hopefully new skills*. These responses reflect Harvey's (1994) assertion that DPs were in a strong position to influence teaching and learning because many of them still taught and had previous roles as curriculum leaders. Cranston (2007) has built on this earlier work and has suggested that not only is leadership of teaching and learning regarded as the ideal role of DPs/APs, but also there are high levels of job satisfaction amongst Auckland DPs/APs when this ideal role and their actual role are closely aligned.

Themes of change and challenge

Whether DPs/APs were describing professional and personal aspirations, their desire for greater leadership and management responsibilities or to be leaders of teaching and learning, the reoccurring themes of change and challenge were threaded through most responses, albeit articulated in different ways.

Thirteen DPs/APs used the word 'change' in their responses, which directly linked to their desire to either change their own personal situation or to make changes in the school or school system. For example Participant 35 *saw the opportunity to make some changes that would benefit the students and staff* while another AP described the need for *change as I've been what I think is a successful HOD and now a change of role will give me new experiences and hopefully new skills (20)*. Another 12 DPs/APs indirectly implied that change was a reason for them becoming a DP/AP, such as Participant 4 *who wanted a new direction* or Participant 12 *who had done all they could in their HOD position*.

Ten participants used the word challenge when asked why they wanted to become DPs/APs. In some instances few details or examples were given as evidenced by Participant 14 *who was bored and keen to take up a new challenge*. For other DPs/APs it was *the challenge of working in a team and developing with the staff a vision for the*

school in the future – that's exciting stuff but scary (50) while *the challenge of having a whole school role* was important to Participant 26 *because I will be able to make a difference*. Weller and Weller (2004) have suggested that for some teachers a change to an AP position is a way 'to serve the broad interests of a whole school, not just an individual classroom' (p. 11), while Harris and Lowery (2004) have commented that the need for change is a common response of teachers after several years in their teaching roles, who begin to look at 'the big picture' (p. 2) and think about career progression as both a personal change and a challenge. This was certainly a motivation for many participants in this study.

For other teachers the move to DP/AP is the necessary change that will be the stepping-stone to the principalship (Coleman, 2002). A number of participants described their long-term career plans in terms of this linear career pathway towards principalship. Marshall and Hooley (2006) suggested that another reason why teachers seek change is that they are given responsibility for leadership of a project or tasks such as professional development or literacy co-ordinator and this experience 'provides an opportunity to visualize one self performing' (p. 35) at a new level. For Participants 50 and 6, curriculum leadership outside of their schools was the catalyst for them considering the challenge of a new position.

Other reasons

There were a variety of other reasons given for applying for the position that included the desire for increased financial security and to work in a safer environment. One AP described her personal motivation as general dissatisfaction with the school and perhaps left unspoken that she thought that she would be able to change things. Another participant outlined his frustration at being excluded from decision-making in his school, while another AP gave the rationale as boredom in her current position. Unfortunately all these responses did not include any accompanying elaboration, which could help me to better understand the responses. Further research into the motivation of those applying for senior leadership and management positions would add to our understanding of this blank spot in the school leadership literature.

Influences on the decision to apply for the position

The most significant person influencing participants to apply for the position of DP/AP is illustrated in Table 16. However, participants also identified a number of other people who also influenced their decisions, which are also discussed in this section.

Table 16: Most Significant Influences on the Decision to Apply for the Position

Category	Numbers	
	Males	Females
Principal	6	9
Themselves	8	3
Senior management	3	6
Family	1	4
Total:	18	22

Individuals within the education community were the most commonly identified influences on the participants' decision to apply for an DP/AP position. Fifteen participants identified the principal at their school or a previous principal as the most significant person responsible for encouraging them to apply for the position, while another eight identified that had also contributed to the decision to apply for promotion. The importance of the principal as a key influence on the professional lives of DPs/APs is one theme that has emerged in both the New Zealand and international literature (see for example, Graham & Smith, 1999; Mertz, 2000). Coleman outlined in her 2002 study of British headship, the important influence of a specific head teacher who encouraged both men and women in her study in every stage in their career development. As one DP commented:

It was really two principals – one who was passionately involved in professional learning and development and the other who believed in the person, me – combined, the two had a powerful impact on me (20).

As well as the principal, another nine DPs/APs identified a DP or member of the senior management team as strongly influencing their decision to apply for the position and more importantly giving them the confidence that they could do the job and all it entailed. There were significantly more women than men who identified a member of the senior management team as important to them, although Coleman (2002) found that both men and women regarded senior management members as influential. As one DP commented, *my previous DP was inspirational, so good I wanted to be like that (29)*. Eleven participants also identified the encouragement of their colleagues and members of their department as influences on them applying for the position.

Interestingly, in my study a significant number of men ranked themselves as the most important person who influenced them to apply for their new position. *I took the opportunities that came my way* (26) was the reason given by one newly appointed AP, while others repeated the same personal and professional reasons that they had given in the previous answer, for example, *the desire to have the top job some day* (3) and *I need to continually challenge and inspire myself* (40). This contrasted with Coleman's study, which found that both men and women equally 'mentioned the importance of self' (p. 18). Earlier research by Shakeshaft (1989) and Rowan (1995) may explain the larger number of men than women identifying themselves as the most significant influence in my study.

Both these studies found that men were more confident about applying for promotion even without all the necessary qualifications or experience. One female AP, however, said that others actively discouraged her from applying but she was determined *to break through the boys' network of promotion* (20). This was the only specific gendered response to the question and illustrated that traditional attitudes of men to woman taking up positions of leadership still occur. Coleman (2002) also commented that women head teachers in her study experienced these factors.

While five participants described family as the most significant influence on their decision to become a DP/AP, another ten described it as an important influence. Participant 39 said she *wanted to prove to family, friends and myself that I could do this job*. More women than men reported that family were the most important influence on them and their career decisions. Coleman (2002) did find that partners were the most important people who influenced both women and men to apply for promotion, a factor not reported by participants in this study.

There was little detail given in the responses by most DPs/APs to illuminate how and why principals, colleagues and family influenced their decision to apply for the position. It is an area that needs further research.

Perceived challenges facing the newly appointed DPs/APs

In the first phase questionnaire I asked DPs/APs to describe the challenges that they expected to face as they took up their new roles. All newly appointed DPs/APs in this study identified two common challenges: acceptance and adjustment. However, there

were some differences in way these challenges were perceived according to whether the DPs/APs were appointed externally or internally.

Acceptance

Acceptance by staff was identified as the single most important challenge identified by almost all participants. The challenge of being an 'outsider' and consequently not accepted was an issue identified by many of the 28 participants who were appointed to their positions from outside the schools. These concerns mainly focused on the reactions of other staff to the arrival of these new DPs/APs in the school. Worry about *resistance from long serving staff to a recent arrival gaining promotion* (24) was echoed by Participant 20, who contemplated the difficulties of *relationship building in a new culture and environment – how will I get along with staff?* Ten individuals believed an important challenge was gaining credibility which some believed would be achieved by building trust and new relationships – all of which would take time.

All 12 participants who took up a position as a DP or AP in the school in which they were already employed, believed that acceptance by staff would be the biggest challenge they would face. As Participant 24 stated: *I started in this school as a beginning teacher 20 years ago – many staff have known me for many years – I wonder how they will treat me now*, a reaction which was echoed by another DP who foreshadowed a conflict of interest between *loyalty to former colleagues and to the SMT* (2). The tension that new DPs/APs feel between loyalty to their teaching colleagues and in their new role to the other members of the senior management team was identified by Wallace and Hall (1996) as an important challenge which would be faced by those taking on new positions.

Marshall (1992) noted that newly appointed APs in her study felt they were treated differently and described the loss of support they felt from former peers. Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) were surprised how quickly many newly appointed American APs found a distance developing between themselves and their teaching colleagues once they had gained promotion. Fishbein and Osterman (2001) have suggested that the emergence of an 'us' and 'them' relationship was initially a surprise for newly appointed APs and one of the hardest adjustments that they have to make to the new position.

Other individuals thought that their relative youth and lack of experience might cause problems, while another two DPs/APs were concerned about managing the reactions

and subsequent relationships with unsuccessful applicants from within the school. The reaction of the principal, other members of the SMT and students did not appear to be an issue to any of the 40 participants, although Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) suggested that for new APs appointed externally, building new relationships with all groups was a significant challenge.

Adjustment

Most participants, whether they moved into the role from within or from outside the school, expressed concern about how they would adjust to their new positions. Graham and Smith (1999), Marshall and Hooley (2006), and Cranston (2007) all identified the managerial nature of DPs/APs work and its ragbag assortment of roles. Twenty-five of my study's participants discussed the challenges of learning a new role, as well as juggling a large number of managerial jobs like timetabling, daily relief, bus organization, discipline, liaising with NZQA, paper work and understanding management systems.

Participant 5 worried about adjusting to a much bigger school as his *ability to manage systems for large numbers may not be up to scratch*. Only a few wondered how they would cope with the challenge of new leadership activities such as curriculum and professional development. As Participant 6 noted: *I worry about the challenges of learning leadership, administration and management in public versus the former privacy of the classroom, where I could just get on with it*.

Participant 2 was concerned about balancing management activities with the challenge of leading staff and *leading across the whole school with strategic issues - this is new to me*. I commented earlier in this chapter that it was difficult at times to interpret what the participants understood when they were using the terms leading and managing as many DPs/APs used the words synonymously, or did not give enough detail or examples.

Perceived Strengths and Qualities of DPs/APs Prior to Their Appointment

All 40 participants identified individual strengths and qualities that they brought to their new position. Many participants identified more than one. These responses fit into five categories: personal qualities; specific management skills; leadership qualities; previous experience; and teaching ability, which are summarised in the table below.

Table 17: Strengths and Qualities Identified by Participants

Types of Strengths and Qualities	Males	Females
Personal Strengths		
Individual Qualities	18	25
Relationships	7	9
Communication	4	5
Management Qualities		
Managing Systems/Processes	12	8
Leadership		
Managing Change	3	4
Strategic Leadership	3	5
Previous Experiences		
Acting in the Position	-	5
Teaching/Learning		
Curriculum Knowledge	4	3
High Expectations	1	1
Relationship with Students	1	2
Total:	63	72

Personal Qualities and Skills

As previously discussed in this chapter many of the responses from participants were general with little clarification. However, by far the most significant strengths and qualities identified by DPs/APs in this study were personal skills that related to qualities such as positive attitude, hard work, loyalty and common sense, while more specific personal skills were also noted. These included seven participants who believed that their ability to think either systematically, logically, analytically or clearly were key attributes that were specifically important to their work in their new positions. Other participants identified strengths in developing effective relationships as crucial to success in their new positions while other participants identified effective communication as important. These participants identified their strength as effective communicators,

who they saw as *essential to the smooth running of the school* (9) and *vital for me to communicate with the whole school* (8). No gender differences were noted.

Management qualities

A number of participants noted that they would bring to their position experience and skills such as planning and reporting, performance management, timetabling, teacher relief, discipline, managing NCEA, liaison with NZQA, quality assurance and managing IT in the school. As Participant 18 reported, *managing systems is my strength – timetable, reporting etc.* Other qualities included by five individuals were their skills at managing time, paper work and *prioritising all the jobs that will come my way* (42). These managerial qualities reflect the previous work of Graham and Smith (1999), who found that the managerial nature of the job still remained one of its most enduring characteristics.

Leadership

Participants also identified that understanding the nature of leadership and their previous leadership experience were their major strengths. Five individuals clearly described their leadership qualities and gave some insight into their understandings of leadership. For instance Participant 50 stated that she was able to be *constructively critically when considering key documentation and how it relates to strategic planning*. Participant 20 described her leadership ability to *work outside a curriculum area and look at the whole school needs* and further linked this to her qualities of strategic planning, and *understanding of evidence and data as the basis for decision making*. Strategic planning or school wide planning for the future was identified by Cranston (2007) and Harvey (1994) as an important leadership role that DPs/APs wanted to be involved with as it was important to the future direction of the school.

Three other participants also identified that leadership was about seeing the big picture and all could bring this ability to their work as DPs/APs. Participant 6 probably best summed it up when he stated that *I understand that leading and managing schools towards the primary goal of student academic, social and co-curricula achievement is my main goal*. Participant 8 further defined leadership of these activities as *leading change and setting direction rather than managing the detail*. Four individuals identified their ability to innovate, lead change and mediate and resolve conflict without giving any examples of previous practice.

Previous experience

DPs/APs highlighted this as an important quality, although this was expressed in very general terms such as: *I have experience* (18) and *I've been an HOD* (49). However, one AP gave much more detail: *In 16 years of teaching I have taken part in almost every aspect of school life, e.g. dean, BOT staff rep, HOD of 2 departments* (35). Two recent arrivals from overseas saw their background as both a challenge as it might make acceptance by teachers more difficult but also saw their broad range of experiences as a quality they could bring to the new position – experience with other education systems and ways of doing things. Five women noted their time spent acting in the role as significant experience that they could bring to the new position, although they did not provide any detail. Four newly appointed DPs/APs mentioned leadership experience gained in an acting position and gave accompanying detail:

I have developed leadership experience in many areas of my portfolio assessment, quality management, effective relationships particularly with difficult staff which I can bring to the job – effective too because it's from another school (8).

Teaching and learning

The ability to work and focus on the needs of students was seen as significant qualities that only twelve individuals noted as bringing to their new position. This was interesting given the large number of the participants, 25 in total whose previous main role was leading teaching and learning as an HOD or teacher-in-charge of a subject area (see Table 12). Teaching and learning qualities of these participants were sometimes expressed generally such as:

I have sound curriculum knowledge in my subject area (39), whilst others described a *sound understanding of current pedagogy/best practice for teaching and learning in a professional learning community* (52).

There were no general patterns that emerged based on gender, except for the number of women who identified their previous experiences, particularly acting in the role. This factor was discussed earlier in the chapter.

Preparation, training and professional development taken up prior to appointment

All 40 participants identified the most significant way that they had prepared, trained or undergone professional development prior to their appointment. Some participants noted several other factors that contributed to their preparation. These are summarised in

Table 18 below.

Table 18: Professional Development, Training, Preparation of Participants

Type of PD	Numbers	Most Important
Learning on the Job	26	18
Courses (over 2 days)	14	3
Professional Conferences	9	2
Short Courses (1 day)	6	1
PD Contracts	5	2
Tertiary Study	9	4
Mentor	4	4
Other	4	4
None	2	2
Total:	79	40

Learning on the job

Many participants stated that learning on the job was the most useful, practical and relevant training or preparation for their new positions. *It's the real teacher* said participant 49. Learning on the job was defined as experience learnt in previous positions. Almost two thirds of the participants identified this previous learning as important in how they prepared for their new positions, and for 18 individuals it was the most significant way in which they learnt. Some DPs/APs described the variety of opportunities to do related work in their previous positions as HODs, experience as a BOT staff representative, as a union chairperson, all of which gave opportunities for dealing with staffing issues, personal grievance and contract law. Other DPs/APs had previous experience on the timetable committee or were principal nominee in charge of assessment issues. Participant 20 explained the importance of this previous experience.

Exposure to theory and big ideas can only take you so far. You don't refine your thinking and your skills until you really have the opportunity to put things into practice.

Eight of the 18 participants who said learning on the job was most useful, identified 'acting up' as DPs/APs as the most significant way they had gained experience and learnt about the position. As previously discussed in this chapter, they shared a view that it gave them valuable insight into what the position entailed and experience in actually carrying out work. *Acting in the role has given me lots of responsibilities similar to this new job*, explained Participant 29; while another individual referred to the ability to do many jobs simultaneously which she said means *you have to learn and learn fast* (49). In contrast Participant 6 warned that learning on the job only goes so far as: *a new position in a new school is so different and in some ways you start learning at the beginning again* (6). Two women DPs contrasted the varying ways in which they had gained experience. While one woman asked for and was given senior management tasks to give her insight and experience in the role, another participant talked about the one-day's notice given when she became an acting DP after the principal was diagnosed with cancer. Both women commented how acting in the role combined well with skills gained in various roles over the years, and was excellent preparation for their permanent appointments as DPs.

The importance of learning on the job whether in related work or acting in the role is supported in the New Zealand by Md Nor (1996), Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004), and Harris, Mujis and Crawford (2003) in the international literature. Despite the significant numbers of DPs/APs who attributed learning from previous experiences on the job, Matthews and Crow (2003) warned that 'it is unlikely that you have experienced the extensive and school-wide nature' of the new role' (p. 274), until individuals are actually in the position.

It is worth noting here that none of the 40 participants identified an induction programme into their new positions as a feature of their professional preparation, although one participant noted that he had attended a number of SMT meetings prior to school starting. This absence of induction for this group is also reflected in the literature (Md Nor, 1996; Cranston et al., 2004, 2007).

Long Courses, short courses, and professional conferences

These three categories have been grouped together for comment because they are similar in that they are 'one off' activities, which are attended off site by the participants and reflect typical formal professional development activities of DPs/APs (Harris et al, 2003).

Twenty-five DPs/APs indicated that long courses (two days and more), short courses (one day) and professional conferences were ways in which they underwent preparation, training or professional development for their new position. However, only four participants indicated here that these common professional development activities were the most important or significant learning they had undertaken. Longer courses and professional conferences were seen as more important than a one-day course. Three participants described the benefit of longer courses, as there were often greater chances for discussion and reflection rather than just sitting and listening, which happened more often in the short courses and conferences they had attended.

Significantly, participants identified more leadership related 'one off' activities than management. Participant 23 described a 3 day course on managing and leading faculties – *best PD I've ever had particularly on leadership styles*, while Participant 50 described the attendance at an international thinking conference as *significant professional development for both her leadership of curriculum within her school and her teaching*. The value of these one-off professional development experiences has been widely debated in the professional development literature by Guskey (2002). Marshall and Hooley (2006) commented in the context of American APs that 'rarely do these workshops or conferences address their particular concerns and provide skill-building experience' (p. 83) and the move to longer in-depth programmes in some school districts has been more successful in supporting the professional learning of this group.

Tertiary study

Nearly a quarter of participants identified tertiary study as contributing to their professional development preparation or training to become a DP/AP, although only four indicated this study was significant. However, these four made strong statements about the contribution of tertiary study to improving leadership skills and abilities. Participant 14 described his MBA, which *made me realise I could manage or lead any organization. It gave me confidence, inspiration and perspective*, while Participant commented on his British National Professional Qualification for Headship qualification (NPQH), *as an excellent form of PD. It gave me opportunities to develop new skills, consolidate ideas and gain confidence in my leadership skills*.

Professional development contracts

A small number of participants identified leading or working on specific professional development contracts within their schools as significant professional learning activities.

Most of these contracts had an ICT focus and DPs/APs saw these as crucial to the work they would do in their new positions because they gave them experience in leading whole school development based on research, writing contracts and reporting milestones to the MoE. Participant 20 also added that it gave her *significant experience in managing a budget and monitoring staff*. Marshall and Hooley (2006) noted the value of leading a school wide project as a way of building both leadership and management skills and the subsequent greater job satisfaction for existing APs and those who aspired to the position.

Mentoring

Four women participants identified their use of a mentor as significant and indicated that they wished to continue with their mentor after they had begun their new work. The importance of a professional mentor in supporting newly appointed principals and DPs/APs is identified in the literature as a significant way of gaining real opportunities to learn and develop leadership skills (Hartzell et al., 1995). Participant 9 described the benefits of a mentor. *It's great in all spheres – insight into what I'm doing and why I'm doing it, guidance referrals to others and research* (9), which was reiterated by Participant 8 who described her previous principal as *a sounding board for just about everything – how you do the timetable to how you deal with difficult staff*. None of the women described the negative side of mentoring or identified any problems that emerged as a result of their experiences. This may be explained because it was initiated by the women and was an informal mentoring relationship (Crow & Matthews, 1998).

Four individuals identified a variety of other activities, all of which made the most significant contribution to their professional development/learning or preparation for their new positions. Two participants identified effective feedback from colleagues and previous members of SMT as effective but gave little explanatory detail. One AP described a series of meetings with SMT prior to school starting at the beginning of the year as the only significant preparation she could think of for the new position, while one DP described their experiences in the MoE with little detail given. Two individuals, both males could not think of any professional development, learning or preparation that they had prior to their new positions and said so.

West Burnham and O'Sullivan (1998) commented on the 'fragmented in-service training and development' (p. 5) that most school leaders experienced before taking up their new positions. Harris, Muijs and Crawford (2003) also acknowledged that most school

leadership training in Britain was generic and did not take into account the different tasks and responsibilities of DPs, or the different contexts in which they worked. The absence of co-ordinated and relevant professional training was also a finding in my study and is an area for further research.

SUMMARY

In this chapter's discussion of responses to the first questionnaire a number of points emerged. Change, challenge, adjustment and acceptance were four themes that emerged as DPs/APs described their understandings of their work as leaders and managers at the very beginning of their position.

DPs/APs described the need for change, either personal and/or professional, as the major reason they applied for the position. Aligned with this need for change many participants identified they were looking for further personal and/or professional challenge at this stage of their career. A significant number of DPs/APs identified the principal or another member of the senior management team as the greatest influence on their decision to apply for their position. Previous experience and learning on the job were seen as the most important ways in which participants would learn, train and develop professionally for the position. The confidence gained from acting in the role was significant to a number of DPs/APs, nearly all women. No DP/AP in this study described taking part in any specific induction prior to his or her appointment.

Most DPs/APs came from curriculum leadership backgrounds as HODs, but many did not describe their new work leading teaching and learning. More participants expected to be carrying out management type activities such as managing assessment, than involved in school wide leadership. Acceptance from staff was one of the biggest challenges facing both those DPs/APs who gained promotion inside their school and for those who were promoted from outside the school.

In describing the responses of the 40 participants in this study I captured 'a snapshot of the wider population' (Cohen et al., p. 17) of DPs/APs appointed throughout New Zealand in 2006. I was able to then select six individuals for in-depth interviews. The responses of this group who were interviewed after time in the position and a second questionnaire to the original 40 participants are described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

SIX MONTHS INTO THE NEW JOB: WHAT'S DIFFERENT

INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I discuss the responses to a follow-up questionnaire conducted with 31 of the original participants who completed questionnaire one, and the responses during interviews conducted with six newly appointed DPs/APs from the first phase of the study. The participants who completed the follow-up questionnaire and the interviews are described in Chapter Three. Both the interviews and the follow-up questionnaires were carried out after the DPs/APs had been in their new positions for approximately six months.

I report and discuss the six themes that emerged from participants' accounts of their experiences after six months in their new positions, highlighting differences or similarities in relation to their perceptions when they began their new work. These parts of the chapter discuss the participants views of workload and the reactive nature of the position; their relationships with staff; the importance of the principal; learning on the job; career advancement; and leading and managing. Then I discuss whether any re-conceptualisation of the role of DP/AP was evident in the responses of this group of DPs/APs about their work.

Workload and the reactive nature of the position

Managing the multiplicity of the tasks involved in the new work was identified as the major challenge and surprise for all of the participants in this study. None of the 40 participants who responded to the phase one questionnaire anticipated the heavy and reactive nature of the work they would do in their new jobs. In these aspects, the professional world of these DPs/APs closely resembled the world of APs described by Hartzell, Williams and Nelson in their 1995 study, as a 'great deal of work, done at unrelenting pace in an unpredictable environment ... characterised by variety, brevity and fragmentation' (p. 154). After several months in the position, almost all my participants commented on *being swamped* (28), *struggling with the huge workload* (9), *having to hack the pace* (49), *constantly put out fires* (39).

Participant 24 summed up the feelings of many participants when she admitted the difficulty of

having to be so reactive to things that happen on a daily basis and decide which takes precedence. I have found it difficult to drop everything to deal with pupils, parents, and staff as required, and to come back to the task later.

The sense that the job was never done was also a major surprise experienced by all the six interviewees. One of the interviewees, Phil commented:

didn't realise just how busy you are, just non stop all day long and alongside that you have to then think about organising exams or organising reports and trying to fit those bigger tasks into the nuts and bolts day to day discipline, uniform... I didn't think that I could get busier then as a head of department.

These responses reflect one of the most common findings reported in the literature about the work of DPs/APs both within New Zealand (Cranston 2007; Graham & Smith, 1999), and internationally (Hartzell, Williams & Nelson, 1995; Marshall & Hooley, 2006). Jorgenson (2000) found that assistant principals lived within the daily tension of balancing a multiplicity of time consuming issues and that few were 'prepared for the range of tasks or the long hours they eventually encountered; these adjustments are the first test of a new AP' (p. 72).

Mark noted that he was finding himself *doing more work in the weekends and outside normal hours*. Phil said that he had his home life balanced with his work like after six months as an SP. His wife was not in paid employment and was at home with their young child so he was able to *just go home and switch off*. Jill, however, had three young children and had to juggle family responsibilities with her professional responsibilities including fulfilling the expectations others had of her in the position. Jill said *I have a family and I want to spend time with them*, but she was finding that there was *no end to the job. You could work 7 days a week every day every week*. As DP in a private school, Sue also experienced the pressure of high expectations. She was concerned that she spent *far too much time at work and at morning, evening and weekend functions* and how this impacted on her family. She acknowledged that *they have to handle mum not being there like I used to be*. This challenge remained unresolved for Sue. Family responsibilities and their impact on women are widely reported in the literature (Court, 1989; Strachan, 1997; Coleman, 2002), where it has been pointed out juggling family and career impacts more on women than on men, as child-care is still regarded as primarily the responsibility of women (Adler, Laney & Packer, 1993; Coleman, 2002).

Relationships with staff

As discussed in Chapter Four, a majority of the 40 DPs/APs who responded to the first questionnaire perceived that acceptance by staff would be a challenge as they began their new work. After six months a majority of these DPs/APs still faced difficulties in managing staff relationships, highlighting issues of power and authority in how DPs/APs understand their work.

Managing the range of staff behaviour: Issues of power and authority

The majority of participants did not anticipate the degree of the challenges in dealing with difficult staff, and just how much of their time would be spent dealing with staff issues. Participant 39 best summed up the experiences of a many DPs/APs when he reported that:

Staff have shown their true colours now. Fantastic when working with team players and we work well together but we have those who come in to pick up their pay and refuse to lift a finger to help anyone else. How do you deal with them?

Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) found that the majority of first-year assistant principals in the United States were surprised by the 'breadth of teacher behaviour because it had remained hidden from them' (p. 76) throughout their teaching careers. My participants also echoed these experiences. Seven described the challenge of balancing the interests of one group against the interests and opinions of others. While Participant 38 knew some of the negative staff in her school before she was appointed, she *didn't understand the difficulties of dealing with staff that are always negative...and with their petty jealousies*. For others, like Participant 23, making decisions was somewhat more difficult than she anticipated, as it was difficult to keep *the respect staff members as you are always in the firing line for criticism from others*. Five participants described the difficulty of managing really challenging staff and commented that disciplining staff was one of the hardest jobs they had to do. For example, Participant 8 expressed frustration about dealing with one staff member who was *the most obstructive person I have dealt with*.

Issues of power and authority were fundamental in many of the experiences of these newly appointed DPs/APs. Participant 29 was surprised by just how difficult it was dealing with 80 staff rather than the small number she was responsible for when she was a head of department, but in particular commented that *I have set them deadlines I want done and then they don't meet them. It's hard to make them accountable*. Participant 51

admitted that she just *tells staff they are not pulling their weight rather than overlook their lack of professionalism*. Perhaps unsurprisingly, she had some negative reactions to her approach with staff about meeting deadlines and following procedures.

These two participants illustrated the challenge that new managers often face in their use of formal authority or the use of 'legitimate power gained through formal position' (Blackmore, 1999. p. 184). They were surprised that teachers do not necessarily follow their directives. Hoy and Miskel (1996) noted that many new managers did not understand the importance of informal authority, which they suggested was to be found in the personal characteristics of leaders/managers who influence and persuade others to follow policy or directives. It seems clear to me that a new AP, Participant 51 had yet to develop effective relationships with some staff, where this kind of influence might be exercised, or to understand the complex dynamics involved in enforcing rules and regulations. In their study, Weller and Weller (2002) suggested that understanding these dynamics was crucial for the leadership development of newly appointed APs, as those who are 'authoritarian and who use coercive power or legitimate power as a means to control teachers end up reducing teacher loyalty and work performance and lowering morale' (p. 7). Participant 5 had discovered this dynamic when she reflected that *you don't really see how differently people can view things until you move outside of your own narrow area*.

The experiences of the interviewees illustrated the contrasting ways in which power was understood and used in the first six months in the job, particularly how the exercise of authority influenced relationships with the staff. Sue was employed to make significant changes in curriculum and assessment in her private school, following a painful restructure. She explained that an important part of her job was prioritising the many changes that the Board of Trustees and principal had identified as necessary and *working with staff on what can be managed at one time if it is all going to work*. For Sue it was about *empowering others and collaboration to make these changes real*, concepts that Blackmore (1999) described as a feminine construct of power, which involved 'exercising power through and with rather than over others' (p.207). Although Mary gave less detail than Sue, she also commented that making successful changes in assessment, reporting and in discipline systems was largely a process of *finding ways to bring people along with you*. Court, (1989), Hall, (1996), and Strachan (1997) have all described this wider view of power exhibited by many women and their beliefs that power should be exercised mutually in an atmosphere of trust and respect.

However, it must be noted that not all women in my study expressed a commitment to a collaborative approach, as evidenced by the comments of Participant 51 and 29, earlier in this section. Mark and John also demonstrated different beliefs about power and different understandings about how their authority might be exercised in dealing with staff. New in the job, these five participants rather simplistically expected staff to follow their directives and described the surprised they felt when teachers did not follow policy and procedures. Mark said, *I just assumed that teachers would listen to me and that's not always done.* John was also surprised by teachers' negative reaction to his direct approach.

I will come in and say this is what we need to do and I expect it to be done and then follow up on it. It's been a bit of a shock to people about my expectations of a working school is... I hear about that all the time from them.

Some researchers have described a view of power where authority is based on hierarchy, control and authority as masculine (Hall, 1996; Shakeshaft, 1989). Hall (1996) described the way that many men acted once they assumed formal leadership positions 'and made culturally justified assumptions that others would follow. The surprise when people choose not to follow is potentially all the greater and to the men at least, incomprehensible' (p. 137). It is interesting to note both Mark and John have reflected on these negative reactions from staff. Rather than challenge their own understandings of power dynamics and use of authority, both have recalled DPs in their previous schools and acknowledged the negative feelings they as young teachers had, when these DPs exercised power in similar ways. John *sent an email to a particular (DP), who is retiring this year saying I am really sorry because now I understand.* Exactly what he now understood remained unclear.

It is important to note that it is difficult to comment more widely about gendered differences regarding the use of power and authority in this study. As discussed earlier in this section, Participants 39 and 51, both women, shared some of the masculine views of leadership, while many participants who completed the questionnaires did not give enough detail for me to identify any further patterns.

Acceptance and credibility

The second major staff challenge identified by participants in this study was the challenge of gaining acceptance and establishing credibility with staff. Hart (1993) commented that both professional and personal transitions from teaching positions to those of formalised authority more often than not redefined relationships between these new school leaders and their teaching colleagues. Although many anticipated that

acceptance by staff might be a challenge, most DPs/APs who responded to the follow-up questionnaire, were surprised at how difficult it was and how long it took to be accepted by the staff. However, those appointed within the school experienced some differences to those appointed externally.

DPs/APs appointed internally

Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) found that initially APs still identified as teachers, and in describing the transition from teacher to manager, Fishbein and Osterman (2001) acknowledged that it was sometimes as difficult as crossing a chasm. The eleven participants in this study who were appointed from within their school described the challenge of dealing with colleagues in far stronger terms than most of the 28 participants who were appointed from outside the school. Although all 11 anticipated that acceptance by staff would be a challenge at the beginning of their work, most did not realise just how tough it would be and how long it would take to rebuild and maintain new relationships. For some of the participants, these new relationships still remained problematic six months into the job. It was a shock for these DPs/APs that their relationships with teachers were fundamentally changed as a result of their securing a new position, a finding that is also reflected in the literature (Glanz, 2004: Hartzell, Williams & Nelson, 1995; Weller and Weller, 2002). Participant 2 commented that *relationships with close colleagues were not as strong as they were*, while Participant 5 noted that *you certainly find out who your friends are* (5). Participant 2 described the personal dilemma he had faced between *loyalty to the teaching team and now to the administration team. Saying no to friends is difficult*. Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) described this process as a transition from insider status to that of outsider status with former colleagues, which could be painful for the new AP. Many DPs/APs in this study were still finding this is a painful transition.

Almost all of the participants appointed internally commented about the length of time it took to re-establish relationships with some staff *and to gain credibility* (14) with some taking a *softly, softly* approach in order to establish their new role. In dealing with the reactions of some staff to their appointment, it was felt by these participants that they also had to *harden up* (6), *and try not to take things personally* (11) in order to cope with the negative reaction from some colleagues. Matthews & Crow (2003) explained that these transitions were sometimes a contested process, which involved a cultural shift from teacher to manager/leader with old norms, values, allegiances and beliefs sometimes at odds with the different expectations of the principal and others about their

work. For example, Participant 12 acknowledged there was little understanding by many teachers of the position who *wonder what I am doing and have no idea how busy I am*.

Jill provided further evidence of how the development of new working relationships with staff is not always smooth. She commented:

I'm the sort of person that wants to please everyone but I'm also in a different position now and I can't and some people haven't really like that and they have let me know. It's all a bit painful really.

The change in position within the school has resulted in a change of perception of Jill by some staff. Fishbein and Osterman (2001) suggested this experience is initially a surprise for newly appointed APs and one of the hardest adjustments that they have to make, especially because fellow teachers take considerable less time than new APs to redefine these new relationships and manage positional authority (Hartzell, Williams & Nelson (1995).

DPs/APs appointed externally

Nearly three quarters of the 40 participants were appointed from outside their schools and faced not only the transition from teacher to leader and manager, but also the adjustment to a different school culture and environment. In the follow-up questionnaire, Participant 27 described this as the need for the outsider *'to build trust and relationships to gain credibility and acceptance but at the same time to get on with the job whatever that might be*. It was 'getting on with the job' for many of these DPs/APs appointed from outside the school that affected their acceptance and credibility with staff. Eleven participants interpreted 'getting on with the job' as introducing changes. John had a very clear idea that he had been appointed to make changes, as the school had a history of low student achievement and poor teaching practice. His introduction of a literacy strategy was seen as having a positive effect on raising student achievement, but was off-set by the need to manage the tensions between many new, inexperienced HODs and those who had been in the school for some time, who were reluctant to change. He explained *it's been incredibly hard and sometimes it's one step forward and two steps back*.

Crow and Matthews (1998) commented that there were pressures and expectations on new administrators to act decisively with little time for critical reflection. Participant 39 found that right from the beginning there was a *'huge demand from staff to deal with discipline issues'*, which many staff thought were out of control in the school. When he introduced some changes he was surprised when he faced unexpected staff resistance

from some quarters. *I learnt that I needed to listen to a lot more people and take more time than rush into a quick solution that suited me.* Daresh (2004) urged considerable reflection and consultation before making major changes and noted that acting decisively on every issue that was referred to them was a mistake many novice APs made in their first year on the job. Participant 28 took a measured approach with change management and commented:

I've been patient. First establish myself, make some strategic challenges to systems where I think they are most needed. These challenges will mean conflict and I now know who with.

Participant 35 also recognised this dilemma and noted that the perception of many of the staff that *'the new DP will create a new positive environment and move the school* was an unrealistic expectation. For some staff he noted he was *going too slow and for others not fast enough.*

While many participants commented on the central importance to their work of building and maintaining relationships with staff, only a small number pointed out that this was a two-way process. Participant 18, appointed within his school commented that acceptance and credibility was a mutual process for which everyone was responsible.

Success for me has been acceptance by my long-standing colleagues, and their willingness to follow my direction or seek my advice. I feel that I too have made a difference; the staffroom is a place that staff now enjoys; systems are secure and they know that they can rely on me.

Professional development in building effective relationships, conflict resolution and mediation may be important elements of professional development that may better prepare DPs/APs for the significant challenges they face in establishing and maintaining relationships with staff.

The Importance of the principal and senior management team

The importance of the principal in every aspect of the professional lives of their DPs/APs is emphasised in the literature (Douglas, 1998; Harris, Muijs & Crawford 2003; Hartzell, Williams & Nelson, 1995; Marshall and Hooley, 2006). However, the importance of working within a senior management team has also become a key component of the leadership and management of secondary schools (Fitzgerald, 2004; Graham & Smith, 1999; Wallace & Hall, 1994).

``The importance of the principal

Daresh (2004) reported that assisting the principal was the singular most important role of American APs, which was echoed by Brooks (2006) in his recent handbook for British DPs. Graham and Smith (1999) also found that whether New Zealand DPs/APs have the opportunity to develop their interests and make significant leadership contributions within their schools is largely at the discretion of their principals. My study's participants in the phase one questionnaire identified the strong influence of a principal in encouraging them to apply for their positions, and six months later two thirds of these participants further described the professional and personal influence of the principal in their current work. For nine of these DPs/APs, loyalty to the principal in public was a dominant theme, whereas for five others, the strong leadership of the principal was the key element of their influence. As Participant 24 noted: *She walks the walk and leads by example. I just learn by looking at what she does*, while for Participant 5 seeing *the vision that the principal has for the school* was a motivating factor in his work.

Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) commented that 'how the principal communicated key messages, is among the most potent sources of learning for newcomers' (p. 118). They also suggested that the way principals established priorities, made and/or shared decisions, as well as clarified expectations reduced uncertainty for new DPs/APs, a finding supported by participants in this study. Eight participants commented on the supportive role of the principal in the first six months as important in the process of establishing themselves in their new roles. For example, Participant 10 acknowledged the importance of her principal in *maintaining my confidence; just to know there is someone to talk things through*. One participant, however, commented on the loss of autonomy compared to her previous head of department's position. *He (the principal) has a lot more say in what I do than I realised and I like (44)*.

The experiences of four interviewees provided further and different evidence of the important influence of the principal in their work of DPs/APs. Sue described that importance of a principal who lead and set the direction within the school although her role was somewhat different to the other interviewees. She explained that she was:

effectively the academic principal of the school... the principal has allowed me free range as she has the belief that we are the leaders in the school and she is acting as a CEO.

Jill also described the importance of the principal in establishing the roles she and other members of her senior management team undertook.

She's really good in terms of sitting down and saying quite specifically what you are doing is really important... you are leading so and so... and giving you opportunities to lead special projects.

Marshall and Hooley (2006) argued that the principal is essential in defining the type of leadership and management work done by their DPs/APs, and work done by individuals in this role can be linked to 'the principal's understanding and commitment to participatory leadership' (p. 8). This certainly was the experience of Sue and Jill. However, despite the more inclusive approach of their principals, both women recognised the authority of the principal. Sue explained this in the following terms. *She allows us to get on with it...but she has also drawn the line. It's good as we need to know where the boundaries are.* In many ways Sue's principal reflected the notion of the principal's role in self managing schools as the chief executive officer (ERO, 1996), responsible for mainly management activities such as; curriculum, staff, property, finance and answerable to the board of trustees. While keeping a strategic oversight of curriculum, responsibility for the delivery of curriculum in this case was delegated to Sue.

For Jill, the principal was still the legitimate authority in the school. *I have to show loyalty to the principal; the person you answer to, and the team,* but she still found that at times this was a challenge. *I am required to toe the party line on some things. You can't just say to the staff listen I agree with you.* Both Sue and Jill's involvement in school wide decision-making and their own collaborative attempts at working alongside the teachers for whom they were directly responsible was still carried out within a hierarchical framework, with their principals as the acknowledged leaders and themselves as followers, albeit in a much more collaborative manner.

John and Mark both experienced a more hierarchical and traditional relationship with their principals (Marshall and Hooley, 2006). Both faced tension between what they personally believed and the school policies and practice as articulated by their principals. John had a rocky relationship with his new principal who was appointed and started her principalship a term after John's appointment, especially as he liked and respected the previous principal who had appointed him. After a short time John's job description was changed, which caused tension. He perceived his relationship with the new principal as more traditional and hierarchical and referred to her during the interview as *the boss* and also spoke of the *tensions of being nearer to the throne*. Mark initially thought that he must act immediately and take strong and firm decisions if he was asked for help, especially *in a discipline situation*. He felt that his recommendations to the principal about student suspensions were not listened to at certain times, and he *felt unsupported*.

The experiences of Mark and John suggested that despite a move towards more participative decision-making (Harris, 2005; Robertson, 2005), as experienced by Sue and Jill, legal power and authority are still invested in the principal and are used by the principal in many instances (Metz, 2000; Weller and Weller, 2002).

Belonging to the senior management team

Very few participants who completed the first phase questionnaire identified membership of the SMT as an important aspect of their new work. Six months later, over half of the participants who responded to the follow up questionnaire commented on their relationship with the rest of the SMT. Most of these comments were very general such as Participant 4, who have found her colleagues *great*. For seven participants the SMT made a difference to how they understood their new work. Participant 9 acknowledged the importance of the team in supporting her adjustment to the new work through *the way they have provided their expertise to bring me up to speed* (9). Participant 28 also noted the team's influence and importance. *They've been hugely useful for communication and advice. I've spent a long time listening and learning from them*. These participants identified membership of the SMT as an important way to learn about the job, which was also a finding in Wallace and Hall's 1994 study. Some of the challenges of SMT's identified by Wallace and Hall were also expressed by two participants. Participant 29 described the difficulties of building relationships with members of established teams, especially dealing with *the values and beliefs of some who have been there a long time*, while Participant 44 was surprised by those *who actively undermined decisions that were reached by the majority of the team. That's been a huge shock* (44).

A strong senior management team was identified as important to four of the six interviewees and their responses give greater insight into the influence of membership of this group on the professional lives of newly appointed DPs/APs. The six DPs/APs were all part of senior management teams with the principal retaining leadership, but with shared responsibilities amongst the rest of the team. Jill and Sue attributed tremendous importance to a functioning senior management team, which was collaborative, sharing knowledge and skills. These findings are reflected by Court (2001); Grace (1995), and Strachan (1997), who suggested that many women preferred to work collaboratively through teams and regarded teams as a normal part of their professional lives. For Sue, appointed to a new school along with two other APs, developing working relationships building the team were essential. She said; *we need to be working as a team which takes time and is ongoing and that's probably our prime job*. Jill also acknowledged the

importance of working in a strongly collaborative team and commented that *other members of the team were really supportive and encouraging and they allowed me to have a go at things and then we discussed it*. Sue and Jill explicitly linked their beliefs about collaborative senior management teams to how teams should be led and developed within their schools. They both tried to model similar collaborative practices. Their language was also inclusive. For example, Jill talked about an initiative she had introduced:

I work with the Head of Learning Support and we meet with all teachers of year 9 and we discuss student engagement and attitudes and we try to strategise around an individual student. I don't lead that any more because she (HOD learning support) does it now. In fact the teachers take turns leading.

Sue found the development of more collaborative practices in the faculty meetings challenging. *We have worked really hard on developing people to feel free to talk and share and that it's good to disagree. That was not the culture here before*. She has introduced a revolving chairperson to run the meeting and to work with Sue to set the agenda together but has experienced some *passive resistance to the idea*. Court (1989) also commented on the difficulties of the resistance by some teachers to 'more democratic and inclusive ways of organising the work of teaching and learning' (p. 19) and commented that the hierarchical structures of salary and status within schools can often make it difficult for both men and women to share power.

Mary used the analogy of the senior team members all being *cogs in the wheel*. *We all are necessary to move the school onwards*. She described being given free rein with some of her portfolios but at the same time feeling *supported and guided*. For Mary working with a team *has been great and has been so positive. I have enjoyed the openness and humour, the support and feeling worthy, I am affirmed. I am told that I have done a good job*. Phil also commented on the shared understanding and the balance that belonging to the SMT brought him. *You can always talk through an issue or a problem. They'll put it all in perspective*. Simon and Mark commented on relationship issues within their teams, which may explain their avoidance of further exploration of the work of their SMT during the interviews. They were also part of a more traditional, hierarchical team, and have previously described more authoritarian leadership styles than Jill or Sue.

Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004) noted in their research into the position in Australia that membership of an effective senior management team led to high levels of

job satisfaction amongst DPs/APs. Because four of the interviewees were appointed from outside the school and because of changes in the composition of the senior management team, much of the discussion in this study focused on the development of the team. However, the trend towards decision-making, short and long term planning done by a team (Cardno, 2002) is reflected in the work of most of these six DPs/APs.

Learning on the job

Most participants described learning on the job in their previous positions as the most valuable professional development, training or preparation for their new work as DPs/APs. This view had not changed six months later. Three quarters of DPs/APs who completed the follow-up questionnaire had no specific professional development or training before taking up the new position, or since their new appointment. This finding is also reflected in the literature (Md Nor, 1996; Cranston et al., 2004). Participant 18 echoed the experiences of other participants when he said professional learning was *mostly experience gained at the school doing many different tasks*. Given the adjustment from teacher to DP/AP it is not surprising that newcomers to the position were focused on adjusting to the new position, and workloads. Many were also adjusting to a new school culture (Weller and Weller, 2002).

Learning on the job was also the most important way in which the interviewees learnt about how to do the job. Mary described learning on the job as *finding my own way. Assemblies, staff meetings, report evenings, all have to be learnt on the job. You can't do that anywhere else*. Jill also doubted whether there could be adequate training for aspects of her AP role. *How you train for the job I just don't know?* Even for the leadership aspects of her position she doubted there would be any course that could prepare her for the work. *Can you learn to be a leader? You just can't emulate somebody else. You have to learn that over a long time*. Sue suggested that even if she had been to a course prior to starting her new position; *it might not have helped because the reality was just so different*.

Studies by Harris, Muijs and Crawford (2003) and Marshall and Hooley (2006) identified the lack of any development or training aimed specifically at DPs/APs. Marshall and Hooley (2006) suggested that because those in the position are overloaded in their first year, they would not attend any professional development, as it is not a priority and most is not relevant to their needs. However, four participants in my study had attended a regional DP/AP conference and regional DP/AP association meetings and commented

how good it was to talk to other DPs/APs from similarly sized schools with similar problems. The three male DPs/APs often used informal discussions with colleagues for advice and support. John and Mark used other DPs/APs as part of an informal network of support, because as John noted, *these are the people I trust professionally and personally.*

Five DPs/APs attended specific professional development linked to their portfolios, which included projects on differentiation of learning, student management systems, and Qualifications Conference in Palmerston North. Nine of the participants anticipated they would look for similar professional development linked to management responsibilities within their own individual portfolio. These included timetabling, attendance systems and new ways of managing discipline. John noted that he would be looking for specific professional development around areas of his portfolio, such as appraisal.

Only a small number of individuals commented on their lack of training or preparation for the position and none identified any formal induction into the role. Brown, Rutherford, & Boyle (2000) highlighted the absence of effective induction and professional development for senior positions and described any professional development or learning as occurring through a 'process of osmosis' (p. 239). The lack of formal professional development or formalised induction for DPs/APs contrasts with the Ministry of Education funded First time Principals Programme (Eddy & Bennison, 2004) and the newly announced National Aspiring Principals programme (MOE, 2007). Although the absence of initiatives for DPs/APs might reflect the lack of funding, it does reinforce the invisibility of the position in the eyes of those in positions of power and authority.

The three women interviewees did however, talk about the benefits of having mentors (see also Glanz, 2004; Weller & Weller, 2002). All three had organised this for themselves and shared a belief that their mentor would act as a sounding board, which would allow them to reflect on issues and dilemmas, as well as on their own practice.

These mentors differ from the more traditional mentors who act as role models, dispensing wisdom and advice to the learner (Crow & Matthews, 1998). Sue and Jill's mentors were former female principals who they trusted and with whom they have established on-going relationships. *I need someone who is outside the school and completely objective and they actually make me justify the way I am thinking about things and help me get some clarity around my own thoughts (Sue).* These mentoring relationships appear to focus on real opportunities to learn and, heed the warnings of

Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1999) who suggest that traditional hierarchical mentoring models might not foster a critical reflection on practice that leads to change.

Understandings of leadership and management: Six months later

In my study I hoped to build on the work of Graham and Smith (1999) who described the largely managerial nature of the work done by DPs/APs but indicated some shifts were occurring towards a greater leadership roles for DPs/APs within their schools. I was interested to find out whether these shifts would be reflected in my study.

In the next section I discuss how these newly appointed DPs/APs understood their work as managers and leaders in their schools. For the most part participants in this study differentiated between leadership and management through a description of different tasks they associated with each role. Management tasks were those associated with the organisation of systems such as assessment and reporting, and the day-to-day operation of the school such as teacher relief, timetable and student discipline. Leadership activities were those involved in 'big picture thinking' such as setting the strategic direction or vision of the school, developing the direction of teaching and learning, whole professional development. Some participants also described administrative tasks such as organising detention lists and writing lists.

'A lot of managing'

As Participant 10 put it, *I feel I am doing a lot of managing, a bit of leading.* After six months in their new positions, the great majority of DPs/APs spent most of their time managing operational systems and the routines of the school day, week and the year.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, most operational tasks carried out by DPs/APs were reactive and time consuming, similar to the earlier New Zealand studies (Douglas, 1998; Graham & Smith, 1999). Participant 24 described as *overwhelming*, the number of operational challenges that she faced, such as attendance, reporting, uniform, the organisation of meetings and timetables activities. Participant 3's challenge of *getting my head around all around the administration* was shared by eleven DPs/APs, who realised that they had not fully understood the nature of the position before they began their new work. Participant 14 suggested that she now realised that the most important skill needed for a DP was the ability to *multi task* as there were so *many things on the go at the same time.*

Jill further described management, as the organisational *every day stuff that has to be done, the thankless tasks, something to be ticked off the list*, but nevertheless important because someone has to do these tasks. She explained that *you manage things well so you are creating as little stress as possible for the HODs*. Sue commented that management was *dealing with the details, managing people...systems and processes*, while Phil described the reality of his management work as doing the *nuts and bold stuff* such as teacher relief and absenteeism.

Student discipline has been reported as one of the most frequent and time consuming tasks for most DPs/APs (Douglas, 1998; Graham & Smith, 1999; Marshall and Hooley, 2006). However, only a few participants who responded to the follow-up questionnaire, mentioned the frustration and time-consuming nature of dealing with discipline issues. As Participant 10 noted, *discipline just doesn't go away. Everyday, it's endless. You can never plan anything*. The small numbers of questionnaire participants who commented on the impact of student discipline on their work, contrasted however, with the experiences of five of the six interviewees, as well as the findings in the literature. Jill believed that managing student behaviour was a means to an end as it *allowed teachers to get on with the most important job in the school, helping kids learn*. Conversely, Mark did not want student discipline in his portfolio because he saw it as time consuming and a major barrier to doing other work. He found it extremely difficult to manage the teachers expectations of teachers that he would sort out their minor student misdemeanours. Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) found that not only were APs associated with discipline in their schools, but also it was their most demanding responsibility, largely because of potential for conflict with students, teachers and parents.

Two examples illustrate how students' relationships with DPs/APs were affected by their discipline role with students. Mark was upset by a description of him as *the prince of darkness*, while Jill found a comment about her on the school's website particularly challenging. *Somebody wrote something like... she is an awesome teacher why did she have to go to senior management*. However, the comment about Jill reinforced her determination to maintain positive relationships with students:

There is no point in the job without quality interactions with the kids...You have to create it within your teaching or your portfolio, then you have to look at some other way of doing it.

Three participants realised after six months experience that they were better fitted to management work as they enjoyed it so much. Participant 12 thought management

rather than leadership responsibilities better suited his personality. He commented: *I'm very goal oriented – I'm efficient* (12). Participant 5 did not see himself as a *standout leader – rather a manager, more one of the troops with some serious tasks to complete that will enable the jigsaw to be put together.*

'A bit of leading'

Although most DPs/APs described their work as managers, many also described a leadership role within their schools. In the follow-up questionnaire, twelve participants spoke about leadership in terms of changes they had made to existing processes and activities within their schools, such as changing and streamlining of management systems within the school, in assessment, timetable, detention or reporting systems. Some of these changes were linked to the improvement of teaching and learning or supported the strategic direction of the school. Participant 1 said:

Leading changes in our reporting system was really important as you had to actually challenge HODs about their assessment and what they thought was important for teachers to teach and kids to learn. That's where the school is going.

It became apparent that this AP was not just managing the reporting system and its deadline, but leading teachers in curriculum change. This type of leadership reflected MacBeath's (2004) concept of the strategic leadership of operational tasks, which viewed management as a subset of leadership. In this construct, leadership and management were synonymous activities (Sergiovanni, 1991).

Strategic leadership

Cranston (2007) and Harvey (1994) identified making a contribution to setting the strategic direction and vision of the school as an important part of what DPs/APs in their study saw as their ideal role. However, only a few participants who responded to the follow-up questionnaire identified a central role in strategic leadership within their schools. The DPs/APs in my study may not have been involved in strategic leadership because of their novice status, rather than there being few opportunities to take a leadership role in their new jobs. For example, Participant 55 regarded leadership as *doing the job effectively within the framework of school and its direction.* He went on to comment that the school's direction was set before he was appointed.

Two participants described their leadership of large-scale Ministry of Education projects in their schools. Participant 28 noted that his leadership *took the school in new directions*

(28). However, little detail was given about how he did this, or the exact nature of the new directions mentioned by both individuals.

Sue and Jill had greater opportunities to be involved in strategic leadership within their schools than the other four interviewees. Sue strongly linked strategic leadership to the leadership of teaching and learning, describing it as setting *the vision of the school for student achievement*. She described strategic leadership as *pulling together lots of threads and to also look beyond what is currently happening to the future and what is happening in educational theory and practice*. Sue had responsibility for introducing changes related to the release of the New Zealand Curriculum and incorporating these changes into the long-term plan for the school. She also wrote *the annual plan*, which outlined targets in the short term. Given that changes planned for her school, Sue maintained that *this is the only way we can work*. Jill believed also that her leadership was strategic. She commented: *I'm a big picture person with long term planning and strategising so what we are doing now fits into an overall plan*.

In contrast to Jill and Sue, Phil felt he had been more fully engaged in leadership activities in his former position as head of department.

I saw a DP's role as a lot more of a strategic sort of role, a strategic role whereas actually in terms of strategic against operational side of things as a head of department, I was doing a lot more strategic thinking then.

Simon, John and Mary commented that they would like to be more involved in strategic planning in the school and blamed the competing demands of the large number of management tasks, as the barrier to this involvement.

Leadership of teaching and learning

None of the participants who replied to the second phase questionnaire linked their work directly to leading teaching and learning. The non-involvement in teaching and learning reflects the findings of Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) who reported that many first year APs in their study were surprised at how little involvement or impact they had in curriculum, teaching and learning. Two participants noted, however, that they had more leadership of learning as heads of department, than they did in their new roles as APs. Phil, Mark and John also commented that the relentless focus on student discipline and other management activities actually got in the way of work they wanted to do to improve teaching and learning. Their experiences are supported by Marshall and Hooley (2006), who found that 'the array of assistant principal tasks actually distances them from curriculum and instruction' (2006. p. 94), and by Harris, Muijs and Crawford (2003) who

advocated the re-conceptualisation of DPs so they were focused less on organisational stability and more on student learning.

The experiences of Jill and Sue were very different from the other participants in my study. They, however, considered that the purpose of their work was to lead teaching and learning in their schools. They clearly articulated this belief throughout their interviews and in the first phase questionnaires they completed. There was a clear understanding within their schools and from their principal that they were first and foremost to be involved with curriculum. Sue explained.

It's teaching and learning and effective outcomes for students, so yeah I guess that's at the core of my job and everything that I do, like leading curriculum and leading understanding of curriculum and curriculum change and developing staff understanding approaches to differentiation for example and meeting the needs of students with specific learning needs and different learning styles.

The commitment of their schools to learning was evident in the comments made by them both. Jill believed that her work was to enable and to assist teachers and heads of department *to develop effective teaching programmes, which will improve student learning*. One important leadership role of both women was to develop a functioning curriculum team, because as Sue noted, *we have to work together to collect and analyse student data to identify gaps in student learning... prioritise programmes and strategies to improve teacher practice*. Cranston (2007) found in his study that many DPs/APs wanted more of the type of curriculum leadership described by Jill and Sue. This finding was supported earlier by Harvey (1994), who considered that DPs/APs had better understandings of the needs of teachers and students because of their recent teaching and curriculum leadership.

'Leading, or managing or both'?

Although most of the 40 participants who responded to the phase one questionnaire discussed in Chapter Four, anticipated that their job would involve a greater emphasis on management, they also believed they were both leaders and managers and that leadership and management went hand-in-hand.

Many newly appointed DPs/APs regarded their first year as an introduction to their new role and expressed the hope that greater leadership work would eventuate once they had gained more experience. In the follow-up questionnaire, fifteen participants expressed a desire for more leadership of curriculum and professional development, and

looked forward to *growing in the role* (7) or *getting more experience in leadership* (3) or *being chosen to lead in the future* (29) or eventually be given the opportunity to do the *real leadership work* (7). Three participants described leadership in terms of a time when they would be confident enough to reflect their own beliefs and attitudes in the work rather than *what had been modelled* (4) for them. All interviewees also expressed their belief that they were more than just managers.

Sue and Jill described a constant movement between leadership and management. According to Bush and Glover (2004), principals and other senior staff experience this daily. Jill felt that she constantly moved between leading and managing her work as she put it *you have to have both, inspirational leadership, but if you don't have careful management underpinning it then at a certain point it is not enough*. She also recognised that management on its own was not enough to move the school forward and it was a matter of balancing leadership with management; *that is central to the position of DP*. The view of the two women is supported by West-Burnham (2004) who argued that leadership and management are equally important in schools and that it is important to understand how each can be improved for the benefit of students, rather than to argue about the relative importance of each.

In contrast to Sue and Jill, Mark estimated that he spent 80% of his time in the first six months was spent on management activities such as discipline, organising assemblies, report evenings and timetable. He described his leadership within the school filling the other 20% of his time. When he talked about *leading from the front*, which he defined as *doing my share, things like duty around the grounds and organising meeting deadlines*. Mark used leadership and management terms synonymously. Unlike Sergiovanni's (1991) contention that both management and leadership are important and occur together, Mark regarded them as separate and expressed regret that he has not yet been an effective leader, because he need to get *the management stuff out of the way and under control and then do the leadership stuff*. Later in the interview he confessed that *the sort of stuff I enjoy is figuring out timetables*. He liked most management tasks and acknowledged that *a lot of APs and DPs would shoot me for this but I enjoy the paperwork*. It could be argued that Mark avoided leadership activities because he preferred the certainty or organisational tasks and managing processes than dealing with the uncertainty of leading people in school wide change (MacBeath, 2004). Phil also saw leadership and management as two very separate activities. He identified himself as essentially a manger, with *a lot of day-to-day things, discipline, uniform...* For Phil *the leadership stuff just happens occasionally and I would like to do more of it*.

The desire for most DPs/APs for greater leadership responsibility in my study echoes the findings of Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004) and Cranston (2007). These studies found that although DPs/APs spent much of their working week dealing with management and operational activities, they reported that ideally they would like to spend much more time in strategic and curriculum leadership. It is important to note in regard to these findings that sharing leadership of strategic planning was also identified in Cranston's (2007) study as an important component of the ideal role of DPs/APs. Not only was involvement in strategic planning desired, Cranston also found that there was greater job satisfaction when the ideal role described by DPs/APs was closely aligned with their actual role in their schools. Interestingly, none of the DPs/APs in my study wanted to remove their management responsibilities, but wanted a more equitable balance between leading and managing in their day-to-day work.

It appears not much has changed for this group of school leaders since Graham and Smith's study in 1999. DPs/APs in Cranston's 2007 study identified the expectations of the principal and the heavy and reactive workload as factors preventing them from achieving a greater leadership role in their schools. This is an important area, therefore to follow up in further research and planning for principal and DP/AP professional development.

Career advancement

I did not ask directly about career plans in the follow-up questionnaire, which probably explains the very small number of participants who commented on their future career plans. Only one DP from the follow-up questionnaire indicated that he had a career plan in place. He had already completed a British qualification for headship and then emigrated to New Zealand. A part of his plan was to get experience within the New Zealand context and then apply for a principal's position. This kind of planning was somewhat different from what has been reported in the literature. Earley and Evans (2004), Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995), and Marshall and Hooley (1996), have all reported that the position of DP/AP has importance as the major stepping-stone to principalship. However, the small numbers who commented on their future career plans may support the general beliefs of over half the participants that still had a lot to learn in their new positions.

Unlike the respondents to the questionnaire, the six interviewees, however, reported that they regarded their appointments, as part of a career pathway that led to principalship. They saw themselves moving in that direction, although some were more tentative about principalship. They saw themselves moving in that direction, although some were more tentative about principalship than others. For Sue there were some obstacles in the way. Her health was a factor she needed to consider, but she also recognised the limitations her present job in an independent faith school might have on her future career aspirations. She recognised her ineligibility for principalship in a faith school because *it would be morally wrong of me to put myself into a position that requires religious belief*. While she wanted to be a principal in a state school, she thought that she might have to work as a DP in a state school first.

Jill also regarded principalship as a possibility, but she recognised that family and her husband's job would have to be taken into account (Blackmore, 1999; Coleman, 2002). Jill also recognised that promotion would be to another school, as *I don't want to be in the same job at 60 or 65 because I think that would be terrible for me and it would be terrible for this school*. Mary and Phil also expressed their desire to be a principal some time, but acknowledged that they had much more to learn. Both were APs and shared similar views that they might need to look at *associate principal positions or second-in-charge positions or either that or a DP in a larger school (Phil)*. As previously described in Chapter Four, John and Mark regarded principalship as the next step in their traditional 'male' career progression (Coleman, 2000). Mark said; *I will probably be here for two to five years and then...I will start looking at principal jobs*.

A small group of participating DPs/APs decided that principalship was not for them. One already experienced a term as acting principal and decided that he was *a better DP than a principal*, although he was glad he had done well in the acting role. The career progression and aspirations of DPs/APs are the areas for further study. More needs to be learnt about this group of school leaders, not only because some aspire to principalship, but also because not much is known about those who remain in the DP/AP role or who decide to leave the position and the school system (Harris, Muijs & Crawford, 2003).

A re-conceptualisation of the position?

In Chapter One I reported calls to re-conceptualise the position of DP/AP, from a traditional role characterised by tasks that maintaining the operational stability of the

school (Harvey, 1994), to a role in which there was a greater balance between organisational management, and curriculum leadership to better meet the learning needs of students (Cranston, Tromans & Reugebrink, 2004).

The majority of the 40 newly appointed secondary DPs/APs in this study largely represented the traditional conceptualisation of the role of DPs/APs reported in the literature (Graham & Smith, 1999; Marshall & Hooley, 2006; Weller & Weller, 2002), at the beginning of their new positions and six months later. While they regarded themselves as leaders and managers within their schools, most described their work in terms of managerial tasks with some leadership responsibilities. Their work during the first six months can best be summed up in the voice of Participant 10 as *a lot of managing, a little leading*. In their view, these large numbers of managerial tasks prevented them having a greater leadership role within their schools. About half of the participants were happy with the balance between leadership and management while the rest wanted greater opportunities to lead within their schools.

Two interviewees provided an interesting contrast to the more traditional conception of the leadership and management work of secondary DPs/APs. As discussed previously in this chapter, Jill and Sue had significantly different understandings about the work they would be doing as leaders and managers. To paraphrase Participant 10, they were doing a lot of leading and a little managing. They believed that they were curriculum leaders first and foremost, as well as managers. I have identified the factors that made them different from other participants to see if I can better understand their conceptions of the role. These characteristics included: previous experience acting in the role; a clearly articulated system of beliefs about the purposes of education and the role of leaders and managers; a defined job description which highlighted their role as leaders and managers; a supportive principal who worked collaboratively with them; and a commitment to a working within a senior management team. Each of these characteristics is explored further in the following discussion.

- Sue and Jill clearly understood the complex work of DPs/APs first hand before they applied for promotion. Jill acted in the position of AP within her school before she was appointed, while Sue sat in on the work of the senior management team for a year in her previous school. Both commented on this positive experience and how it gave them the confidence that they could do the job. These two factors were important contributing factors to their decision to apply for the position of DP (Coleman, 2000).

- They articulated a philosophy of education that centred on student learning as the core purpose of schools. They also believed that this same educational purpose underpinned the work of DPs/APs. In addition, they had clear understanding of aspects of leadership and management, both in a practical and a theoretical sense (Bush and Glover, 2000). Their understandings were clearly expressed in the first questionnaire and throughout their interviews.
- Both women had great expertise in curriculum and assessment work (Harvey, 1994) outside of their schools. They were highly regarded as curriculum leaders in their specific subjects communities, and had been involved in leading regional workshops with heads of departments and teachers. Sue and Jill acknowledged the confidence and the expertise gained by this curriculum work, particularly in gaining a 'big picture view' of curriculum and assessment issues.
- They had a clear understanding before they took up their positions that they would be leading teaching and learning in their school and that this was a shared activity. They also understood that this leadership focus would be balanced by a number of management tasks (Sergiovanni, 1991).
- Their principals were responsible for articulating this curriculum focus in their roles, for setting clear expectations, and for providing opportunities for both women to lead (Glanz, 2004, Weller & Weller, 2002).
- Both women belonged to strongly collaborative senior management teams and articulated that this was how they preferred to lead other teams in their schools (Wallace & Hall, 1994).
- Many of the other participants articulated some, but not all of the characteristics that I have described, as shown by the DPs, show were leading as much as managing in their schools. Further studies are required to develop understanding of the ways in which leadership becomes integral to the work of DPs/APs and in particular how these characteristics complement each other.

To sum up, then, six months into their positions, most newly appointed DPs/APs have adjusted to their new roles and report growing confidence and enjoyment of their new work. These views were summed up by Participant 14 who explained: *I enjoy the*

satisfaction of making things work and I have introduced new systems, which have made things easier for everyone. One DP said that he felt re-energised after 25 years, starting on a new challenge in my teaching life.

In the following and concluding chapter, I describe what this study had added to our knowledge about the work of DPs/APs. I comment on the strengths and limitations of the study and outline some implications for further research in this important area of school leadership.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATION OF FINDINGS

While the objective of my thesis was to explore how newly appointed secondary DPs/APs perceive their work as leaders and managers as they took up their new positions and then after some months in the job, it was underpinned by the same hope of Graham and Smith in 1999 who called for DPs/APs to 'be nurtured and properly valued as we move into the next millennium' (p. 7.3).

In this chapter I summarise what my study has contributed to our knowledge of the work of secondary DPs/APs. In the first section I draw together my findings in relation to previous understandings about DPs/APs, in order to highlight the significant themes that have emerged. I then comment on the strengths and weaknesses of the study before discussing the implications of this study for current and potential DPs/APs, principals, professional development providers, and policy makers. I conclude this thesis with a summary of recommendations for further research.

CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE WORK OF DPS/APs

My study has reinforced many of the earlier finding by Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004), Graham and Smith (1999) and Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995). The major findings are summarised below.

Managing versus leading

The description of one participant that six months into their new work that they were doing 'a lot of managing, a little leading' aptly summarises both the experiences of most of my participants and those in the other New Zealand and international studies I summarised in Chapter One. These DPs/APs experienced a heavy, reactive and workload, which was largely managerial in nature, in the first six months on the job. Although many DPs/APs anticipated the managerial nature of their work, it still came as the greatest surprise experienced by the 40 participants in my study. Many anticipated at the beginning of their new jobs that they would work hard, but the relentless, fragmented and reactive nature of the work described by Graham and Smith (1999) and Hartzell, Williams and Nelson (1995) was still unexpected and came as a shock to many.

Activities such as discipline, timetabling, meeting schedules, managing reporting and assessment were all key activities that consumed the time of most DPs/APs.

Despite this emphasis on management and managerial activities, six months into the job most participants regarded themselves as both leaders and managers. They wanted to take a great leadership role than in their current role, which also is reflected in more recent research by Cranston (2007). DPs/APs in my study wanted the opportunities for school wide leadership in curriculum and a greater involvement in setting the strategic direction of the school. Despite the preoccupation with leadership rather than management in the current leadership discourse, that I highlighted in Chapter Two, there is little evidence from those in my study that DPs/APs have a greater leadership role than they had in the past. 'The new and emerging paradigms of school leadership' that Metz and Mcneely, (1999) identified as necessary prerequisites for the re-conceptualisation of the position of DP/AP were not evident in the work of DPs/APs during their first six months.

The importance of the principal

In Chapters One and Two I highlighted the central role of the principal in the professional lives of DPs/APs. The importance of principals in every aspect of the life of DPs/APs is also reinforced in this study. Cranston (2006) argued that 'it remains the case that the principal is seen by teachers, parents, the wider community and 'the system' as *the* leader of the school' (p. 2) and since the advent of self managing schools in the 1990s, the legal and ultimate responsibility lies with the principal. Despite distributed, or more participatory leadership models advocated in the literature (Court, 2001; Harris, 2005; Lambert, 2005), for participants, a hierarchical school structure was the norm, in which the principal is 'responsible and accountable for almost everything that happens in a school' (Cranston 2006).

Two interviewees, Sue and Jill who described much more flattened management structures and greater participation in decision making in their schools, than other participants, did so at the discretion of their principals. More democratic leadership practices such as co-principalship (Court, 2001), and distributed leadership, were not experienced by individual participants in this study or evident in their descriptions of their schools.

The importance of the principal

This study also found that there was little formalised, focused professional development or specific training in preparation for the role of DP/AP. Learning on the job, in similar types of activities, both before and after their appointment, was the most significant way in which most DPs/APs prepared for their work. This finding was also supported in the literature. This sink-or-swim approach contrasted with the increasing professional development available and regarded as vital for new and experienced principals and other teachers (Eddy & Bennison, 2004). None of the 40 participants described any formalised induction within their schools.

Acting in the role

The opportunity to act in the role was a significant factor contributing to the decision of a number of DPs/APs to apply for their permanent positions. Not only was acting in the role of DP/AP crucial in giving them the confidence that they could do the job, it also gave valuable insight into the type of work of DPs/APs, particularly from a school wide perspective. It was also significant that many more women than men described their experiences of 'acting up' in the DP/AP positions, and as a result, they applied for promotion. Further research would give more understanding of the influences of prior experience on the career decision-making of DPs/APs, particularly from a gender perspective.

Relationships with staff

Relationships with staff were regarded as the most serious challenges facing DPs/APs as they took up their new positions, and after several months on the job. Establishing relationships in a new school environment and dealing with difficult staff were anticipated as challenges but most participants underestimated both the importance and difficulties it posed. The suddenness of the change of position from teacher to senior manager and issues of power and authority that were created were a significant challenge to many DPs/APs. These participants were still dealing with these challenges six months later. Establishing new relationships in this context illustrated the tensions, and lack of understanding, in some cases, that DPs/APs experienced in their use of their formal and informal power. Dealing with colleagues in a new role was challenging to many in this study, particularly as there was little discussion of the impact that a change of role might have on both their personal and professional lives.

The effect of the public sector reforms

In Chapter Two I reviewed the effect of the public sector reforms of the late 1980s and 1990s on schools, particularly their impact on educational leadership. I was interested if the managerial imperative established by these public sector reforms, which established principals as the chief executive officers of schools, gave greater opportunities for DPs/APs to develop leadership in school wide initiatives such as leading curriculum or professional development. As outlined earlier in this chapter, newly appointed DPs/APs in secondary schools in 2006 still carry out the range of managerial tasks that they have always done. While all participants worked within senior management teams only a few DPs/APs described more shared decision-making and collaborative practices within their schools, and these still existed within the largely hierarchical school structures. Participants in Graham and Smith (1999) study also spoke about the impact of Tomorrow's Schools on their workload and the changes that this had brought in terms of job satisfaction, range of managerial tasks undertaken and a reduced desire to become principals. I wondered why the era of self-managing schools and its impact on workload and school structures was not mentioned by any of the 40 participants in my study. One likely explanation is that nearly half of these DPs/APs had little or no experience of teaching in any other environment than Tomorrow's Schools as they had entered teaching after 1992. Almost all other participants were also young teachers then, who were precluded from any management responsibility until they had taught for at least five years (MOE, 1996). It is interesting to note how quickly that the change to a self-management environment has been accepted as the normal way in which schools are run.

Gender issues

This thesis did not take a gender perspective nor was it underpinned by feminist theoretical approaches to educational leadership. It may be argued that by not doing this I have accepted as unproblematic the continuing over-representation of women as teachers, and under-representation as managers and leaders in our secondary schools. This explanatory study, however, about a group for who little is known, (men and women) and I thought initially it was important to view the data and to understand the group as a whole. As I sought to better understand this group of newly appointed DPs/APs, gender became an important way of understanding some differences amongst this group of school leaders.

In Chapter Four the use of gender as a variable became increasingly important in understanding some of the different experiences and perceptions of both women and men. Despite the difficulties of comparing data with national statistics, women have made progress in appointment to senior management positions at least as newly appointed DPs/APs in 2006. Although the ratio of women to men in my study is more closely aligned to the proportion of women and men secondary teachers, there are still factors which privilege men as leaders and managers (Blackmore, 1999; Coleman, 2002; Court, 1989; 1998; 2001).

By looking beyond a simple comparison of the number of female DP/APs with those of males in my study, there are still proportionately more men appointed to DP/AP positions in co-educational schools with higher roles and status, in terms of numbers of management units, with conversely more women appointed to smaller schools. There were however, a significant number of women appointed to large single sex girl's schools. Men also continued to be appointed to DP/AP positions with less teaching experience than women. Despite an improvement in the numbers of women appointed in my study this is not yet reflected in the representation of women in secondary principal positions in 2006 (MoE, 2006).

The different perceptions and experiences expressed by Sue and Jill about their work as leaders and managers also caused me to reflect on the impact of gender and explanations for why women, such as these viewed their work rather differently than to the rest of the men and women in my study. While being conscious that my review of the leadership and management literature in Chapter Two rather unproblematically takes no account of gender differences, both women shared some characteristics that indicated differences about how these two viewed their roles from many of the others in the study. In many ways Sue and Jill reminded me of the women in Hall's study (1996), who were committed to shared decision making at multiple layers of the school, who believed in empowering others but were not necessarily committed to 'acting as advocates for women's rights or taking the necessary steps to advance women's particular interests' (p. 194), an emancipatory leadership practice regarded by commentators such as (Blackmore, 1999) as a hallmark of feminist educational leadership. Both women also clearly operated from a concern about students, particularly for improving learning, an ethic of care, which according to Strachan (1997) and Court (2001) lies at the heart of feminist educational leadership. Despite their central belief in the empowerment of others in their schools and the improvement of student learning both women still operated within a traditional hierarchical structure and managed daily the tensions

between traditional conceptions of power relations and their own commitment to sharing power (Blackmore, 1999).

Further in-depth study of DPs/APs like Sue and Jill using a feminist lens, will contribute greater understandings of the diverse ways in which women lead and manage and add deeper understandings to 'a blank spot' of educational leadership (Hallinger and Heck, 1999, p. 153).

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THIS STUDY

This research methodology adopted an in-depth qualitative case study approach, which collected data at two points in the participants' new work as DPs/APs. A largely qualitative questionnaire was used to collect the perceptions about the work they would do in their new jobs, as well as to collect quantitative data about their personal and educational backgrounds, and types of schools to which they were appointed. The high return of questionnaires from all over New Zealand ensured that there was a representative sample of DPs/APs, who began their appointments in 2006. This questionnaire provided valuable information about a group of school leaders of whom little is known. By conducting in-depth interviews with six DPs/APs and a follow-up questionnaire with the other participants six months later, this allowed greater opportunities for discussion and understanding about the change in perceptions that occurred because of the experiences of these newly appointed DPs/APs.

Most participants who answered the written questionnaires gave very general responses rather than the degree of detail I was able to gain from the six interviewees. Therefore it was difficult to categorise some responses, particularly in the qualitative sections of the questionnaire. Despite the careful piloting of the questionnaire, some tighter wording of questions would have given more specific information and useful data. For example in question 17, I would ask participants to identify who was the most significant influence on their decision to apply for the position and why, as well as asking them to identify other important influences. Some participants' understandings about leadership and management were unclear and I would ask more explicit questions to illicit deeper understandings.

Some participants were excluded from the interview phase of the study because they were known to me or were in schools within my regional workplace. Other participants were also excluded because of the distance and cost of interviewing them. For these

reasons the experiences of three Maori, one Pasifika and five recent arrivals from overseas were not included as part of the in-depth interviews. Consequently, the six interviewees although reflecting different gender, ages and school backgrounds, were all pakeha. To have included the perspectives of a more diverse group of participants would have added to the richness of my data.

IMPLICATIONS OF MY RESEARCH

In this section I highlight the main issues that were raised by my research for current and potential DPs/APs, principals, professional development providers and policy makers as well as summarise areas of future research.

Current and potential DPs/APs

I hope that my study is of practical use to DPs/APs, in particular to those who are considering taking on this very valuable and complex role. Although the study highlights some of the traditional managerial tasks and also identified some of the challenges that new DP/APs face, it also provides a realistic picture of the first six months in the new job. Despite calls for greater strategic planning and leadership of curriculum and learning, it is most likely that most DPs/APs will be involved for a greater part of their days in a range of management responsibilities described in this and other studies.

My study does provide current and potential DPs/APs with a chance to discuss more widely how they see their work, what is important about what they do, and more importantly how their work could change. Balancing leadership and management activities more equally is an important way in which the position could be reconceptualised. The expansion of the role from a narrow focus on management tasks to one of more actively improving teaching and learning might be beneficial to DPs/APs long term job satisfaction, as well as benefit teachers and students. Greater discussion about the work of DPs/APs that is illustrated in this study, might lead to greater discussion and examination of our assumptions about schools, their structures, and leadership and management activities generally.

Professional development providers

The need for quality professional development and support for DPs/APs that meets their personal and professional needs is highlighted by this study. Serious consideration

needs to be given to carefully structured professional development programmes that are part of an ongoing professional development programme that begins at pre-service education and continues through the careers of teachers. While there is recognition of the importance of professional development and training for principals, a proposed aspiring principals programme in 2008, as well as specialised support for beginning teachers, there is largely 'a sink and swim approach' to the professional development of newly appointed DPs/APs.

Opportunities are needed for professional development for newly appointed DPs/APs, which takes cognisance of the leadership and management roles they will undertake. Conflict management and mediation training might benefit one of the greatest challenges to novice DPs/APs; that of dealing with staff relationships. As DPs/APs have expressed a desire for greater leadership in strategic planning and whole school teaching and learning, these may also be important areas for professional discussion and development. Further research into the type and methods of delivering professional support would be beneficial to this group of school leaders.

Policy Makers and Researchers

The decision not to collect national data about DPs/APs reinforces the invisibility of the role and is a direct consequence of the move to self-managing schools in 1990s. The absence of nationally collected data by the Ministry of Education specifically about the position of DP/AP hides imbalances of gender and ethnicity. The position of DP/AP is one from which principals are most likely to be appointed. It is ironic that although there is a current concern by the MoE about principal recruitment and retention, there is little interest in the position or studies that explore the career aspirations of secondary DPs/APs and the factors that explain why they seek or do not seek the principalship.

There is the need for more research into the position that is school based and also contributes to the wider educational leadership discourse. Most studies that have focused exclusively on DPs/APs have been exploratory, small scale and have centred on the existing roles of DPs/APs and how these roles need to change or be reconceptualised. There is little understanding and research about the effectiveness or contribution of the DP/AP role on students and their learning and even fewer studies from a gender or ethnicity point of view. Studies that focus on the professional support and particular contextual development needs of DPs/APs, is needed, particularly if effective leadership of teaching and learning continues to be a dominant discourse

amongst policy makers and is advocated as an answer to poor student achievement. Building leadership capabilities of all layers of a school community, including students and teachers would ensure that DPs/APs are part of a wider view that leadership does not just reside in one person the principal.

E ngari ko tenei toa te toa takitini
Power does not belong to individual alone.
Rather, it resides within the whole community

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Questionnaire One

This questionnaire is the first part of a research study about how newly appointed secondary DPs/APs understand and experience their work as leaders and managers in their first year of appointment. It should take approximately 40 minutes to complete.

PART A

The first section collects general information about the school, the position you have been appointed to as a Deputy Principal or Assistant Principal as well as collecting information about you.

1. Please identify the type and size of your school. *Please circle as many aspects that apply to your school.*

- a) Urban
- b) rural
- b) Single sex: boys or girls
- c) Co-educational
- d) Integrated school
- e) Middle school/Junior High
- f) Area School
- g) Private / Independent

Any other details: *Please state:* _____

2. Please identify the size of your school. *Please circle the appropriate answer*

- h) Roll Range 1 – 400
- i) Roll Range 401 – 800
- J) Roll Range 801 – 1200
- k) Roll Range 1201 +

Interviews

Following this phase of the research six participants will be invited to take part in an interview, which will explore in more detail issues raised in the questionnaires.

Are you willing if invited to take part in the interview stage? *Please circle the appropriate answer*

- a) **YES**; If so please fill out the details below and return the completed questionnaire in the stamped addressed envelope provided.

Name

Contact Address

Contact phone number

- b) **NO**; If so please return the completed questionnaire in the stamped addressed envelope provided.

Thank you very much for the assistance that you have given me in completing this questionnaire.

Julia Scott
jm.scott@auckland.ac.nz

9. In total how many years of teaching experience have you had so far?

Please circle the appropriate answer:

- a) 0 – 5 years
- b) 6 – 10 years
- c) 11 – 15 years
- d) 16 – 20 years
- e) 21+ years

10. What qualifications do you hold? *Please circle as many as apply:*

- a) Bachelors Degree
- b) Honours Degree
- c) Masters Degree
- d) Teachers training qualification
- e) Post – graduate qualification
- f) Other – *please give details* _____

- g) Working towards a qualification – *please give details:* _____

11. Please state your major teaching subject, followed by any additional teaching subjects: _____

12. Have you had a job description for your new position? *Please circle the appropriate answer:*

- a) Yes
- b) No

13. Gender: *Please circle the appropriate answer:*

- a) Male
- b) Female

14. What ethnicity are you? *Please circle as many as apply:*

- a) New Zealand Maori
- b) New Zealand European
- c) Pacific Islander
- d) Other - *Please state:* _____

Questionnaire Two:

This questionnaire should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. It asks you to reflect on your experiences, attitudes and perceptions about your work as a DP/AP now you have been in the position for a few months.

How do you see yourself as a leader and manager now, after a few months in the position? In considering your response you might wish to comment on any or all of the following:

- The successes that you have experienced
- The challenges/difficulties you have faced
- The surprises that you have had
- The training/professional development that was beneficial or you wish that you had undertaken
- How your attitudes/experiences about the position might have changed since you took up the position
- How you see yourself now as a leader and manager



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Leaders or Managers: An exploratory study of the perceptions of newly appointed secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals about their work

Information Sheet

My name is Julia Scott and I am a student enrolled as a Masters of Education Administration degree at Massey University. I am currently employed as a Leadership and Management facilitator by TEAM Solutions, at the Faculty of Education, University of Auckland.

Invitation

I would like to invite you to take part in the following research project.

Focus

An exploratory study of newly appointed secondary Deputy Principals/Assistant Principals about their work as leaders and managers in New Zealand secondary schools

Reasons for the research

This research explores how newly appointed DPs/APs perceive their work as leaders and managers and how these perceptions might change during their first months in the position. The study is in an area in which there is little research and it will provide insight about how DPs/APs conceptualise their positions that will illuminate the key issues facing the educational leadership of this group of practitioners.

Nature of the Research

You are invited to take part in an interview, which will explore detail key issues raised in the questionnaire. This interview will take approximately 45 minutes.

These interviews will be recorded and the information later transcribed. Your confidentiality will be ensured as far as possible but cannot be guaranteed, as the researcher will use the returned questionnaires as a means of identifying the potential interviewees. However, the researcher will take the following steps.

- Only the researcher and the typist who transcribes the tapes will listen to the tapes. He/she will sign a confidentiality agreement
- With your permission the tapes and transcripts will be stored in a secure place until the completion of the research. Since this material belongs to you, your wishes about what happens to it at the end of the project will be respected.
- Participants will only be identified by a non-de-plume. All identifying material will be removed from the transcripts.

All participants will be asked to complete a follow-up questionnaire, which will take approximately 20 minutes.

Leading and Managing: An exploratory study into the perceptions of newly appointed secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals about their work

PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

This consent form will be held for a period of five (5) years

I have read the Information Sheet and have had the opportunity to have the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I agree/do not agree to taking part if invited in the interview phase of this research. (A separate consent form will be sent to invited participants in this stage)

I agree/do not agree to receiving a follow up questionnaire later in the year

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

I am interested/not interested in receiving a copy of the findings of this study,

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Full Name printed - _____

Appendix 5
Covering letter - Questionnaire Two



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www.massey.ac.nz

Thank you for taking part in my exploratory study of newly appointed secondary Deputy Principals/Assistant Principals about their work as leaders and managers in New Zealand secondary schools. I appreciated the time you spent in filling out my first questionnaire earlier in the year.

I also appreciate you agreeing to complete the second questionnaire now you have been in the job for several months. As a former deputy Principal I acknowledge the time constraints that you have especially at such a busy time of the year.

The second questionnaire asks you to reflect on your experiences, attitudes and perceptions of the work of a DP/AP now you have been in the job for a few months.

I have enclosed a stamped addresses envelope for you to return the completed questionnaire to me.

Should you have any questions regarding this project please contact me by phone at 09 623 8976 or by email at jm.scott@auckland.ac.nz or contact my research supervisor:

Dr Marian Court
Department of Social and
Policy Studies in Education
Massey University
Private Bag 11222
Palmerston North
Phone: 06 351 3462
Email: M.R.Court@massey.ac.nz

Julia Scott
TEAM Solutions
Faculty of Education
University of Auckland
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Research Thesis - Interview Guide

Leaders or Managers: An exploratory study of the perceptions of newly appointed secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals about their work

Researcher: Julia Scott

Interview Guide

The interview guide will follow a semi-structured interview format where I will be able to be flexible in terms of the order in which topics are considered. More significantly this will allow the participant to explore ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by myself or that are significant to them.

The exact interview questions have not yet been fully developed as some of the questions will evolve out of the patterns themes, similarities and differences that emerge from the initial questionnaire.

Consequently, the following interview guide is an indication of the nature of the questions in a bullet-pointed format:

Knowledge and understanding of the new position as a DP or AP:

- Why did you apply for this position?
- How confident do you feel about your knowledge and understanding of the work, which you will be doing in your new position? Explain how you prepared yourself for this new job.
- What sorts of things do you think you will be doing if you are demonstrating leadership in your new position?
- What sorts of things do you think you will be doing if you are demonstrating management skills in your new position?

Appendix 7
Data Analysis of Questionnaire

Question 22. Prior to your appointment did you undertake any preparation/training/professional development to meet the challenges of the new position? Please circle as many as apply to you and give specific details in the space provided

Type of activity/responses	No	Details/ Examples/ Participant reference number
One day courses	6	Leadership training See 1, 18, 20
Longer courses (2 days plus)	14	Leading and managing faculties 27, 26 X 5.
Professional conferences	9	Teaching and learning Aspiring leaders Conference Thinking Conference
Professional development contracts	5	ICT clusters/writing contracts/MOE research Supporting new senior managers X 2 (22, 39)
Tertiary study	7	Promotes reflection/enquiring practice MBA which gave confidence to lead, plus inspiration (9, 11, 39)
Learning on the job (previous position x12)	26	Previous position acting in the role - two brief stints in the job external. 6 weeks acting in the position learned from previous principal Large number of roles experienced <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Board rep • Union rep • Negotiating a contract • Curriculum leadership Acknowledgement of the difficulties when starting in a new school - you start from scratch Feedback from staff is very valuable Voluntarily requested senior management tasks without pay or time allowance - gave me insight into SMT which took my thinking outside the square 43 Worked extensively in the area already - 10 years Given opportunities in SMT while waiting for new Headmaster to arrive
Other	8	Mentor - provides insight, guidance, referrals to others and research involvement in tasks that might be needed in the future eg timetabling, working with MOE 59, 20, 1, 3.

<p>1. If you were thinking about it now what sort of training or professional learning or development do you think effective leaders or leadership and management from a DP/AP's point of view might need? What would be beneficial?</p>	<p>Internal</p> <p>Not Learning on the job</p> <p>Differences between learning of job - leadership rather than management</p>
<p>Well see I don't know because the sort of routine things there are some things that you can learn and you can get your head around like I don't do this but I think I can learn it to do the pay or the staffing and I could learn to do the timetable but you know I don't see that you have to have learned to do that sort of thing before you come in but can you learn to be a leader you have to recognize leadership qualities and appreciate leadership qualities in others to and then you can't just emulate somebody else because you have to have your own style you can't be someone else I don't know it's a really tricky question I don't know whether you had if you ran course for aspiring AP/DP's what you would put in them I think you would probably have to have robust support networks but how do you train for that I don't know</p>	<p>Mentor ship</p>
<p>1. So you are going to develop in this position so what sorts of things would you see as important for you?</p>	<p>Characteristic 1</p>
<p>I see probably what's most crucial is having people you trust that you can talk to now I think that having a designated mentor would be wonderful and I set that up for myself now</p>	<p>male/female?</p>
<p>1. Is that somebody in the school or outside the school</p>	<p>Characteristic 2</p>
<p>Its going to be I mean obviously I have people in the school that I can confide in but this will be somebody outside of school but a former principal with a good understanding of what's going on and on the same wave length sort of thing and I know that lots of principals have</p>	<p>Characteristic 3</p>
<p>....</p>	<p>Challenges - Internal Appointments</p>
<p>1. A critical friend?</p>	<p>Internal Challenge - (2) developing Trust</p>
<p>Critical friend or there is some other term somebody that you can go and talk to and thrash things out really and I think actually most of all that I mean its nice you have to get on with the other people in your team and you have to build those links because I have to say that early on there was I came into a strange situation in where the whole team had been appointed but the DP was going to replace the one who had gone hadn't been appointed and so it was a very strange situation to come into at the beginning of the year when people were wondering well whose it going to be whose it going to be and things were quite guarded and then being the new person and there were some tensions that I would say are gone now because everybody has to recognize that we all need each other and you have got to appreciate the jobs and the responsibilities and value the responsibilities that the whole team has because the whole thing oddest work unless everyone is supportive of each other and that took a while to develop actually from my point of view it did anyway</p>	

Appendix 9
Authority for Release of Tape Transcripts



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Leaders or Managers: An exploratory study of the perceptions of newly appointed secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals about their work

AUTHORITY FOR THE RELEASE OF TAPE TRANSCRIPTS

This form will be held for a period of five (5) years

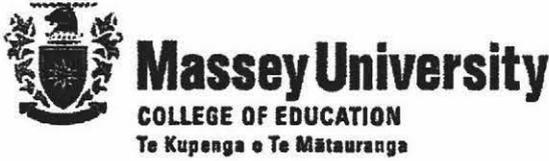
I confirm that I have had the opportunity to read and amend the transcript of the interview/s conducted with me.

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used by the researcher, Julia Scott, in reports and publications arising from the research.

Signature:

Date:

Full Name - printed



Leaders or Managers: An exploratory study of the perceptions of newly appointed secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals about their work

TRANSCRIBER'S CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I (Full Name - printed)

agree to transcribe the tapes provided to me.

I agree to keep confidential all the information provided to me.

I will not make any copies of the transcripts or keep any record of them, other than those required for the project.

Signature: _____ **Date:** _____