Chapter One: Introduction

Research Context

The role that assistant/deputy principals (AP/DPs) play in supporting the educational effectiveness of our secondary schools has been subject to ongoing academic debate for over 30 years. As part of the senior management team, AP/DPs have close daily contact with the principal and they serve a role in supporting the various management and administrative responsibilities that are delegated to the principal by the school board. This close relationship to the principal, coupled with the nature of the work has served to legitimate the assumption that the AP/DP position is a transition stage in a journey towards principalship (Scoggins & Bishop, 1993). Unfortunately, because of this assumption and ongoing concerns regarding principal recruitment, much of the research focus involving AP/DPs is within the field of principal succession (see for example Cardno, 2003; Collins, 2006; Grubb & Flessa, 2006; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). As a result, only minimal attention has been paid in the literature to the unique professional life of the AP/DP and their contribution to the educational effectiveness in the schools in which they serve.

This lack of research interest is even more pronounced in terms of studies focused on those individuals who could be considered career AP/DPs. Career AP/DPs are defined in this study as AP/DPs who have no future aspirations towards principalship. The lack of research focus on these individuals is somewhat surprising given that international studies and surveys across a number of different countries consistently highlight that between 40 – 60% of Assistant/Deputy Principals (AP/DPs) have no desire to pursue principalship and consider their role as a vocation and terminal career (d'Arbon, Duigan, & Duncan, 2002; Douglas, 2007; Gronn & Rawlings-Sanaei, 2003; James & Whiting, 1998). Indeed it was James and Whiting (1998) who first gave the term career AP/DPs to these individuals and this current

study builds on some of their arguments. It would seem that many individuals derive a great deal of satisfaction from the role they play as AP/DPs in schools and, for whatever reason, are committed to and fulfilled by, the responsibilities that come with the position. Grubb and Flessa (2006) note that there has been in the United States and many commonwealth countries a perceived lack of 'quality' candidates applying for principalship (Grubb & Flessa, 2006), and a subsequent focus on the issue of leadership succession that may have served to deny career AP/DPs a greater voice and opportunity to have their professional needs and aspirations fully debated and recognised.

That is not to say that the literature does not identify the roles and responsibilities that all AP/DPs undertake as part of the position. There is considerable research literature that identifies the administrative and management tasks for which AP/DPs take responsibility, including studies in the United States and the United Kingdom such as Scoggins and Bishop (1993), Reed and Connor (1982), Pellicer and Stevenson (1991), James and Whiting (1998) and in New Zealand, Graham and Smith (1999), Douglas (2007) and Scott (2008). These studies have served to identify the position as focusing on the management and monitoring of organisational stability at the expense of instructional leadership. Consequently, many academics have questioned the educational importance of the AP/DP position. Bucker and Jones (1990, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) provide an example of this perspective in arguing that the majority of AP/DPs serve a mainly management oriented role in schools with little significant input into leadership of learning. While a number of academics advocate for a wider leadership of learning role for AP/DPs (Calabrese, 1991; Cranston, 2007; Marshall, 1992; Pounder & Crow, 2005), only a small number of these academics have undertaken studies that include the actual voice and perspectives of the individuals carrying out the role. It is even more surprising that an exhaustive search of the literature located only one study

that focuses on the personal perspectives of career AP/DPs about their positions (James & Whiting, 1998). If such a significant group of senior administrators is motivated to remain in their current position, it is crucial that a greater understanding of their particular aspirations, perspectives and professional needs is developed.

Unfortunately, much of the limited international and local research focused on AP/DPs is very dated and was carried out between 15 and 30 years ago. Since that time, there have been major reforms in New Zealand education. Of particular significance is the move to self-managing schools with a focus on local, site-based management. A number of recent studies and theses, including Graham and Smith (1999), James and Whiting (1998), Douglas (2007) and Scott (2008) have corroborated the earlier findings in terms of the positions' emphasis on management and administration. Despite these studies there is still a huge void in our current understanding concerning the aspirations and personal perspectives of career AP/DPs and little effort has gone into describing and analysing their professional lives.

Research Interest

What first sparked my interest in this area was my curiosity regarding what it was about the AP/DP position that attracted so many individuals to view the AP/DP role as an attractive position that they were happy to remain in long term. I had my own experiences as an Assistant and Deputy Principal in two secondary schools in New Zealand for approximately 16 years plus four years as a Principal of a small coeducational secondary school to reflect upon and it was an area that I was quite enthusiastic to pursue as a research study. I had met many effective AP/DPs during my career who also really enjoyed the AP/DP role who could be classified as career AP/DPs and I had felt for many years that their professional development needs and educational aspirations had been largely ignored. As a result I have

published one article (Shore, 2009) on the lack of professional support and understanding of career AP/DPs, while provisionally registered in the EdD programme at Massey University.

As an AP/DP or Principal for the last 20 years, I had experienced first-hand the professional roles undertaken by individuals in these positions and the impact of the devolution of management responsibility to schools that was an outcome of 'Tomorrow's Schools'. These experiences had certainly provided some insights and understanding of the issues impacting on AP/DPs. My initial reading of the literature endorsed several of these experiences and provided only some answers to my questions about what career motivations are held by other APs and DPs in New Zealand secondary schools.

Statement of Purpose

The purpose of this study therefore, was to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the perspectives and professional needs of a group of AP/DPs working in New Zealand secondary schools who considered themselves career AP/DPs. While it has been acknowledged that the conscious decision to reject principalship was an important factor in some British career AP/DPs decision to remain in their current role (James & Whiting, 1998), this was not a focus of this current study. The issue of principalship succession has been investigated over the last fifteen years including AP/DPs perspectives and decisions in regard to striving for principalship (Cranston, 2006; James & Whiting, 1998; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). However, if so many individuals choose to remain as career AP/DPs, other factors related to the actual role of the position must also have a strong influence on this decision.

Unfortunately, as Rutherford (2003) pointed out, our current understanding of the educational importance of the position and the issues that impact on the AP/DPs effectiveness in carrying

out this leadership role, has been a much neglected aspect of the research. In recognition of this, the study had a largely exploratory focus as it endeavoured to develop a more complete picture of career AP/DPs, the professional challenges and support they receive in undertaking this role and their perception of the impact they had on improving teaching and learning in the schools they serve. This study can be considered, therefore, as a first step in identifying the professional characteristics and aspirations of the career AP/DP population in New Zealand. Hopefully, it will open up further areas for future investigation.

If educational leadership is such a vital element in developing our capacity to meet the ongoing educational challenges of our time (Fullan, 2009), then a thorough understanding of the AP/DP role and those who serve as AP/DPs in New Zealand secondary schools is imperative. The development of strategies to support the ongoing professional growth and effectiveness of those individuals who serve in the position is dependent on research studies which acknowledge the realities of the position, identify the elements of this role that motivate and challenge individuals and which look to interrogate the current structures and processes that support AP/DPs in carrying out educational leadership in their institutions. It is hoped that this study will help fill a gap in current knowledge and understanding of this unique position.

Research Aim

The research aim of this study was to identify whether there is a group of AP/DPs working in New Zealand secondary schools who have a strong sense of "contentment in their current role" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 359) and who view the assistant/deputy principalship as a legitimate terminal career. The study also aimed to develop a greater understanding of how

educational leaders classified in the study as career AP/DPs perceive and experience their work and gain satisfaction from the role.

As part of this research aim the intention was to investigate whether the demographic data, career histories, professional perspectives and development opportunities of career AP/DPs were in any way significantly different from those AP/DPs aspiring towards principalship.

Research Questions

Drawing on both personal and professional experience as well as the review of literature provided in the next chapter the following research questions were developed to guide the study and the data gathering process:

a) What evidence supports the identification of secondary school career AP/DPs who consider their role as a legitimate terminal career alternative to principalship?

b) In what ways do the personal characteristics, professional perspectives and views of the role of the career AP/DP differ from those AP/DPs aspiring to principalship?

c) What are the experiences and perspectives of career AP/DPs with regard to:

   i.   their attraction to the role?

   ii.   their perception of the support they have received in carrying out the role?

   iii. the impact of their management and administrative responsibilities on their capacity to lead teaching and learning?

   iv.   the satisfaction levels that they derive from varying aspects of the position and work?

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

There are two main areas of research that have focused on the study of the AP/DP. The first provides a broad perspective on the historical roles and responsibilities of AP/DPs and the second focuses on the position in terms of a transitory stage on the journey to principalship. The first of these two areas of research focus was motivated by a growing body of academic opinion that the role of the AP/DP needed to be restructured and redefined in order to prepare possible aspirants for the challenging role of principalship while, at the same time, providing more positive, leadership focused roles for the AP/DP. This second area has been motivated by international concerns regarding the perceived shortage of 'quality' candidates aspiring to principalship. The following literature review will explore these studies and debates and will outline the theoretical approach and concepts that inform and frame the research study.

In developing this literature review it is important to first discuss some of the key leadership terms that are used extensively in the academic literature and which relate to the role of the AP/DP.

Concepts of Leadership

Instructional leadership as a leadership model came to prominence in the late 1970's as the effective schools and school improvement factions sought to improve school programmes and outcomes. The subsequent rise of the accountability movement at the turn of the 21st century created further interest in this leadership model (Hallinger, 2011) particularly from policymakers and advocates of the new right political agenda. As a result instructional leadership was rolled out in many countries as the best practice model for principals who wished to be effective leaders. Despite this, instructional leadership as a leadership concept

has many critics and, therefore, it is worth looking at this debate in some depth and to explain how there has been a shift towards favouring use of the concept of pedagogical leadership. Most recently the ideas and practices of what is commonly called leadership for learning have gained favour as an all encompassing term for leadership practices linked to improving student learning outcomes.

Instructional leadership is a concept that has had different definitions and no one set of guidelines regarding what an instructional leader does (Flath, 1989). However, during the 1980s and the early 90s, there was some agreement amongst academics (Fullan, 1991; Haughey & MacElwain, 1992; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985 ;Wildy & Dimmock, 1993) that the focus of instructional leadership was the enhancement of student learning through such actions as coordinating and facilitating staff development programmes, supervising and evaluating teachers, driving the process of building teacher capacity, promoting action research and developing the capacity of the staff to work collaboratively to solve instructional issues. Flath (1989) argued that an instructional leader identifies instructional quality as the number one priority in the school and strongly promotes that aspect in carrying out the role.

Robinson et al. (2009), Anderson and Pigford (1987) and Weindling (1990) maintain that instructional leadership requires a very deep and clear knowledge of the core business of teaching and learning. While the importance of many generic leadership skills and approaches are not overlooked, unless these skills are "integrated within the professional knowledge base of teaching, they will not advance the educational agenda of improving teaching and learning" (Robinson et al., 2009, p. 206). In order to carry out the role of an instructional leader, educators need to know what effective instructional leadership is and how to become an effective instructional leader (Anderson & Pigford, 1987).

Some critics (e.g, Sheppard, 1996), however, argue that instructional leadership can be seen to be paternalistic, archaic and dependent on docile followers. Traditional instructional leadership places the power in the hands of the hierarchical leader whereas if teachers are committed and competent these forms of instructional leadership are not appropriate (Sergiovanni, 1991). As a result of criticism of the positional rank of the principal within the instructional leadership model, Marks and Printy (2003) put forward the concept of shared instructional leadership. Under this model school leaders invest the necessary resources and instructional support needed to assist teachers. Shared instructional leadership involves teachers and school leaders actively collaborating on curriculum, instruction and assessment issues. There is a shared responsibility as leaders and teachers work together to find ways to improve teaching and learning in the school. The principal or school leader is "not the sole instructional leader but the leader of instructional leaders" (Marks & Printy, 2003, p. 374).

The distribution of power and control within educational organisations underpins much of the criticism of instructional leadership by those who were looking to promote more democratic models of school leadership such as advocated within some approaches to transformational leadership (see for example, Foster, 1989). Foster (1989) viewed leadership as a critical practice requiring potential leaders to reject the clinical and "…scientisitic mindset that has engulfed the field and open themselves up to human, moral, and transformative dimensions that leadership offers" (Foster, 1989, p. 6). Clearly critical of the clinical and authoritarian approach to leadership within the instructional leadership model academics such as Foster (1989) argued that leadership needed to be nurtured within the organisation rather than being controlled by it. Transformative leadership was seen as a way of fundamentally changing relationships in an organisation in order to establish democratic communities where the

voices at all levels in the organisation could be heard and contribute to achieving
"…movement towards excellence" (Foster, 1989, p. 11).

The relationships of power were at the heart of the transformational leadership concept and Foster (1989) viewed this approach as a process of engaging those in the organisation in a critical analysis of individual and social realities and establishing standards of involvement through which learning could be achieved. Foster, (1989) viewed leadership as a reciprocal two-way process where both leaders and followers aspired to higher levels of shared moral purpose. The concept is emancipatory drawing out new possibilities and new versions of how humans might interact with each other. Within the educational setting transformational leadership resided in the mutuality of needs and in working out ways to achieve those needs through empowering others and engaging in developing a mutual vision of educational excellence while orientated towards values such a freedom and equality (Foster, 1989).

Rather than being focused on the principal's positional power in bringing about change in the organisation, in the transformational approach the principal was viewed as an inspirational figure who "through vision; a stress on creativity; and the encouragement and nurturing of different ideas from their followers" (Scott, 2008, p. 36) could influence staff to transform the culture in the school to bring about positive change in the classroom. Academics such as Hallinger and Heck (1996) promoted the idea that transformational leadership could influence members of an organisation by building from the bottom rather than the top down. In this approach transformational leaders give attention to the commitment and capacities of organisational members required to meet the needs of students. Transformational leadership is less about developing teachers as instructional experts and more about increasing the commitment of staff to meeting organisational goals (Bush & Glover, 2003). However,

transformational leadership is also a contested concept with much debate occurring over both the definitions and understandings of this leadership approach.

One of the strongest criticisms of transformational leadership was the way it viewed the principal as the (only) initiator or leader of change. Critics of the 'leader centric' model of transformational leadership such as Foster (1989) viewed leadership quite differently seeing it as a reciprocal two-way process where both leaders and followers aspired to higher levels of shared moral purpose. Grace (1985) and Court (2003) shared these concerns viewing the leadership concept as endorsing a hierarchical top-down view of leadership with the principal ultimately controlling any final decision. As a result there were further calls for a more participative and democratic model of leadership including Shields (2005) who called for more involvement of staff, student and parents if the school was to truly represent its community.

As a result of these criticisms of transformational leadership and the continued desire to develop more democratic, 'bottom up' and inclusive leadership approaches the distributed leadership approach gained some prominence. Distributed leadership, according to Harris (2009), is about the enactment of leadership and reinforces the importance of interactions rather than actions. A distributed perspective on leadership rationalises that "leading and managing is more important than the nature of the roles and responsibilities associated with leading and management" (Harris, 2009, p. 3). Other theorists, including Spillane (2006), argue that the formal organisational structure and those that occupy a formal position in it can actively obstruct organisational performance by not allowing other members to fully participate and access resources that could improve performance. Distributed leadership is

seen as essentially mobilising leadership at all levels and not just "relying on leadership at the top or seeing leadership only as a formal role or position" (Harris, 2009).

Distributed leadership as a concept moves the focus away from a traditional leader-follower relationship towards a more equitable power relationship in which all relationships are considered important. Spillane (2005) emphasises that distributed leadership redefines leadership around expertise rather than role resulting in more of the participants in the organisation exercising power in the area of their expertise. However, some academics, including Levin (2009), argue that distributed leadership is not in itself a significant or useful understanding of leadership at all. Levin (2009) claims that the concept of distributed leadership could easily be replaced by the word self-responsibility where individuals are provided with the conditions to just 'do their job'.

Nevertheless, a number of studies including Bush, Abbot, Glover, Goodall and Smith, (2012), Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) and Silins and Mulford (2002) have suggested that the process of distributing a large proportion of leadership to both AP/DPs and teachers has a positive influence on senior leadership and teacher practice and student engagement and outcomes. The Best Evidence Syntheses on Leadership (Robinson et al., 2009) makes the same point in stating that the reality of working in a complex educational organisation is that the "required expertise is far greater than could be acquired by any one head of faculty, assistant or deputy principal or principal" (Robinson et al., 2009).

While the distribution of power across an organisation has many functional benefits there is also, for some, an underlying driving force which is motivated by power rather than leadership of teaching and learning (Robinson et al., 2009). Many advocates of distributed

leadership view it through a lens of democracy and equity and are clearly committed to addressing their perception that the current concentration of power and authority is held within the management team. However, as pointed out by Robinson et al. (2009), school leadership is not about running a democratic organisation but rather the development and implementation of teaching and learning practices that lead to valued outcomes for all students. This aspect needs to be clearly understood.

Leadership models, such as distributed and transformational leadership, emphasise the development of organisational values, culture and community ethos as a means of attaining organisational improvement. Unfortunately, researchers such as Robinson et al. (2008) and Hallinger (2011) were critical of these approaches to leadership in that they did not appear to measure all of the processes by which leaders impact teaching and learning and as a result there was further focus on the development of a leadership concept that incorporated some of the strengths of instructional leadership within a wider framework that acknowledged the importance of shared culture, mission, dialogue and practice. The instructional leadership concept is problematic however, according to MacNeil, Cavanagh, Dellar and Silicox (2004), because it relates to only one part of the teaching and learning cycle and fails to encompass such areas as formative and summative assessment, class culture, teacher discourse that promotes academic risk taking and it focuses on instruction rather than student learning. Instructional leadership also continues to be viewed as a power based transaction which inevitably views leadership from a hierarchal rather than inclusive perspective.

Consequently, MacNeil et al. (2004) promoted the use of the concept of pedagogical leadership arguing that the term pedagogy covers a wider range of aspects of the teaching act than instruction. Their argument was that pedagogy "specifically recognises the cultural and

societal aspects of what is learned and why it is learned…and exposes the conscious and unconscious decisions made by school leaders as the communities agents of enculturation" (p. 5). Pedagogic leadership is viewed as a deliberate act that motivates others resulting in culturally aware learning in a second party. This learning includes both students and teachers and takes "account of the 'why', 'how' and 'when' of learning not just the 'what'" (MacNeil et al., 2004, p. 6). In practice pedagogical leadership is about dialogue not monologue and the leadership process is a discussion where all participants are an active part in the dialogue.

MacNeil et al. (2004, p. 8) claimed that pedagogical leadership can be viewed as a single component within school leadership or alternatively as a distinct style of leadership and they identified a number of specific attributes that characterise it. These attributes include (a) a commitment to developing a shared vision and sense of mission regarding student learning, (b) the application of expert knowledge (at many levels in the organisation) about student learning and development, (c) the engagement and empowerment of teachers, (d) creation and sharing of knowledge throughout the school, (e) application of a re-culturing approach towards school improvement and (f) emphasis on pedagogic rather than administrative practice for leaders in the school.

Researchers such Robinson et al. (2008) also contended that pedagogical leadership better captures the impact of leadership on learning outcomes than other approaches to educational leadership. The Best Evidence Synthesis iteration (BES) on school leadership and student outcomes (Robinson, Hohepa, & Lloyd, 2009) identified pedagogical leadership as clearly the most effective leadership style in terms of impact on student outcomes. "The more leaders focus their influence, their learning, and their relationships with teachers on the core business

of teaching and learning, the greater their influence on student outcomes" (Robinson, Hohepa, & Lloyd, 2009, p. 40).

Leadership for Learning

In the last decade the ideas and use of the concepts of instructional leadership, distributed leadership, transformational leadership, shared instructional leadership and pedagogical leadership have given way to an increasing use of the overarching term of 'leadership for learning'. Leadership for learning incorporates elements of all these previous leadership concepts into a more coherent approach that focuses on building the schools capacity to sustain school wide improvement in teaching and learning. It has a strong focus on leadership strategies that support the professional growth of others in the organisation including AP/DPs, faculty heads and teaching staff and views leadership as just one factor in efforts to bring about change in schools.

Hallinger (2011) defines leadership for learning as the persistent focus on improving "the conditions for learning and creating coherence in values and actions across classrooms day in and day out in the school" (p. 135). Leadership for learning is a response to recent reviews of empirical studies that emphasise that successful school leadership must include practices that are educational, pedagogical and learning-centred (Hallinger, 2003; Robinson et al., 2008). As Robinson et al. (2008) noted, abstract leadership theories such as transformational, distributed and shared leadership have focused on values rather than data and have provided poor guidance to the specific leadership practices that have the biggest impact on student learning and leadership for learning. Leadership for learning is a more comprehensive view of leadership that incorporates longitudinal research findings and empirical reviews on effective educational leadership practices (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson &

Wahlsttrom, 2004; Robinson et al., 2008) and while still incomplete provides better guidance regarding effective leadership strategies for principals (Hallinger 2011).

In the leadership for learning model the role of the principal is important but success will only come through the efforts of others working in conjunction with the principal. The leadership influence of the principal is focused on creating a culture where the school is seen as a community of learners. Hallinger (2011) talks of mutual influence where the principal's leadership is mediated by the school culture, work processes and people and the leader must be both encouraging and humble. The principal's role is to promote the pedagogical development of all teaching professionals in the organisation. It is this aspect that is important to this current study in that this leadership concept views AP/DPs as having a clear pedagogical leadership mandate in partnership with their principals in their schools.

Leadership for learning incorporates Marks and Printy's (2003) earlier notion of shared instructional leadership having a strong emphasis on pedagogical practices which are adapted to the particular needs of each school context. The challenge for principals and other designated leaders in the school is to understand the context first and then select the appropriate tool or set of strategies to support organisational improvement in teaching and learning. As Hallinger (2011) pointed out however, there is no magic leadership bullet and there is still much research to be done regarding how principals can best match strategy to context. That said, leadership for learning is strongly grounded in the model of pedagogical leadership while at the same time promoting distributed and "selected features of transformational models such as modelling, individual focus and capacity development" (Hallinger, 2011, p. 142).

An Approach to Address a Crisis in Leadership

The leadership for learning concept has also been discussed within the literature focused on the perceived crisis in educational leadership. "There is or soon will be, a shortage of head-teachers or principals in the education system….there is widespread reluctance from those in other formal leadership positions to take on the role of head or principal' (Harris, 2007, p. 105). This comment is typical of the concerns expressed regarding principal succession in the majority of western countries over the last decade.

The relentless accountability drive in western educations systems has placed acute pressure on those in positions of responsibility and within the move to self-managing schools the principal is essentially responsible and accountable for everything that happens in the school (Cranston, 2007). This intensification of school leadership practice is resulting in some principals feeling like they are losing control of their schools resulting in chronic illness and early retirement and even death (MacBeath, 2007). This has proved to be a barrier to those considering principalship and has promoted the suggestion that there is likely to be "a 'crisis' in the depth and quality of the pool of applicants for principalship" (Cranston, 2007, p. 112). As a result of the impact on principals of what Cowie and Crawford (2007) label 'greedy work' there has been significant interest in the leadership for learning approach as a way of supporting principals and reinvigorating and renewing systems of leadership in our schools.

Harris and Townsend (2007) have argued that system renewal is more likely to be achieved through lateral and distributed forms of capacity building which recognises that leadership abounds at all levels in the organisation and identifies teacher leadership as being an important contributing factor in improving teaching and learning. Fullan (2000) and Harris and Townsend (2007) have also pointed to growing evidence of the importance of building

lateral leadership capacity as a means of generating and sustaining school improvement. Implicit in this model of leadership for learning is the focus on the practice of teachers engaged in leading innovation and change at both the school and the classroom level.

Within the leadership for learning approach principals and their senior colleagues help staff to develop a common vision and demonstrate "through their actions the organisations commitment to the values and beliefs at the heart of the mission" (Murphy, Elliot, Goldring & Porter, 2007, p. 183). They push leadership outwards finding opportunities to create more lateral learning and exchange among equals, fostering and modelling mutual critique and challenge (MacBeath, 2007). Leadership for learning vigorously promotes professional development, nurtures and grows communities of professional practice and shapes the organisation so that it operates according to the principles of community (such as trust, honesty, democratic participation).

School leaders who operate within the 'leadership for learning' approach have a strong orientation to the core mission of the school - teaching and learning. They need to be knowledgeable about pedagogy and actively involved in the instructional programme of the school. Effective school leaders are focused on identifying and removing barriers that prevent colleagues from doing their job and attempting to align structures in a way that supports and motivates staff, promotes initiatives and fosters professional social networks in order to meet school goals (Swaffield & MacBeath, 2006).

The leadership for learning approach also offers those who hold formal leadership positions in schools the potential to manage issues of work intensification as it acknowledges that the role of those in formal leadership positions is to grow others. "Its orientation is essentially a

professional development one in which as people prove their ability to exercise leadership they are given more" (MacBeath, 2007, p. 359). This enables principals and senior colleagues to acknowledge the leadership of others and 'let go' more as levels of institutional trust are built. Underlying all of this, is a belief in the potential of others where principals and AP/DPs act as servant leaders setting an example through living out shared community values and establishing norms for others to follow (MacBeath, 2007).

Implications for this Research and Analysis

Having discussed a number of different concepts of leadership and the relevance of the leadership for learning model to the current crisis in leadership it is important to highlight that this study did not set out to critique the AP/DP role with respect to the various models of leadership. Rather it aimed to be an exploratory study to grow our understanding of the aspirations and work of career AP/DPs. However, the latest iteration of educational leadership theory, leadership for learning, identifies a pedagogical focus as one of the most significant factors in effective leadership practice. Pedagogical leadership is a term which most New Zealand AP/DPs have some understanding of (particularly as a result of the work published in the Best Evidence Synthesis by Robinson et. al, 2009) in regard to how they can best support their teaching colleagues and their practice. As will be explained more in the next chapter, in this study, the role of the AP/DP has been investigated in regard to three broad categories of responsibility; (a) administration, (b) management of students and (c) supporting teachers and their practice. The leadership concepts and approaches that have been reviewed in this section will be drawn upon in the reporting, analysis and discussion of the responses of AP/DPs to survey and focus group questions about their experiences, particularly those related how they support the teaching and learning practices of their colleagues. A pedagogical leadership role is defined as those leadership actions that support

the development of a shared vision and mission regarding teaching and learning through the application of expert knowledge about teaching and learning, sharing that knowledge throughout the school and empowering teachers to develop their practice with support (MacNeil et al, 2004). In this study therefore, the pedagogical leadership term is used to identify deliberate leadership actions of AP/DPs in supporting and encouraging improvement in teaching and learning practice in their schools and to distinguish these from their administrative and student management leadership roles.

Having reviewed leadership theory that has relevance for this study, the rest of this chapter reviews the theoretical approaches and research that has focused on understanding career choices and pathways in education.

Careers and Education

The theoretical models used by theorists to explain career decisions and choice fall into a number of different perspectives including the psychological, developmental and social learning perspectives. Psychological theorists such as Super (1963) and Holland (1985) argue that in expressing a vocational preference an individual puts into occupational terminology his or her idea of the sort of person they are. Alternatively, academics who write from a social learning perspective including Lent, Brown and Hackett (1994), focus on factors including self-efficacy, motivation and goals. Developmental theorists such as Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) and Super (1992) concentrate on the distinct stages to career decision making. Finally, sociologists such as Bandura (1986) discuss career decisions from the point of view of the constraints that affect career choice including culture, social class and gender. Each of these perspectives is discussed in this section.

Palmer's (1997) study of principals and deputy principals is framed by career theories by Super (1992) and Holland (1973) which appear to have relevance to this study. Super's (1992) life-career rainbow model based on a developmental perspective argues that one's career can be defined by five separate stages relating to an individual's age. These stages are:

a) Growth – ages 0 to 14;

b) Exploration – ages 14 to 25;

c) Establishment – ages 25 to 45;

d) Maintenance – ages 45 to 65; and

e) Decline – ages 65+.

It is the maintenance stage that would appear to have the most relevance to the individuals in this study. In her literature review Palmer (1997) describes Super's (1992) proposition that during the maintenance stage of one's career, individuals connect to their world of work by holding their own and coping, updating and innovating. The maintenance stage, according to Super (1992), is a development stage where individual careers evolve and emerge.

Adding to these ideas is Holland's (1973) 'theory of careers'. Holland (1973) puts forward the proposition based on a psychological perspective that individuals make job choices based on a decision-making process whereby they match their personality traits to their work environment. People look for work environments which use their skills and abilities and that enable them to express their attitudes or values and which provide agreeable experiences (Palmer, 1997). Holland's (1973) assumptions are also supported by Minor (1992) who found evidence that individuals who change occupations are often seeking more congruent environments: a closer match between their personality and the work environment.

Holland's (1973) suggestion that vocational satisfaction, stability and achievement is dependent upon the match between personality and the work environment is also supported by other studies including those undertaken by Maclean (1991) and Williams (1994). While these theories do not appear to have been applied to the study of career AP/DPs they certainly raise some interesting possibilities for investigation in this study. Is one of the factors behind the decision of many AP/DPs to remain in this career linked to the match between personality and work environment?

Research by Kanchier and Unruh (1988) also made links to Holland's (1973) career theories in investigating individuals who had worked in an organisation for more than three years and those who left their positions with only limited tenure. The two groups were labelled as the 'changers' and the 'non changers'. Interestingly, Kanchier and Unruh (1988) argued that 'changers' were individuals who were intrinsically motivated risk-takers and were orientated towards change and achievement. The 'changers' were described as in a continual search for a better fit between their occupations and personalities.

The chaos theory of careers also offers some interesting insights in regard to change and some other factors related to individual's career journeys. The chaos theory of careers identifies individuals as complex dynamic systems (Bright & Pryor, 2005). This complexity is viewed from the myriad of human and natural systems which impact on each of us and which includes families, labour markets, economies and organisations. According to advocates of this theory, these systems impact on our careers and, as individuals, we are not just passive recipients within these systems but actively develop "networks of mutual influence either internally as ways of thinking, speaking and acting or externally in terms of relationships and experiences" (Pryor, 2010, p. 33). All of this complexity limits our capacity

to control our lives and our world. Our world, and by implication our careers, are impacted by order and disorder, stability and change, pattern and unpredictability. In applying the chaos theory of careers, we move from a mind-set of forecasting our career goals towards one of adapting and preparing for change.

The chaos theory of careers identifies five factors that impact on our career choices and decisions. These factors are complexity, change, chance, construction and contribution/meaning and each is said to contribute to an individual's uncertainty regarding a move onto new challenges. Complexity is the feeling of being overloaded where there seems to be too much to consider, too many demands and too much information for the individual to process. The change factor, as Peck (1978) described it, is the human aversion to change where we hope the need to change will go away as change involves self-discipline and uncertainty.

The factor chance is the challenge "to accept and embrace the reality of unpredictability and uncertainty as perpetual in, and integral to, human experience" (Pryor, 2010, p. 35). The factor of construction is especially relevant to those who feel 'stuck' in their jobs and fail to see any possibility of moving further within their career. Individuals will focus on the barriers to career development and dismiss any thoughts of promotion or change (Smith, 1999). Smith (1999) argues that many individuals need support to become more courageous in their career decisions.

Finally, the factor of contribution/meaning is where individuals shift to 'comfortable chaos' (Harvey & Herrild, 2005) where they know what they really want and remember their

priorities. Many individuals find it difficult to bridge the gap between their career aspirations and their actual behaviours.

Chaos theory has been used as a theoretical framework in guiding career counsellors as they seek to support clients who confront complexity, change, chance, construction and contribution. They attempt to ensure that clients understand that these are not threats to be avoided but opportunities, possibilities to explore and meanings to realise. However, the theory also has some interesting applications to any study looking to explore and explain career decisions.

Social cognitive career theory has also been used to explain the choices made by educationalists in determining career pathways. Social cognitive career theory is premised on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Social cognitive theory attempts to express the triadic interaction between the regulation of an individual's cognitive functions (self-efficacy, expectations and goals), their interaction on the environment (ethnicity, gender, social support) and their resulting influence on the individual's career development process (Chen & Kennedy, 2012). Social cognitive theory falls into the social learning perspective.

In relating this theory to career development, academics such as Sharf (2010) describe how our self-efficacy plays an influential role regarding the career choices we make and our resulting success. Individuals with a high sense of efficacy persist in the face of challenging tasks, are more likely to maintain a positive attitude and will continue to set goals throughout their career. In contrast, those individuals with low self-efficacy are less persistent and are more likely to feel overwhelmed to the point of giving up on the task or their career aspirations. Sharf (2010) also makes the point that an individual's self-efficacy is also

influenced by such factors as the people and surrounding of the organisation, the tasks in the role and the individual's feelings of competence regarding these tasks.

Within social cognitive career theory, factors which influence cognitive functioning are identified and where necessary challenged. An individual's cognitive functioning is affected by background contextual factors and "influences proximal to choice behaviour" (Chen & Kennedy, 2012, p. 39). Background contextual factors depend on an individual's culture and cultural expectations while proximal influences include the environmental factors that impact on career development including job opportunities, available career pathways and financial and professional development support. These influences can present as barriers to career development, however, as Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2000) suggest, the effects and stresses of an individual's experience diminish as his or her ability to cope with them increases. Social cognitive career theory offers some interesting insights into how to understand the factors that influence our career development journey and how individuals can be supported to develop higher levels of self-efficacy.

A further key theme within any review of the literature on careers and education is the influence of gender. Statistics from the Ministry of Education (2012) continue to highlight the underrepresentation of women as both principals and "as management unit holders of four units and above" (Scott, 2008, p. 11). Marshall (1992) noted that an examination of the literature regarding gender and educational leadership only served to confirm the view that despite doing everything necessary to display their competence and professionalism many were unable to attain the top leadership positions. The under-representation of women in educational leadership is further highlighted by a British study where survey results

illustrated only 17 percent of women deputy principals as compared to 38 percent of men were aspiring to, or actively seeking, the principalship (James & Whiting, 1998).

A number of areas are identified in the literature in attempting to investigate this phenomenon. Marshall (1992) records that female AP/DPs report being treated differently than their male counterparts and identifies stereotypical thinking as a major impediment to their progress. They argue that women face very clear risks in their attempts to become educational leaders. Blackmore (1995), Shakeshaft (1987) and Strachan (1993) have investigated these issues by focusing on the androcentricity of educational leadership. These studies argue that management is underpinned by more masculine ways of thinking and being. Graham and Smith (1999) expand on this idea in suggesting that organisational systems favour men for promotion in that the accepted styles of leadership are typically male and that these attitudes act as a significant gatekeeper in preventing women reaching top positions in educational leadership. They also argue that the way women organise their lives around family care-giving does not fit the traditional career pathway as pursued by their male counterparts.

The point regarding career pathways highlights the difficulties and sacrifices facing women pursuing a position in educational leadership. In studying those women who have gained promotion to principalship, Maclean (1992) found that these individuals have some common career factors including: worked in jobs for a shorter period of time, worked in a large number of schools and spent a greater proportion of their time in less preferred environments such as low socio-economic regions. These individuals were highly mobile and motivated to make significant life changes in both their career and personal situations in order to pursue promotion.

A number of studies into the career patterns of female principals including Hill (1994), Maclean (1992) and Strachan (1993) provide evidence that female principals are appointed at an older age than their male counterparts, and that they are less mobile due to family and relationship responsibilities and are under-represented in the larger schools. It would seem the pathway to the top educational leadership positions for female aspirants is a more challenging journey than for many of their male counterparts.

The literature on careers and education is certainly diverse and highlights that understanding the career decisions that individuals make is dependent to a large degree on what theoretical perspective is used to explain choice. The psychological and social learning perspectives, in particular, appear to have a strong relevance to this study and the conceptual framework for this study (see p. 48) draws from these particular perspectives.

It is now important to examine the literature that actually focuses on the AP/DP position both in New Zealand and overseas. While the research is limited and at times dated it does provide a fairly comprehensive picture of the professional lives of AP/DPs and the challenges they face in this particular leadership role.

Historical Roles & Responsibilities

A number of studies focus on the historical responsibilities of assistant/deputy principalship. The majority of these studies have a North American context and attempt to identify the roles and responsibilities of the position in order to debate the characteristics of the position. The findings of studies by Reed and Connor (1982) and Scoggins and Bishop (1993) emphasise the wide ranging set of tasks and the lack of a consistent, well-defined job description that

covers the role. However, within these studies, and others, job roles and responsibilities have been identified which have a strong commonality across time and place. These roles emphasise the preservation of organisational stability and the maintenance of systems. Pellicer and Stevenson (1991), Kelly (1987) and Reed and Connor (1982) all indicate that student discipline is the number one responsibility of high school AP/DPs. These same studies also highlight that this area of responsibility is often a point of frustration in that it is seen as negative, unending, relentless and unchanging (Kelly, 1987).

Behaviour management, counselling, supervision of students outside the classroom, supervision of buses, school assemblies, student functions and the coordination of extra-curricular activities are areas that a literature review undertaken by Scoggins and Bishop (1993) identified as job responsibilities that traditionally make up the AP/DP role. "The DP was often the person who kept things going" (Doring, 1993, p. 4) and it is this aspect of the role that also attracts some criticism. The AP/DPs role is often seen as very technical and having little impact on the key teaching and learning aspects of the school. It is probably of little surprise then that there has been "a real dearth of educational research in relation to the educational influence stemming from someone in the role of AP/DP" (Doring, 1993, p. 5).

There is a large body of evidence that suggests that the role of the AP/DP is made up of numerous clerical, custodial and other social duties which compromise their ability to carry out a leadership role. Panyanko and Rorie (1987) claim that the AP/DP suffers from 'busy person syndrome' – "it is possible for the ordinary AP/DP to go for weeks, or even months, buried deep in custodial, clerical, discipline and social duties, to the exclusion of meaningful interaction with teachers and students in the classroom setting" (Panyanko & Rorie, 1987, p. 8). This is a consistent message in the literature, corroborated by the findings of a number of

recent New Zealand studies and theses (e.g. Douglas, 2007; Farnham, 2009; Graham & Smith, 1999; Scott, 2008). For example, Graham and Smith (1999) describe the bits and pieces or 'rat bag' nature of the role which is heavily skewed towards administration and management. Farnham (2009) in a New Zealand masters thesis involving fifteen DPs in Auckland also makes the same point in arguing that the predominance of managerial and administrative tasks results in a busy, unpredictable and often reactive role. These studies only serve to corroborate the findings of a number of previous international studies in that the majority of AP/DPs in New Zealand have responsibilities that are weighted heavily in terms of administration and the maintenance of organisational stability rather than on leadership associated with teaching and learning.

One of the major problems in clearly defining the work of AP/DPs is the lack of attention given to studying the role. Kriekard and Norton, 1980 (cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) argue that this is a result of a lack of recognition for its importance and this often leads to a major organisational resource (AP/DPs) being misused by the school system. According to these academics, as long as the AP/DP continues to be perceived as a technician, this will continue to impede AP/DPs in assuming a full leadership role in the organisation.

The strong emphasis within the AP/DP role on maintaining a stable organisational environment is not to demean the role that AP/DPs play. As Pellicer and Stevenson (1991) argue, it would be difficult to imagine how most high schools could operate effectively without the day-to-day contributions of their AP/DPs. Despite this, there is a strong line of argument by a number of academics, including Douglas (2007) that the current job descriptions of many AP/DPs do not recognise the strengths and passions that many of these senior managers have for teaching and learning.

Given this albeit limited research, what does the literature describe as the key competencies that AP/DPs require in carrying out their responsibilities? Fulton (1987, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) articulates four categories of competence: administrative relationships, teacher relationships, student relationships and community relationships.

Under the category of administrative relationships, AP/DPs should be able to plan and complete a schedule, monitor testing and assessment, coordinate the pastoral network and ensure practice is inline with school policy. The teacher relationships category emphasises that AP/DPs would observe and evaluate teachers, assign staff duties and responsibilities, interview prospective employees and ensure academic responsibilities are met. Discipline, maintenance of school spirit and morale are key elements of the student relationship category while maintaining high visibility, familiarity and communication with the wider school community are characteristics of community relationships. All these key competencies highlight that the AP/DP must be highly skilled and capable of leading many different aspects of the school.

The Assistant Principals Commission in the United States (cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) argues that the AP/DPs first priority must be for the students and their personal growth. However, the Commission stressed that there is also much more to the role than this single priority and the focus on student growth and development must not be at the expense of full participation and partnership within the senior management team.

Finally, there is only limited research which identifies those aspects of the role and tasks that AP/DPs find most satisfying. Black (1980, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) found in a

study of assistant principalship that 60% of respondents rated working with teachers and heads of departments as the best part of the job. The respondents were also just as clear in identifying those tasks that were least satisfying: (a) handling student discipline, (b) grounds duty and (c) disciplining large masses of students. These findings emphasise the challenge that confront those AP/DPs with a traditional set of roles and responsibilities. It is difficult to play a significant role in leading teaching and learning when the majority of the AP/DPs time and energy is being used to manage and monitor those areas that are impacting on organisational stability.

A recent study in New Zealand by Farnham (2009) identified that DPs gained high levels of satisfaction from their role in being able to effect change due to their leadership influence. The DPs in this study were satisfied in their role because they felt that what they were doing was making a contribution towards school improvement. Farnham (2009) also found that part of the high levels of satisfaction expressed by DPs in this study came about due to the support they received from their colleagues in the leadership teams in their schools. Farnham suggested that DPs who considered themselves part of a supportive team were more likely to see their role as challenging and one that they felt contributed to school wide improvement.

Principals-in-waiting or Career AP/DPs?

The role of the assistant principal in the United States was developed initially as a means of supporting the principal. Panyako and Rorie (1987, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) describe how assistant principals were hired during the post war era of the 1940s to assist principals by sharing the management and administrative load and freeing principals for a wider instructional role. Many academics, including Marshall, Mitchell, Gross, and Scott (1992, cited in Scoggins and Bishop, 1993), view the assistant/deputy principalship as an

apprenticeship where one learns the skills and proves oneself in the world of educational leadership. This view has been pervasive with writers such as Austin and Brown (1970), Howley (1985), Potter (1980) and Fulton (1987) (cited in Scoggins and Bishop, 1993) all sharing the view that anyone holding the assistant principal position should aspire to attaining principalship. The fact that by far the great majority of principals are appointed to their current position from the assistant/deputy principalship continues and further serves to legitimate this view (Rutherford, 2003).

However, while this view is widely held, there is debate about the value of the assistant/deputy principalship as preparation for leading a school. The impression that many academics (e.g. Fletcher, 2008; Grubb & Flessa, 2006) convey of the AP/DP position is one where "there is too much management and not enough leadership for school improvement" (Rutherford, 2003, p. 65). This line of argument is further reinforced by the perception that AP/DPs spend most of their time at tasks "they would not look after as principals and very little time at duties that they would be responsible for as principals" (Kelly, 1987, p. 13). New Zealand research by Cardno (2003) and Farnham (2009) also highlights the point that many AP/DPs feel underutilised in the role. Those AP/DPs felt a sense of dissatisfaction in that they believed their role excluded them from gaining crucial knowledge and experience in some facets of school leadership and this, consequently, did not prepare them for the principalship role. The implication from studies, such as Kelly (1987) and those identified above, is that the the efficacy of the AP/DP as a meaningful preparation ground for the principalship is questioned.

Panyanko and Rorie (1987) argued that the roles and responsibilities carried out by AP/DPs are recognition that these individuals are less well-versed in educational administration,

management and leadership than the principal. The numerous clerical, custodial and social duties that AP/DPs carry out free the principal to carry out the important instructional leadership role that is considered the major focus of the position. Greenfield (1985) also made this point in arguing that the role of the AP/DP is a transition period for those moving from the classroom into an administration position.

The perceptions that AP/DPs have of the principalship and their career ambitions are also important areas to discuss. Studies across time and place have consistently identified that a large proportion (usually in the majority) of AP/DPs have no desire to seek principalship. Within the New Zealand context, a report by Douglas (2007) identified only 41 AP/DPs out of 121 respondents who were considering principalship, while Graham and Smith's (1999) research into the role of the secondary AP/DP found that sixty percent of respondents indicated having no interest in principalship. These findings correspond with Pounder and Merrill's (2001) American Study which found that less than one third of the respondents identified the high school principalship as a career goal.

In a British study by James and Whiting (1998) more than 50 percent of respondents referred to the overwhelming workload and stress levels of the principal as major reasons for not pursuing a principalship. One respondent identified the principalship as being increasingly distanced from the work of teachers and the joy of the classroom, while another respondent identified the effects of workload stress on the health of principals as a major disincentive in seeking promotion to principalship. Given these comments it was not surprising that many respondents in the James and Whiting (1998) study regarded principalship as more of a poisoned chalice than a positive challenge.

Alongside the perceptions that AP/DPs have of the principalship is the reality that not all

AP/DPs can gain the principalship. The large majority of secondary schools have at least

three AP/DPs to every principal and so the numerical data would suggest a substantial barrier

to advancement. Coupled with the fact that demographic data suggests that AP/DPs are

nearly as old as principals (Douglas, 2007; Pellicer & Stevenson, 1991) and that principals

are remaining longer in their current positions (Pellicer & Stevenson, 1991), the obvious

conclusion is that a considerable proportion of AP/DPs may never be appointed to

principalship even if that is their professional aspiration.

There is also a growing recognition that reduced mobility, personal circumstances, family

responsibilities, the career of a spouse and uncertainty and fear of failure have all contributed

to a growing number of AP/DPs not seeking further promotion (James & Whiting, 1998).

Many appear satisfied with what the AP/DP position has to offer and are content to remain as

a senior manager in the school without ever aspiring to the principalship. This situation,

however, does have implications in terms of managing provision for the professional

development of individuals who are career AP/DPs and literature on this aspect will be

discussed in the next section.

Redefining the AP/DPs Role

Emerging from these debates is the question of whether the AP/DP role is ideal preparation

for principalship and arguments that the AP/DP position needs to be restructured and

redefined. The majority of these arguments are premised on two distinct issues within

educational leadership. The first issue is a perceived lack of quality in candidates for

principalship and the AP/DPs possible part in attempts to develop more distributed leadership

structures in secondary schools. The second issue is the call for developing a more leadership

orientated and less management orientated role for AP/DPs. A growing number of academic writers including Collins (2006), Fletcher (2008) and Farnham (2009) are suggesting that too many AP/DPs are being overwhelmed by clerical, custodial and administrative responsibilities that seem somewhat trivial and unrelated to the teaching and learning focus of the school.

One explanation for an apparent shortage of quality candidates for principalship is that too few AP/DPs are interested in the current model of principalship (Collins, 2006; James & Whiting, 1998). Contemporary leadership policies emphasise the recruiting of strong, assertive individuals capable of fulfilling the wide and complex job demands. Grubb and Flessa (2006) label this perspective of principalship as the super or hero-principal. Unfortunately, it seems that too many AP/DPs see this model of principalship as being too big for one person.

Any alternative to the hero-principal would involve significant restructuring of the traditional model of principalship and the principal as a managerial chief executive officer that emerged out of the New Zealand educational reforms of the late 1980's that followed similar changes in Britain and Australia. Internationally, academics such as Calabrese (1991), Rutherford (2003) and Ogilvie (1977) put forward the concept of distributed leadership as one model for supporting the principal in their role while providing AP/DPs with a wider, more meaningful, leadership role. Proponents of distributed leadership claim that it responds to the increasing complexity of education by developing leadership structures characterised by greater levels of teamwork and planning. The complex and challenging demands in contemporary education require a greater sharing of leadership activities that were once the principal's dream (Calabrese, 1991). This model of leadership has the added benefit, according to those

who champion it, of providing the conditions for the AP/DP role to be seen as more satisfying and positive.

The concept of distributed leadership is premised on a quite different relationship between the AP/DP and the principal. Rather than the traditional hierarchical relationship, Calabrese (1991) emphasises that the AP/DP is seen as a partner moving "from assistant to co-principal, from apprentice to craftsperson" (Calabrese, 1991, p. 56). In this relationship the principal is still the hierarchical leader of the school, however, as Rutherford (2003) argues, the ideal partnership between the principal and the AP/DP is dependent on the AP/DP having or developing:

1. An increasingly important role in improving teaching and learning;

2. Adequate non-contact time for this involvement in the teaching and learning portfolio;

3. A shared vision with the principal;

4. A close professional and personal relationship with the principal, based on trust and respect; and

5. Clarity about boundaries with the principal but with enough autonomy and scope to use initiative in carrying out delegated responsibilities.

A number of contemporary New Zealand studies including Cardno (2003), Farnham (2009), Graham and Smith (1999) and Scott (2008) are critical of the limited instructional leadership role that characterise the professional life of the New Zealand AP/DP. Some AP/DPs (possibly even the majority, if Douglas's (2007) report is an accurate reflection of the New Zealand context) are working in a traditional rather than distributed leadership model. Graham and Smith (1999), Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009) all highlight the AP/DP role as being increasingly focused on a myriad of management and administrative tasks with the

responsibility for pastoral care being particularly onerous. These AP/DPs speak of the role as being unrelenting, unpredictable and creating huge demands on their limited time (Graham & Smith, 1999). "It is difficult for these Assistant Principals to function effectively" (Calabrese, 1991, p. 57) and focus on teaching and learning given the wide and onerous nature of the numerous custodial, clerical and administrative tasks that they have responsibility for. Calabrese (1991) calls on AP/DPs to become activists and to assert their professional needs in order to move beyond the policies of the past to more horizontal forms of leadership and shared governance.

It is important to note that Calabrese (1991) does provide some balance to the debate. While an obvious advocate in support of AP/DPs having an instructional leadership role in schools, he does take the time to identify the important leadership role that AP/DPs play within the 'traditional' model. He points out that effective AP/DPs have always recognised the direct relationship between student behaviour and academic performance. As a community change agent, ethical model, innovator within the pastoral role and motivator to release student and staff potential, AP/DPs demonstrate their leadership capacity on a daily basis (Calabrese, 1991). The same point is made in Farnham's (2009) study where the majority of DPs reported being satisfied with their current role and believed that they were making a significant contribution towards school improvement.

The Management Development Process

With these issues in mind what strategies support AP/DPs in carrying out their professional role? A recent pilot study of leadership succession issues within the New Zealand education system (Macpherson, 2008), highlights that the professional development of senior

administrators in New Zealand schools is largely unplanned, serendipitous and experiential in nature.

Many of the AP/DPs who responded to Macpherson's study had difficulty identifying particular professional development initiatives which led to growth and increased understanding of their leadership and management role. Macpherson (2008) concluded that leadership training has relied "excessively on the vicarious experiences of learning on the job with uneven and limited access to (a) career path planning, mentoring and other forms of leader support, (b) role specific skill acquisition through professional development courses, and (c) deeper learning about leadership via post graduate study" (Macpherson, 2008, p. 10). This same point is made in the James and Whiting (1998) study. The career AP/DPs in their study felt there was little in the way of a planned, professional growth programme focused on the assistant/deputy principalship as a career. The respondents felt that the notion of an individual career was "a neglected aspect of their development" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 361).

Career transition points can be very stressful for individuals and support is needed at such times. Louis (1984, cited in Hartzell, 1991, p.76) defines career transition as "a period in which an individual is adjusting to changes in the work setting, is changing orientation to the present work role, or is actually changing role". Job transitions are points in time when the individual moves from the certain to the uncertain, the familiar to the unfamiliar, and requires the reframing of old assumptions to new ones. In order to make a successful transition, Bhagat, Brammer, Abrego and Scholossberg (1982, cited in Hartzell, 1991) indicate that interpersonal support plays a vital role in successful adaptation. The key person in supporting an AP/DPs professional and personal development is, according to Calabrese and Tucker-

Ladd (1991, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993) and Gorton (1987, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993), the principal.

The support of the principal is seen as important given that the academic literature which advocates for the re-definition of the AP/DP role is, in effect, putting forward the argument that the AP/DPs role and focus should be similar to the principal's. Panyanko and Rorie (1987) maintained that the modern AP/DP must first be thought of as principal and only secondly as a deputy to the principal. They argued that the 'modern' AP/DP requires a high level of skill in educational leadership and that this skill has major implications for the initiation and ongoing professional development of the AP/DP. Who better to support AP/DP's in their development in this role than the very professionals who understand it best, that person being the principal.

Whether the AP/DP operates in a 'traditional' or 'modern' role there is a strong line of argument within the literature for the development of a mentoring relationship between the AP/DP and the principal. Calabrese and Tucker-Ladd (1991, cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993), Hartzell, 1991, James and Whiting (1998), Kelly (1987), Macpherson (2008) and Scoggins and Bishop (1993) all advocate mentoring, and specifically by the principal or an experienced senior manager, as a way of encouraging the AP/DP to reach their management and leadership potential. However, in one of the few research studies that has interrogated career AP/DPs, James and Whiting (1998) found that AP/DPs were critical of a lack of support in their own career development. These career AP/DPs wanted to "receive professional careers guidance, such as mentoring and involving where appropriate those with comparative experience" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 361) including the principal. Clearly,

the AP/DPs in this study were in agreement with the academics in terms of the desirability of mentoring in supporting professional growth.

Macpherson's (2008) pilot study identified the lack of role-specific professional development courses as an area of criticism by senior school managers. Whether assuming the 'modern' instructional role or operating as a 'traditional' AP/DP, Macpherson (2008) argues that the lack of thought, planning and infrastructure within the education system to deliver relevant role specific leadership development courses has been a significant impediment to growing leaders in the education system. This aspect together with the lack of emphasis on formal mentoring arrangements for those transitioning into the assistant/deputy principalship has only served to place these individuals in a position where they are "allowed to sink or swim" (Marshall et al., 1992, cited in Scoggins and Bishop, 1993, p. 88) with only limited support.

Macpherson (2008) put forward the notion of a national investment in preparatory leadership strategies. The idea was first mooted by Collins (2006) and Douglas (2007) in arguing that leadership training was dependent on serendipitous and experiential learning. The time, resources and focus required to develop the necessary infrastructure of skill specific courses and programmes is a disincentive for many schools (Collins, 2006) and will not develop without system leadership. Respondents to the Macpherson (2008) pilot study were strongly supportive of skills training prior to senior leadership service and were also supportive of the replication of the existing National Aspiring Principals Programme "as a delivery vehicle for preparation at each level of leadership service" (Macpherson, 2008, p. 11).

Outside of the keys areas that are well supported in the literature such as mentoring, career planning and specific leadership courses there is a small body of literature that develops some

structural strategies and responses to support AP/DPs in their professional role. Kelly (1987) offered three suggestions supported by other academics including Pounder and Merrill (2001) and Panyanko and Rorie (1987) that thought be given to:

1. Rotating the duties and responsibilities of the AP/DP regularly to provide a range of professional experiences and a set of new challenges and motivations in the position;

2. Rotating the discipline portfolio in order to provide some relief from this arduous and time-consuming duty; and

3. Assigning AP/DPs to work with heads of department in order to provide these individuals with a more instructional and curriculum focus.

Limitations of the Previous Published Research

An extensive search has highlighted that there is very limited literature regarding actual studies of the assistant/deputy principalship. While there is a large volume of research examining the principal's influence in the school, there is a lack of parallel research on the influence of the AP/DP (Doring, 1993). This point is also picked up by Rutherford (2003) in suggesting that the importance of the position is a much neglected aspect of research into school effectiveness.

The majority of international studies involving AP/DPs have incorporated the views and demographics of AP/DPs but largely in terms of their perspectives of, and aspirations towards, principalship. However, a small number of contemporary New Zealand studies have looked more closely at the role and identified some of the realities for those serving in these positions. Studies by Graham and Smith (1999), Douglas (2007), Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009) provide excellent information regarding the roles, responsibilities and challenges

faced by AP/DPs in the New Zealand secondary system. Typically, however, these studies lack the necessary scope to generalise findings across the population.

A striking characteristic of the research literature is the large body of North American writing from the 1980's and 1990's that examined the role of the AP/DP and, in particular, attempted to re-define it in order to create a more instructional focus. Recently completed New Zealand masters' theses by Scott (2008) and Farham (2009) identified an imbalance between the time spent on pastoral issues at the expense of tasks demanding instructional leadership. This is an area that needs further study, given that some AP/DPs also report a high level of satisfaction from the contribution they make in their schools (Farnham, 2009).

A strong theme emerged in the literature on the twin elements of instructional and distributed leadership. While much of the emphasis is contained in the North American literature, these elements are also raised in studies such as Ogilvie (1977), Rutherford (2003) and Douglas (2007) which represent views in Australia, Britain and New Zealand. Do AP/DPs want a greater instructional focus and are they overburdened by compliance and clerical tasks? Do AP/DPs expect a wider role, and significant partnership, with the principal in leading schools? Unfortunately, the literature does not clearly provide the answers to these key questions. However, a recent article by Fletcher (2008) does highlight it as an issue in the consciousness of some New Zealand AP/DPs. Fletcher (2008) wrote "it's about time we stopped burdening leaders with clerical compliance tasks and allow them the space to be passionate about education again" (p. 9). Fletcher was clearly frustrated about aspects of his current deputy principal role in pleading for AP/DPs to be given time to lead. "Senior leaders often find that there is precious little time left in their day for leadership, but that is what attracted most of us to our positions in the first place" (Fletcher, 2008, p. 10). He concludes

that leadership needs to be recognised as a question of teamwork and "not something that is vested in one person" (p. 10).

Previous Research Focused on Career AP/DPs

Finally, and most importantly for this current research, the search of the literature has identified only one study to date that includes a focus on career AP/DPs. While this study by James and Whiting (1998), provides useful demographic data and the personal insights of these professionals its focus was on why these individuals have rejected principalship, rather than what aspects of the AP/DP role have contributed to their decision to remain as a career AP/DP. Nevertheless, this study provides some interesting information regarding their personal thoughts on career evaluation and professional perspectives, as well as suggestions for the development management process based on their chosen career. It can be considered a seminal piece of work for anyone with a professional or research interest in this area.

James and Whiting (1998) argued that at the time of their study formal management development programmes in Britain were premised on the assumption that Deputy Principals (DPs) would actively seek principalship. While there was some evidence to suggest that this was not the case, the writers claimed that the current understandings at that time were not clear due to a lack of empirical investigation. They argued that since the radical reform in education in Britain in the 1980s, opinion was divided on "whether headship is more or less desirable than it was previously" (p. 353) due to the increased management role of the principal as chief executive officer and the resultant emphasis on management of the organisation over the role of leading teaching and learning in the school. Essentially the purpose of the study was to investigate whether DPs in Britain had similar concerns and to

what extent their views had influenced their decision with respect to applying for a principalship or not.

The main theoretical concept influencing this study was a 'career anchorage perspective' which was developed by Tauskey and Dubin (1965). Career anchorage perspective will be explained in more detail in the next section; however, broadly it proposes that individuals can achieve high levels of self-esteem and career satisfaction whether it be through reaching the top hierarchical position in their chosen career or conversely through maintaining current occupational positions or gaining modest advancement. The term *limited successor* is used to denote someone who is satisfied and motivated within a career position that is not the most senior position while *unlimited successor* describes someone who strives for the top job. Applying this terminology, James and Whiting defined DPs who have no desire to pursue principalship but enjoy their current role as "limited successors" (1998, p. 354). It is interesting to note that they did not comment that the terms limited and unlimited successors are value laden and could be criticised as being based on an assumption that reaching the top position has a higher status than remaining within another role.

The aim for James and Whiting's research was twofold; first, to collect quantitative data pertaining to DPs career progression and their career plans for the future and second, to identify those factors against which DPs "present and future occupational positions were evaluated explicitly in relationship to headship" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 354). Thus their research aim was focused on evaluating DPs present and future positions in relation to those factors perceived as characterising principalship. This study highlighted some interesting questions for my own research, in particular, are most AP/DPs aiming for principalship or are there some AP/DPs in New Zealand happy to remain in their current positions?

The researchers used a mixed method study (survey research and then a focus group interview) to identify the key demographics of the DP population and subsequently, detect those DPs not focused on attaining principalship. The second stage used a focus interview of a sample of the target population to gain a deeper insight into the personal perspectives of those individuals not seeking principalship.

An initial questionnaire was designed to identify the population of interest (limited successors) and provide key demographic data such as age, gender, qualifications and length of tenure as a DP. In order to identify career AP/DPs James and Whiting (1998) developed a typology of five distinct career anchorage categories within the DP group. Mitchell (1968) defined the term typology as simply a classification to enable the identification of all elements so that none is left out. The five career anchorage categories that make up the typology were defined as:

  i.   Active aspirants: DPs who are currently actively seeking principalship;

  ii.   Potential aspirants: DPs who have not applied for principalship but intend doing so in the future;

  iii. Unpredictables: DPs who have applied for principalship in the past but are unsure if they will continue to do so;

  iv.   Settlers: DPs who have never applied for principalship and do not envisage doing so in the future; and

  v.   Unavailed Aspirants: DPs who have applied for principalship in the past but will not do so in the future.

For the purpose of their study those respondents who identified as Settlers or Unavailed Aspirants were categorised as Career AP/DPs or limited successors, while those who

identified as Active Aspirants, Potential Aspirants or Unpredictables were categorised as Principal Aspirants or unlimited successors. The term career typology which is extensively mentioned in the remainder of the study is referring to the two overarching career anchorage categories used in the study, namely a career AP/DP and principal aspirant.

A postal questionnaire was sent to all 366 DPs from two LEAs, one in England and one in Wales. The selection of the two LEAs was justified as providing contrasting locations (urban vs rural) and relative size (both considered medium size). Having used the questionnaire to identify those individuals classified as *Limited Successors* or career AP/DPs, a sample of ten primary, and ten secondary DPs from this group was then selected in order "to explore further" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 355) through the process of focus interview.

The main findings from the narrative analysis in phase two of the study were that the most common reason for not seeking the principalship was the demands of the position, being described by more than "half the respondents as more of a poisoned chalice than a positive challenge" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 358). Role overload and the resultant stress of principalship, as well as contentment in their current role as a DP were consistent themes in why many chose to avoid headship. The scale and pace of central government initiatives, a lack of confidence in their ability to carry out the role, apprehension of failure and personal factors such as responsibility to family and support of a spouse were also common factors.

Within the management development perspective, many respondents identified the lack of sustained career counselling as inhibiting their career progression. The respondents felt there was a need for all DPs (whether aspiring to principalship or not) to receive "professional careers guidance, such as mentoring and involving where appropriate those with comparative

experience and frameworks for networking" (James & Whiting, 1998, p. 361). The career AP/DPs in this study were clear that the notion of an individual career was a meaningful and often neglected aspect of their development. For those who were likely to stay within a career role such as career AP/DPs their view was that it was still important that they continued to develop as professionals and receive key career support in order to improve the quality and standards of education in schools. This reiterated the value of investigating further in this current study New Zealand AP/DPs views about their professional development opportunities in relation to their own careers and their work in schools to improve educational experiences for students.

This current study of career AP/DPs has drawn on elements of James and Whiting's (1998) conceptual use of the career anchorage perspective and the typology of five distinct career anchorage categories to identify the group of career AP/DPs who are the focus of this study. This conceptual framework informed the development of the research aim and design with respect to identifying the target population (explicitly the first research question asked what evidence supports the identification of secondary school career AP/DPs who consider their role as a legitimate terminal career alternative to principalship) and investigating a key hypothesis that AP/DPs could be motivated and satisfied within their current role without aspiring for further career advancement (using research question three to identify what attracted them to the AP/DP role and the levels of satisfaction that they derived from varying aspects of the position and the work). The next chapter will expand on these and other aspects of the research design, questions and methods in more detail. However, before that, discussion of career anchorage perspective is expanded upon in the next section and linked into an explanation of another theoretical perspective that has informed some research into educational careers, including this current study, that is, job choice theory.

Expanding on the Conceptual Framework for this Study

Career Anchorage Perspective

In their study of managerial motivation in business organisations Tausky and Dubin (1965) developed a career anchorage perspective as a key concept in evaluating motivation towards current and future occupational positions. Within the sociological literature at the time there were two competing assumptions about orientations towards occupational mobility. One assumption was that individuals were orientated towards a career long occupational advancement and this position was defined as 'unlimited success' theory. This position was prevalent in societies where the cultural values emphasised respect and recognition are 'linked to success in reaching highly respected occupational positions" (Tausky & Dubin, 1965, p. 725). The contrasting interpretation, termed limited success, viewed individuals as gaining satisfaction by maintaining their position or making a modest progression within an occupational structure with no loss of self-esteem if careers terminated below high level positions.

Tausky and Dubin (1965) were of the view that the limited and unlimited success models were complementary and not competing as both models incorporate "the same motivational mechanism. The mechanism is the anchoring of career perspective" (Tauskey & Dubin, 1965, p. 725). Career perspective, according to these academics has two features. The first feature was recognising that an individual's occupational history is part of a career, and the second feature was a determination of the point of reference or anchor from which to evaluate present or future occupational positions. Tauskey and Dubin (1965, p. 734) argue that individuals with an "unlimited success orientation" anchor their career orientation and motivation on top-level positions while those with a "limited success orientation" anchor

their career orientation and achievement by the distance he or she may advance from their occupational starting point.

The power of their research, and others who have built on this work including Goldman (1978) and Maclean (1992), was in recognising that while many individuals will strive for the top job it is entirely possible for others to be motivated and satisfied without aspiring to the lofty heights of the 'mountaintop'. New Zealand studies, such as Douglas (2007) and Graham and Smith (1999), as well as the British research of James and Whiting (1998), have indicated that a large proportion of AP/DPs were content to remain in their current position and were not considering seeking the principalship. James and Whiting's research was the only study I found, however, that drew on Tauskey and Dublin's (1965) earlier theory. They used the career anchorage perspective to classify British AP/DPs into, 'limited successors' and 'unlimited successors'. In the limited success model, individual AP/DPs found satisfaction in maintaining their current role or modest advancement within this career role. The unlimited success model implied that the career aspiration of the individual AP/DP was towards principalship and beyond. While this current study will draw on aspects of James and Whiting's study (as will be shown in the next chapter) the terms limited and unlimited successors will not be used. Instead the terms career AP/DPs and principal aspirants will be used as I argue they are more positive terms.

Job Choice Theory

The other main theoretical framework that has informed this study is job choice theory. This theory was developed by Behling, Lobovitz, and Gainer (1968) as an approach to understanding the factors affecting job choice decisions. It combined three distinct theories namely objective (economic), subjective (psychological) and critical contact (organisational

and relational) theories. Objective theory viewed individuals as 'economic beings' who weigh up their levels of satisfaction or interest in a position against objective measurable factors such as salary and benefits, location and professional development opportunities. In contrast, subjective theory viewed individuals as 'psychological beings' who view their job satisfaction through a lense of "deep-seated and often unrecognised emotional needs" (Pounder & Merrill, 2001, p. 31). Subjective theory was premised on an individual choosing an occupation as a means of implementing self-concept. Finally, critical contact theory proposed that individuals who have limited knowledge of an organisation make job decisions outside of objective and subjective factors based on such things as relationships with the interviewer, information provided about the organisation, ease of communication, the influence of colleagues and friends and their perceptions of the personal characteristics of individuals in the organisation.

A number of North American studies have used job choice theory to assess the relative strength of recruitment approaches based on different sources of applicant motivation (Harris & Fink, 1987; Young, Rinehart & Henneman, 1993). These studies used job choice theory to highlight that job choice decisions were impacted by each of these three theories in varying degrees and influenced each individual's satisfaction and commitment levels in their career. As Pounder and Merrill (2001) put it, a combination of factors from all three theories influenced one's decision in respect to a particular professional role, or organisation.

Job choice theory was first applied to research in educational settings by Young, Reinhart, and Place (1989). These researchers' expanded on Behling and associates three job choice theories by developing a fourth job choice factor based on the work itself and the work context. Their approach was then later employed by Pounder and Merrill (2001), who used

job choice theory in an educational setting to examine the factors that influence individuals' job perceptions and aspirations towards principalship. Using an integrated approach that drew subjective, objective and critical contact factors together with various work factors and school context items, their study developed from these factors a number of job attributes characteristic of principalship for example salary and benefits (objective attribute), desire to make a difference in education (subjective factor), professional support network (critical contact attribute), management tasks (work item). Potential candidates were then asked to rate their attraction to the position against each job attribute. Pounder and Merrill (2001) also added a number of school context items e.g., reputation of the school, geographical location in order to evaluate their influence on the job choice decisions of educational professionals. Both James and Whiting's use of a career anchorage perspective and Pounder and Merrill's application of job choice theory have informed the research approach of this current study. However, while both of those previous studies were framed within common understandings that the AP/DP positions are primarily a pathway to principalship, this study's focus has a significantly different purpose to those that have used job choice theory to evaluate attraction to a future job or role. In this study job choice theory will be used to assess the attraction to, and levels of satisfaction in carrying out an existing role i.e., the AP/DP position. In particular, it is the relational aspects of critical contact theory that will be explored more fully to assess the influence of colleagues, family and friends have on AP/DPs job satisfaction and choice to remain in the AP/DP position.

The next chapter will explain and discuss the research methodology and procedures.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology and Procedures

Introduction

This study is an exploratory study of some New Zealand Assistant and Deputy Principals who were working in the secondary education system. This chapter explains and justifies the research methodology and design that uses both qualitative and quantitative methods to ensure a rich source of data for analysis that could provide "a more complete understanding of the research problem" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 557). The overall purpose of the study was to develop a more complete understanding of the perspectives and professional needs that career AP/DPs in New Zealand had regarding their leadership role.

The chapter also explains how the study ensures the reliability, validity and trustworthiness of the research approach and the findings of the study and how ethical principles were considered and applied to protect the AP/DPs who took part in the research.

Research Perspective

The selection of the methodological framework and data collection methods used in this research study was informed by a pragmatic research position that was cognisant of the competing theoretical perspectives underlying the quantitative and qualitative research traditions. The on-going debates between those that champion either tradition illustrate the politics embedded in this field of discourse (Denzin, 1997).

Quantitative researchers have an underpinning philosophy and set of beliefs that facts and feelings can be easily separated and "that the world is a single reality made up of facts that can be discovered" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 15). Adherents of the quantitative tradition have a world view and a set of assumptions associated within the philosophy of positivism.

For the positivist, reality is concrete and objective and 'out there' independent of humanity and able to be discovered through the application of science and its methods. Positivists presume a stable, unchanging reality that can be studied using the trusted empirical methods of the objective or hard sciences (Denzin, 1997).

Positivists rely on deductive strategies that have at their heart the presumption of a stable, unchanging reality that can be interrogated using the empirical methods of the objective social sciences. These sciences such as physics, chemistry, economics and psychology are, as Carey (1989) argues, often seen as a crowning achievement of western civilisation and legitimise the claim that within their practice 'truth' can be found that is free of opinion and personal bias. The focus in quantitative research is to use the methods of science to isolate causes and effects, to measure and quantify phenomena and to allow the generalisation of findings (Flick, 1998).

Qualitative research on the other hand emphasises processes and meanings that are inductive in nature. This type of research looks to find patterns and themes which are derived from the participants own realities and in their own words rather than using deductive strategies based on the testing of theoretical frameworks (Pattern, 1990).

While qualitative research itself is subject to differing and competing assumptions with regard to ontology, epistemology and methodology it is underpinned by a broad interpretive paradigm. Qualitative research is, according to Bogdan and Taylor (1975), premised on a belief that there are multiple realities and that 'truth' is subjective and a function of personal interaction and perception. Qualitative researchers make every effort to get inside the person and understand from within. Truth in terms of research outcomes comes from the participants

own interpretations of the work they do. The qualitative researcher is after information that is rich and descriptive and which is often reported in the participants own words. This is the same point that Flick (1998) is making when arguing that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

There is however, a tension or 'double faced ghost' that haunts qualitative research according to Denzin (1997). On the one hand there is a long held belief that in researching the social world there is a real subject or individual who is present in this world and who is able to report on their experiences in some objective form. However, poststructuralists and postmodernists have contributed to a differing and increasingly supported view which states that the research gaze is sifted through a lens of language, gender, social class, race and ethnicity (Denzin, 1997). From this viewpoint, individuals are unlikely to be able to offer full explanations of their actions or perceptions. At best they can only offer stories or accounts which then challenge qualitative researchers to find diverse interpretative methods to attempt to better understand those who are being studied.

A Mixed Method Approach

While recognising the differing philosophies that drive research based on the qualitative and quantitative paradigms, it was the research questions that ultimately determined the methodology of this study. The "choice of research practices depends upon the questions that are asked" (Nelson, Treichler, & Grossberg, 1992, p. 2). This research study was very much an exploratory study which set out to identify whether there is a group of AP/DPs working in New Zealand secondary schools who have a strong sense of commitment to, and satisfaction with their role and who view the assistant/deputy principalship as a legitimate terminal career

and to investigate whether the demographic data, career histories, professional perspectives and development opportunities of career AP/DPs were in any way significantly different from those AP/DPs aspiring towards principalship. Thus the study was planned to start with a broad focus on demographic data and career perspectives in order to identify and define the focus population and then attempt to drill down into the finer detail of their professional lives and their personal experience.

An exploratory study, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) is often characterised by a first phase which focuses on a quantitative methodology with the second phase emphasising the qualitative approach in order to follow up on and refine the findings in the initial phase. The differing approaches are seen as complementary and it would be difficult to answer the research questions in this study without reference to the strengths that are inherent in each approach.

Those who advocate the mixed method approach, including, Krathwohl (1988), Tashakkon and Teddlie (1998), Denzin and Lincoln (2005) and Hanson, Creswell, Plano Clark, Petska, and Cresswell (2005) argue that the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches provides for a more complete understanding of the research problem than does the reliance on the use of either approach alone. These academics dismiss the quantitative/qualitative dicotomy and argue for the middle ground of the pragmatist in proposing that researchers should use whatever works. "Worldviews and preferences about methods should take a back seat, and the researcher should choose the research approach that most readily illuminates the research question" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 559).

From this pragmatic point of view it was the quantitative methodology in general and the survey in particular that was the obvious choice in identifying the population of interest. In attempting to develop a study where the findings might be generalised across the population of career AP/DPs it was crucial to determine how representative the sample was of the population being studied. The quantitative approach provided the necessary tools and methodology to describe "how the members of the population distribute themselves" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 390). The mixed method approach taken in this study was ideally suited to this exploratory research study in allowing the researcher to move from the selective, numerical analysis characteristic of the quantitative approach to the thick, detailed description based on individual experience which was typical of the qualitative approach and which leads to a more holistic picture of the phenomenon being studied.

The research was designed in two phases: first, survey research and second, focus group interviews. Phase One of the research study used survey research methods to describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the professional roles and responsibilities that they carried out in their schools and their perspectives in regard to the management/leadership dilemma. The survey was also used to identify the AP/DPs career anchorage perspective while, in addition, it required each respondent to assess their professional role, and level of satisfaction, against multiple job attributes that were framed within job choice theory (see Figure 1 on page 50). Phase Two used focus group interviews to explore in more depth the perceptions of those individual AP/DPs who considered themselves to be career AP/DPs (How the participants were identified and accessed is explained on page 59).

Phase One: Survey Research Design and Analysis

A survey design offers a very efficient way of collecting both quantitative and qualitative data from a sample of the population. Survey research is often associated with quantitative methodologies which set out to "describe the characteristics of a population" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 390). However, it is also used in qualitative research to collect information regarding respondent's perceptions, opinions, beliefs and aspirations (Denscombe, 2003).

A questionnaire was chosen for phase one of this study as it was the most appropriate tool for collecting a large amount of data while also ensuring that the population of interest was able to be easily identified. There were also a number of practical advantages in using a questionnaire. The questionnaire can enable respondent feedback from across a range of school types and geographical locations and can be completed at the respondent's convenience with negligible interference from the researcher. This was a point that Bell (1999) made when supporting the questionnaire as a way of limiting the bias due to the presence of the researcher. However, the use of the questionnaire alone limits the ability of the researcher to probe for deeper understanding. (The choice of the focus interview for the second phase was a response to this concern as according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), partial responses are often characteristic of survey research)

The questionnaire included a number of different elements in order to adequately cover areas highlighted in the research questions (see p. 6). The beginning section of the questionnaire asked for demographic data on the respondent's age, gender, ethnicity, marital status/family, size of school, decile rating, rural/urban location, current role, years of tenure in senior management and areas of responsibility within the school. This demographic information served to build a profile of the AP/DPs in the sample and was considered essential in

attempting to generalise any findings to the population. The survey instrument also included a number of questions designed to identify the career anchorage perspective of the individual AP/DP. This aspect drew on James and Whiting's (1998) career anchorage typology of five distinct career anchorage categories: (*active aspirants, potential aspirants, unpredictable, settlers and unavailed aspirants*) in order to identify any respondents who could be categorised as career AP/DPs (settlers or unavailed aspirants). Those who identified as active aspirants, potential aspirants or unpredictables were categorised as principal aspirants. The questions in this section of the questionnaire provided valuable information in answering the first two research questions in the study which looked to identify the existence of a group of AP/DPs labelled as career AP/DPs and distinguish their unique characteristics in comparison to principal aspirants.

The middle section of the survey questionnaire asked respondents to provide feedback on their levels of satisfaction with the professional development that they received while in the AP/DP role including during their transition phase. Respondents were also asked to comment on what percentage of time they spent in their leadership role working on administration and management, student management and pastoral care and supporting teaching and learning. This information enabled respondents to provide data that was useful in answering the third research question particularly their perception of the support they have received in carrying out the role and the impact of the administration and management role on their capacity to lead teaching and learning in their schools.

The most challenging part of designing the survey instrument was the development of the job attributes to describe the assistant/deputy principalship in the final section of the survey instrument. As alluded to in the previous chapter, this current study of career AP/DPs has

been influenced by the work of Pounder and Merrill (2001) who combined the subjective, objective and critical contact factors of job choice theory with various work factors and school context items, to develop a number of job attributes characteristic of principalship (as explained in the previous chapter). Job attributes (i.e., typical features of the AP/DP role) for this study were developed through document analysis of forty AP/DP positions advertised in the New Zealand Gazette over the period November 2010 through to April 2011 along with consultation with professional groups including the executive panel of the National Association of Deputy and Assistant Principals (NASDAP). Together with the job attributes developed under each of the objective, subjective and critical contact categories a number of school context and work items (tasks typical of the role) were included in the survey questionnaire and AP/DPs were asked to indicate the influence that each attribute, work factor and school context item had on their attraction to the role. This provided further data to answer the third research question particularly with respect to what attracted them to the role and the satisfaction levels they derived from varying aspects of the position and work.

The development of the job attributes, work factors and school context items was a significant aspect of this study and Figure 1 (p. 60) provides a graphical representation of how Job Choice Theory and the conceptual approach of Pounder and Merrill (2001) has been applied to this study.

To avoid leading the respondents through having these items grouped into discrete categories the job attributes, work and school context factors were randomly assigned in that section of the questionnaire. Once completed the questionnaire was then piloted by a group four AP/DPs in the researcher's school who were excluded from the study. They were asked to

provide feedback on the attributes and work factors that had been developed and their input

led to some small changes and additions.

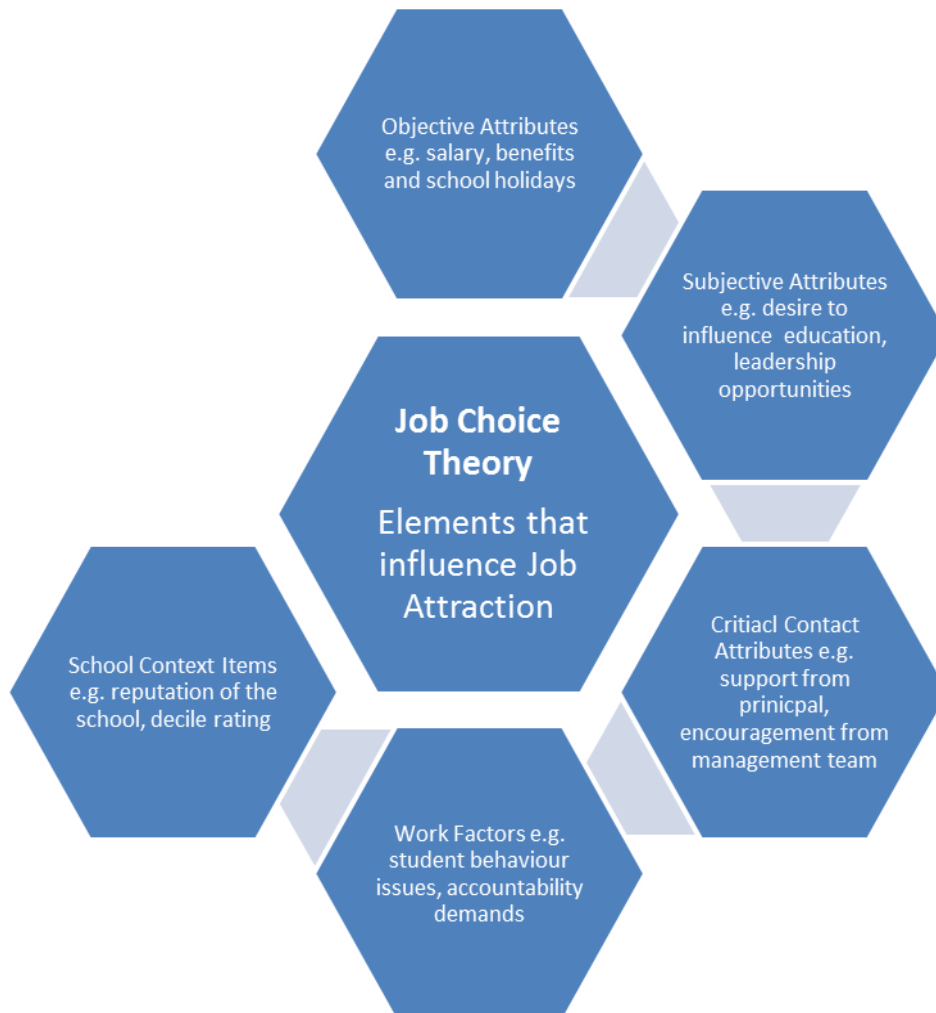**Figure 1. Job Choice Theory Applied to the AP/DP Position**

The questionnaire asked respondents to rate the influence of the job attributes and work

factors, plus a number of school context items including, school size, decile rating, school

location and reputation, on their interest in assistant/deputy principalship. The questionnaire

included a small number of open-ended questions asking AP/DPs to provide their

perspectives on the impact of the administrative and management roles on their ability to contribute to teaching and learning initiatives in schools.

A number of previous studies (e.g., including Pounder & Merrill, 2001) have indicated that an individual's expectations often influence their career ambitions and motivation. Therefore, to allow for this consideration, respondents were asked to evaluate their perceived probability of being offered a principalship if they so desired to apply. Despite the study concentrating on those individuals not focused on applying for principalship, this question attempted to identify whether the influence of an individual's self-perception and self-image impacted on their decision to remain as an AP/DP.

During the design of the questionnaire the issue of anonymity was considered in some depth. There might well have been respondents who wanted to respond anonymously and this was challenging in terms of the design of the study. While the feedback from anonymous respondents would be valuable, these respondents would subsequently be unable to be included in the sampling process for the second phase – the focus interview. As a result of these considerations a process was developed where respondent anonymity was assured through a research assistant removing the identity of the respondents from their responses before they were made available to the researcher. The research assistant replaced the email addresses on the respondent's questionnaire with a four digit identity code and maintained a secure database that matched the four digit identity code with their email address. The use of a numerical identity code allowed the survey data to be investigated and aggregated by the researcher without providing details of the respondent's identity.

An email questionnaire for the survey was the preferred approach as it offered some important advantages over a postal questionnaire. Non-response is a major issue in using survey research as it brings to the study the possibility that those who do not respond may differ in some way from the respondent group (Scott & Usher, 1999). The use of an email questionnaire allows individuals to receive regular reminders of their non-response at limited cost in terms of time and resources, effectively reducing the non-response rate. The SurveyMonkey tool was chosen to facilitate the survey questionnaire as it provided a number of advantages over other tools. First it was easy to format, design and then deliver the questionnaire using an email collector. Second, non-response could be attended to through monitoring returns and sending reminders to those who had not submitted a response. Non-response was always a key issue for consideration in using a survey design as academics such as Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) advise that an exploratory study requires at least 100 respondents. However, SurveyMonkey was also reliant on obtaining the necessary email addresses of all the individuals being surveyed and this resulted in some significant changes in the sampling phase which is described in the next section.

Identifying and Accessing Participants

While the particular target population for the study was those individuals who considered themselves career AP/DPs and who were currently working (at the time of the study) in secondary schools in New Zealand, the survey method selected for phase one of this study lent itself to generalising findings across the general AP/DP population. Therefore, it was intended to select a stratified random sample of 200 AP/DPs from the Ministry of Education's national database and invite them to respond to an online survey. The sample was to be stratified by gender, age and urban/rural location of the school in order to obtain a fully representative sample of the population and maximise the transferability of findings

across the population. Unfortunately, the Ministry of Education declined the researcher's request to access the information needed and this created a late and major review of the sample plan for Phase One of the study.

The researcher then approached the national executive panel of the National Association of Secondary Deputy and Assistant Principals (NASDAP). The executive panel were very supportive and gained permission from their membership to allow the researcher to access the email addresses of their membership. While this database did not provide the demographic information needed to fully implement the stratified random sample as originally planned, it did allow the researcher to survey all those AP/DPs on the NASDAP database with the exception of the Wellington region where email addresses were not available on their database.

Statistics held by NASDAP highlight that 80% of AP/DPs in the New Zealand secondary education system are members of the organisation. This high membership rate suggests that the AP/DPs who are members of NASDAP are, in all probability, representative of the population of AP/DPs in New Zealand. Limited general demographic data on the AP/DP population was available through the Ministry of Education and this allowed the researcher to compare the NASDAP sample with the national AP/DP statistics in regard to gender, age, ethnicity, school type and decile. While the comparison data were very limited in scope (the Ministry of Education would only provide data that were publicly available to the study) it did allow a judgement to be made regarding the representative nature of the NASDAP sample and in the end it was the only option available to the researcher.

The email addresses as supplied by NASDAP were stratified by nine geographical regions (Northland, Auckland, Waikato, Bay of Plenty, Hawkes Bay, Taranaki/Manawatu, Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast, Canterbury and Otago/Southland) and survey questionnaires were emailed to the 534 members (excluding the Wellington membership) of NASDAP. The final sample of those who returned the questionnaire was then compared by geographical location to see how representative the sample was. In order to carry out this comparison the proportion of AP/DPs in each region of the total NASDAP membership population was calculated and compared to the proportions in the sample who responded.

Geographical Area	NASDAP Database		Survey Respondents	
Northland	16	**3%**	5	**2.9%**
Auckland	139	**26.1%**	47	**27.5%**
Waikato	44	**8.3%**	14	**8.2%**
Bay of Plenty	49	**9.2%**	15	**8.8%**
Hawkes Bay	41	**7.7%**	14	**8.2%**
Taranaki/Manawatu	41	**7.7%**	16	**9.3%**
Nelson/Marlborough/West Coast	38	**7.1%**	16	**9.3%**
Canterbury	110	**20.7%**	35	**20.5%**
Otago/Southland	54	**10.2%**	9	**5.3%**
Total	**532**	100%	**171**	100%

Table 1. Geographical Location of Survey Respondents

The sample from the survey responses proved to be quite representative in terms of the proportion of respondents from the nine geographical areas represented on the NASDAP database. Apart from the Otago/Southland area the proportion of respondents from each other

area was within 2% of the actual proportions on the NASDAP database and this provided an element of confidence regarding the representative nature of the responses that came through in the survey questionnaire. See Table 1 on page 64 for a display of this data.

Some general data on age, gender, salary and ethnicity of the AP/DP population held by the Ministry of Education was available and that enabled some simple comparison with the sample statistics to be used in the study.

Questionnaire Analysis

The questionnaire used both closed-ended multiple choice and open-ended short answer questions to enable the data to be analysed using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. The closed-ended questions allowed participants to select their answers from a range of stipulated options and were used to gain demographic data about the respondent, their professional history and experiences and their levels of satisfaction as measured against school context items and job attributes and work factors that are characteristic of the AP/DP role.

The closed-ended questions provided both quantitative data (where the variable is measured along a scale) and categorical data (where the variable is able to be counted or be able to find the number of objects in a category). Examples of quantitative data in this study were the variable scales used to measure satisfaction levels against job attributes and work factors that were a significant part of the second half of the questionnaire. Much of the first section of the questionnaire in contrast provided categorical data including ethnicity, gender, designation and decile rating, career tenure, qualification level and so forth.

Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) argue that closed-ended questions have the advantage of being easy to use, score and code for analysis. This was certainly the case in the first stage of this study as the majority of the data was able to be numerically coded allowing the data to be analysed using statistical tools such as counts, percentages, means and standard deviations. It also allowed the data to be easily disaggregated by career typology, gender and leadership designation and subsequently tabulated and graphed for comparison purposes. This aspect was vital given the exploratory nature of the study and the need to identify career AP/DPs and both their similarities and differences as compared to principal aspirants.

Open-ended short answer questions were also used in the survey questionnaire to allow for more individualised responses from participants. Each question in the survey questionnaire that allowed respondents to provide short individualised answers was analysed by reading the answer, underlining comments, making notes and identifying key themes. This followed a process advocated by Patton (1990) and involving reducing the volume of data, sifting trivia from significance, identifying patterns and developing a framework for representing what the data revealed. Each of the individual responses from the participants to a question was analysed by identifying key words and themes (e.g., professional development obstacles; not enough time or poor team dynamics) in each response. The number of times each theme occurred in that question was then totalled and numerically ranked from highest to lowest identifying those issues that were most significant. These key themes became the units of analysis and this data was ultimately represented using quantitative techniques involving tables and frequencies as well as qualitative techniques using respondent voice in a narrative form.

Once all of the data in the survey questionnaire had been tabulated and the mean and standard deviations calculated for responses in the survey questionnaire two tests of statistical significance were applied to the resulting data. Nominal (categorical) data which was classified according to career typology including items such as designation, gender, level of qualification, tenure, decile rating, remuneration etc. were tested for statistical significance using the Chi-square statistic (X^2). Chi-square is a statistic that gives an estimate of the probability that the distribution in any particular table could have occurred by chance. In running the test, if the resulting Chi-square statistic provides a probability which is equal or less than 0.05 (or 5%) the conclusion is that the distribution has a 5% or less probability of occurring by chance. Such a result rejects the null hypothesis that the distributions are the same and indicates that any difference within the distribution is significant. This test was applied to identify whether there were any significant differences between career AP/DPs and principal aspirants with regard to the numerous nominal categories in the study.

In contrast, the job attributes, work factors and school context items which were measured using a five point likert scale (-2 to +2) were tested for statistical significance using the Mann-Whitney U Test. This test is used to compare differences between two independent groups (career AP/DPs and principal aspirants in this study) where the data is ordinal, where there is no relationship between the observations of the two groups (they are independent of each other) and where it is not known whether the data is normally distributed. The null hypothesis for this test is that both distributions of the sample are the same. If the Mann-Whitney Test U value equates to a probability of 0.05 (5%) or less then it rejects the null hypothesis and indicates that any difference between the two groups is statistically significant. This test of statistical significance was applied in this study to help determine whether any differences between the way that career AP/DPs and principal aspirants viewed

the various job attributes and work factors pointed to important differences in perception between the two groups.

The analysis of the survey questionnaire identified a number of areas that were worthy of further exploration in the focus group interviews and this second phase of the study is discussed in the following section.

Phase 2: Focus Group Interviews

While the survey instrument was planned to enable both the identification of those career AP/DPs who were the focus of the study and to identify common factors influencing their career choices and work. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) advise that the study of social situations requires 'thick descriptions' grounded in individual experiences of that social reality. Therefore, a series of focus group interviews of some of those individuals identified as career AP/DPs was planned for Phase Two of the study to capture detail and depth that is often minimised in the quantitative approach associated with survey research (Carspecken, 1996). This approach also allowed some methodological triangulation between the qualitative and quantitative data (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009).

The focus group interview technique was, according to Thornton & Faisander (1998), first employed by sociologist, Robert Merton during the Second World War to examine the morale and loyalty of American soldiers. The use of the term 'focus' refers to the pattern of questioning where questions start at a broad, general level and then become increasingly more specific (Thornton & Faisander, 1998). In its early days many academics criticised the approach as they believed the data would be somehow contaminated as participants were able to listen to the responses of others. Proponents such as Merton, however, argued that any

shifts of opinion during the interview were quite normal as a natural part of social interaction and this is a particular strength of the technique in that it captures this interaction.

Over time this interview technique has become a common way of obtaining social opinion and perspectives in order to inform public policy. It is the use of the group interaction within the interview that sets this technique apart from other forms of interview. Saulnier (2000) believes that focus groups are ideal for using alongside other qualitative and quantitative research methods in order to triangulate and confirm the validity of the data.

The focus interview instrument brings the participants together in a shared interview experience. It is argued that this encourages a greater depth of conversation as it is easier to "get at what people actually think…in a social context where the participants hear the views of others and consider their own views accordingly" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 452). However, it also has the disadvantage that comes with any social conversation in that some participants may not be completely honest, or answer questions fully, given the comments that others may make in the interview.

Despite this potential problem, focus groups have been used successfully in education, particularly in studies that are focused on identifying participant's beliefs, attitudes and perceptions in regard to topics ranging from the quality of childcare, abuse, early intervention and mastery of and resistance to technology (Krueger, 1994). The technique is especially suited to this current study as the researcher seeks to understand the stories behind the respondents' career choices.

The use of focus group interviews was considered an ideal tool for obtaining opinion and perspectives (McLachlan, 2005) about what some career AP/DPs thought and felt about their

role. According to McLachlan (2005) focus group interviews also allow a researcher to check the accuracy of the initial perceptions (and probe responses for a deeper insight) in a study. The focus group interview questions, therefore, were dependent on the findings and patterns that resulted from the survey questionnaire.

The interview method was chosen over the individual interview for a number of other very pragmatic reasons. The cost in both time and money in meeting separately with up to 20 individuals was beyond the resources of this researcher. It has been argued that an individual interview offers the opportunity for the researcher to match "questions to the individual circumstance" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 447), while gaps in data can be anticipated and closed, and responses can be easily compared between individuals. Further, in the individual interview each respondent's answers to the interview questions draw out "what they think and how they feel about something" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009, p. 446) without 'contamination' from others. However, in the focus group interview participants hear each other's answers and responses which can then draw out additional responses and re-examination of their own views as the interview progresses.

Focus Group Interview Participants

For this second phase of the study, it was intended that a convenience sample be used to select individuals for focus group interviews. The data from the questionnaire provided a comprehensive range of information regarding the characteristics and views of AP/DPs regarding their role. Most importantly, however, it provided the career anchorage perspective of each respondent identifying those individuals who were career AP/DPs and their demographic characteristics. It was hoped that this information could then be used to select a

sample of individuals for the focus group interviews that was representative of the career AP/DPs in the first stage of the study.

Of the 97 career AP/DPs who were identified through analysis of response to the initial survey questionnaire, only 40 indicated their willingness to be interviewed in the second stage focus interviews. However, when those people were contacted approximately 12 months after the completion of the questionnaire there was minimal response to the email requests to participate. Reminder emails were sent out every two weeks over a 3 month period by which time 19 career AP/DPs had consented to participate. However, these individuals were very spread out geographically and this made it very difficult to form groups of at least five individuals based around geographical locations.

In the end, only two groups of five career AP/DPs could be formed for the focus group interviews, one in a large city and one in a small provincial city in the South Island. The researcher then approached the Catholic secondary school network to identify a group of career AP/DPs and five career AP/DPs who were willing to participate in a third focus group interview were eventually identified in a different large city in the North Island. While this outcome was disappointing given the original intention to carry out five interviews it was incredibly difficult to get busy professionals to give their time for this study.

In a final twist three individuals from the provincial group and one in each of the city groups withdrew within days of the arranged meetings. As a result of there being only two participants in the provincial focus group that interview lacked the spark and interaction between individuals that is the strength of the focus group interview approach.

Design of Focus Group Interview Questions and Process

As noted above the focus group interview starts with broad questions which become increasingly more specific. McLachlan (2005) uses the analogy of a funnel in describing this approach. In order to develop a group dynamic that can put participants at ease, the focus interviews in this study followed the approach that Kreuger (1994) recommends, namely (a) a round robin of opening questions, followed by (b) introductory questions, (c) transition questions, (d) key questions and (e) ending questions. McLachlan argues that it is imperative that the questions developed for a focus group interview are trialled by a group of key informants before their use in order to check their relevancy, usefulness and level of abstraction. This strategy was used in this study with a small group of colleagues excluded from the study undertaking a focus group interview using a draft set of questions. Their responses led to some minor changes in the interview script as it was employed in Phase Two of the study.

As also noted earlier, the analysis of the survey questionnaire identified a number of areas that were worthy of further exploration. These areas of interest provided some information as to possible unique characteristics and perceptions of career AP/DPs in comparison to principal aspirants. In order to investigate these areas further a series of interview questions were developed and consideration was given to the interview approach to be used. In the end, a semi-structured interview approach was chosen in order to allow the interviewee to elaborate and expand on points of interest as they occurred. In a semi-structured interview it is important that the "interviewer is prepared to be flexible in terms of the order in which topics were considered and…to let the interviewee develop ideas and speak more widely on the issues raised by the researcher" (Denscombe, 2003, p. 167).

To a certain extent the process of each interview was determined by the questions in the interview script. However, each focus group interview developed in unique ways as each group explored the questions emphasising unique perspectives and points of view. As a result not all of the pre-determined questions in the interview script were covered fully by all groups. Time constraints on the length of each interview and the flexibility given to each group to explore their experiences and unique perspectives was considered more important than ticking a box to say each question was fully covered by each focus group. The semi-structures interview approach was the right choice for this situation.

Focus Group Interview Analysis

I started the analysis of the transcripts by reading through each transcript and then highlighting those "areas of theoretical and empirical interest" (Davidson & Tolich, 1999, p. 158) in the transcripts with a coloured highlighter. The process of analysis of the transcripts was carried out using a manual process in preference to a software based system such as INVIVO.

Following the process of highlighting the transcripts and identifying key ideas and comments, the coding started in earnest. I carefully re-read each transcript "adding comments and reflections in the margins alongside" (Denscombe, 2003, p. 272) each page of the transcript Each section of responses to a particular question theme in the interview was given an alphabetical code involving either one or two letters to identify it and the individual comments made by participants to the question were provided with a sub-code involving both letters and numbers to link the response to that question or theme. For example, the use of the alphabetical code H referred to a section of participant responses in the interviews that described those aspects of the head of department role that participants enjoyed. The sub-

code to identify the location of particular participant responses contained one letter to identify the particular focus group, a second and/or third letter was the alphabetical code referring to the question theme followed by a number to identify the page in the transcript and finally a set of numbers to identify the lines on the page to find the participant quote. For example the code WC5 11-13 refers to focus group W, question theme C (Comments related to the concept of Team and their Colleagues), page 5 of the transcript and lines 11-13 of page 5.

Alongside this process of numerical coding was a concurrent process where I placed comments on the left hand margin of the transcripts. These comments were early attempts to identify key themes and questions regarding the data that needed to be followed up and clarified and in some cases where responses were unexpected and identified new areas for consideration. Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that this is a vital part of the qualitative researcher's attempts to identify the patterns, themes, commonalities and differences in the data. The analysis of the first transcript followed Merriam's (1998) description of the tentative stage of the data analysis process. Table 2 (p. 75) shows an example of this first stage of the data analysis process using one small section of a page in one of the transcripts.

Throughout the coding and analysis process I was aware that some of the data could be used in different themes and categories and so some of the data were coded into more than one category or theme. Similarities and differences in the participant responses were also analysed in the search for tentative patterns and hypotheses. Scott (2008) refers to this as an iterative process which continues until the researcher is confident that the analytical statements are trustworthy.

Alphabetical Question code	Written Research Comments on Left Hand Side of the Transcript	Highlighted Sections of interview Transcripts	Sub-code to identify quote
T (transition to the AP/DP position)	Serendipity again - coincidence in meeting future principal	I happened to be at the Ministry and I met my present principal and got talking to him and then literally the next day or two there was an advertisement in the Gazette and I thought gosh that would be , you know I could work with this person and the school, it was sort of similar, similar decile, so I, you know I applied for the job and got that job	**CT3 20-24**
Serendipity is a common theme – Reacting to circumstances as they happen. Possibly no career planning?			
		Teacher 4: They really do sound great don't they (laugh)	
		Teacher 1: Yes I suspect I was a	
	Initially had a career plan to be a principal	wee bit different that I, I probably early on wanted to be a principal, I don't think I aspire ……	**CT3 28-29**

Table 2. Example of the Coding and Analysis Process on One of the Focus Group Transcripts

The themes and analytical statements that were identified during the analysis of the interview scripts (see Table 3 below for an example) were verified through comparison across the three separate focus group interviews and with the data from the survey questionnaire. This

Code H – Factors of Enjoyment re HOD Position		
Theme	Participant Comments	Ranking
Team	**NH1 28-30, WH1 31-34, WH1 37-40, WH1 40-, WH1 11-16**	1=
Closeness to Teaching & Learning	**CH2 5-8, CH2 11-12, CH2 14-15, NH1 23-25, WH1 31-34**	1=
Personally & Professionally Rewarding	**NH1 25-**	3=
Using Expertise and Knowledge	**WH1 36-37**	3=

Table 3. Focus Group Theme Analysis

'between method' triangulation (Delamont, 1992) strengthened the credibility and validity of the data providing the 'thick description' that is a strength of the qualitative approach and more confidence in the emerging themes and developing hypotheses. Figure 2 (p. 77) outlines the significant themes that were identified during the process of data analysis in this study.

Figure 2. Emergent Themes from the Data Analysis

Hexagon diagram with "Career AP/DPs Emergent Themes" in the center, surrounded by:
- A Slow and Serendipitous Career Progression for Career AP/DPs
- Career AP/DPs are not Motivated by Objective Rewards but Enjoy the Psychological Rewards that come from Serving their Schools
- A Lack of Role Preparation and Support to Promote Career AP/DPs Professional Growth
- Career AP/DPs are Relational Beings who Enjoy and Gain Satisfaction from the Support of their Leadership Colleagues
- Career AP/DPs Take Great Satisfaction from their Pastoral Role and are motivated by a Desire to Make a Difference in Education
- Career AP/DPs are Strongly Connected to Teaching and Learning and Want a Larger Role as Instructional Leaders

Validity and Reliability

The content validity of the survey instrument was evaluated by a number of groups with

experience of the AP/DP position. The study excluded a group of four AP/DPs from the

researcher's own secondary school to reduce any researcher bias in the study. This group of

AP/DPs acted as key informants in providing honest and frank feedback in supporting the

development and evaluation of the job attributes and the completed questionnaire. The

questionnaire was then, subsequently, tested for content and face validity by approaching the executive panel of the National Association of Deputy & Assistant Principals (NASDAP) to evaluate both the job attributes and the survey instrument. Individual members of the NASDAP executive provided feedback to the researcher which led to a couple of work factors being added and some of the job attribute's being clarified further.

The second phase of this research study relied heavily on the researcher's interpretation of the interview data. A number of strategies were incorporated into this phase to increase the trustworthiness of the findings including outlining in the Introduction the researcher's interests and role. A small group of colleagues excluded from the study also trialled the focus group interview question script and contributed to its development. In addition to this, all aspects of the process of analysing and interpreting the narrative data have been fully outlined in the previous section. This outline has included the process of developing and collecting the data, the actual process of coding and summarising the data and the development of the final analysis from the themes identified in the coding process.

All data were treated in a way that protects the confidentiality and anonymity of the research participants. Coding was used during the gathering and processing of questionnaire data and in addition to these points participants were provided with information in regard to:

- How information will be treated in terms of confidentiality and anonymity;
- Lines of communication between the researcher and participants;
- Use of pseudonyms where required;
- The focus interview process; and
- Transcription of the focus interviews and participant review of the transcripts including the opportunity to withdraw observations.

In the next three chapters I present my analysis and findings for both phases of the research

design.

Chapter Four Findings:

Personal and Educational Demographics

Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings from both phases of the study with respect to the personal and educational demographics of the AP/DPs in the study. Before moving to this discussion it is important to outline some key points about each phase of the study.

Phase one involved the questionnaire (see Appendix 1). In total 534 secondary AP/DPs were on the NASDAP database and each received an invitation to participate in the survey in early 2011. Of this group 174 completed the survey and provided data for analysis. This represented a response rate of approximately 33% which while lower than hoped for is within an expected range for this type of study. Response rates for a survey vary enormously from between 10% - 90% (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000) and lower response rates are becoming more typical as increasingly individuals who are living busy lives are making the decision not to participate in survey research.

Number of Questionnaires Sent	**534**
Questionnaires Returned	**174**
Percentages Returned	**33%**

Table 4. Survey Responses

Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) advise that an exploratory study requires at least 100 respondents and any attempt to compare groups through any correlational techniques would need at least 30 individuals in each group. The goal of the first phase of the study was to generate a sample of close to 200 respondents so that any comparison between possibly two groups, Career AP/DPs and Principal Aspirants, was valid and any findings could be generalised to the

population. However, as the response rate to this survey was lower at 33% it is likely that the sample error was high.

One of the key purposes of the questionnaire was to identify whether there is a group of AP/DPs who view the assistant/deputy principalship as a legitimate terminal career. Therefore, the participants in phase one of the study were asked to identify themselves against the five career anchorage categories outlined on pages 45 and 58 of this report, namely; active aspirants, potential aspirants, unpredictable, settlers and unavailed aspirants. Those who identified themselves as settlers or unavailed aspirants were classified as career AP/DPs with the remaining respondents being classified as principal aspirants. The career AP/DP category became the major unit of analysis in both stages of the study with the principal aspirant category being used as a way of comparing and contrasting the findings and analysis.

Phase two of the study involved the focus group interviews of a sample of career AP/DPs identified within the study. Owing to the difficulties that were outlined on page 71 of this report only 10 career AP/DPs were able to be interviewed. The data in Table 5 below paints a picture of this sample group of career AP/DPs that is different to the career AP/DPs who responded to the questionnaire in the first stage of the study. The focus interview group of career AP/DPs is on the whole significantly older and more experienced in the position than the sample of career AP/DPs who responded to the survey questionnaire. The focus interview group is also heavily male biased with two thirds of the group being male as compared to the 47% of males who responded to the survey. These differences regarding age, experience and gender opened up the possibility that the responses from the focus interview group might not

be fully representative of the group under study and readers need to be aware of this when evaluating the findings outlined in the remaining sections of the thesis.

	Focus Interview Career AP/DP Group		Sample Career AP/DPs	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Gender	66.7%	33.3%	47%	53%
Mean Age	56.4 years	57.7 years	54.0 years	54.8 years
Mean Time as AP/DP	11.58 years	15.33 years	10.62 years	9.75 years

Table 5. Demographic Comparison of Career AP/DPs

It is also important for the reader to note that this study is focused on career AP/DPs. The principal aspirants group is used to compare and contrast the data that derives from the survey questionnaire in order to identify the distinctive characteristics of career AP/DPs. The principal aspirant group will provide the means to identify what is unique or different about career AP/DPs while also identifying those areas where both groups have similar characteristics.

Personal and Educational Demographics

In this chapter of the study I will describe and discuss the gender, age and ethnicity of the AP/DPs; their highest qualification; numbers of years as an assistant teacher, head of department and AP/DP; number of AP/DP positions they have held, main teaching subjects, current designation and factors which influenced them to apply for their first AP/DP position; numbers of students enrolled in their current school; decile rating and type of school; hours of teaching, number of periods in the daily timetable and the average number of hours worked per week.

While the majority of the chapter will focus on the data that resulted from the questionnaire where appropriate data from the focus interviews will be included to help support and clarify some of the issues discussed in this section. It is important to hear the actual 'voices' of career AP/DPs if we are to more fully understand the reasons behind the trends, patterns and findings of the study. Some links to the literature are made in this chapter regarding issues which are not considered significant enough to be included in the discussion chapter and, therefore, these areas will not be investigated further in Chapter 7 Discussion and Implications of Findings.

Gender, Age and Career Typology

	MOE (2012) Database	Survey Respondents Total	Career AP/DPs	Principal Aspirants
Male	**53% (328)**	**49.7% (84)**	**47% (46)**	**54% (39)**
Female	**47% (297)**	**49.1% (83)**	**53% (51)**	**46% (33)**
No response		**1.2% (2)**	**0%(0)**	**0% (0)**
Total	100% (625)	100% (169)	100% (97)	100% (72)

<div align="center">

Table 6. Gender and Career Typology

</div>

Table 6 illustrates that the sample of AP/DPs who responded to the questionnaire is seemingly gender balanced with 84 (49.7%) males and 83 (49.1%) females (1.2% of the respondents did not provide gender details). According to the Ministry of Education (2012), at the time males were 53% and females 47% of the population of secondary school AP/DPs. The sample was, therefore, skewed slightly towards the female gender in relation to the total population of secondary school AP/DPs. However, it is interesting to note that a study by Douglas (2007) of 159 AP/DPs in the Central Region of New Zealand reported a similar pattern with regard to respondent gender proportions (50.5% male and 49.5% female).
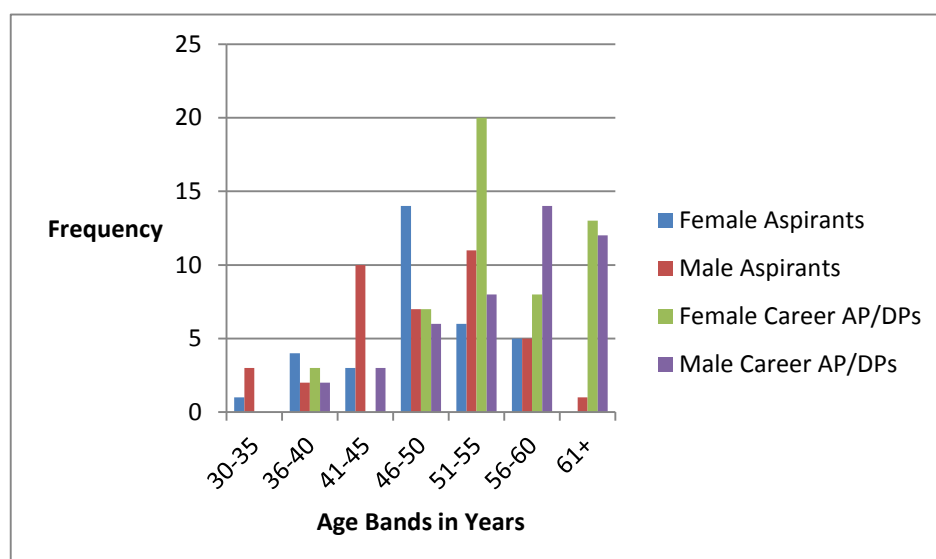
Figure 3. Gender, Age & Career Typology

Figure 3 shows the distribution of career anchorage typology (i.e., the two career anchorage categories of a career AP/DP or principal aspirant) of AP/DPs according to gender and age. Over all age bands proportionally fewer females than males identified themselves as principal aspirants (46% female and 54% male) and a greater proportion identified as career AP/DPs (53% female and 47% male). This result was significantly different to the James and Whiting (1998) study of British career AP/DPs which identified 29% of secondary female AP/DPs as considering principalship, whereas in this study 46% of female AP/DPs were in that category. However, male principal aspirants had very similar proportions in both studies. The pattern of female career typology in this study highlighted that female AP/DPs in New Zealand were seeking career advancement to principalship in similar proportions to their male counterparts.

The mean age of the population of AP/DPs in New Zealand at the time of the survey, according to the Ministry of Education (2012), was 47.2 years of age. The sample mean for AP/DPs who responded to this survey was 52.2 years of age. When the data for this study were differentiated by career typology the mean ages for both male and female were very

	Principal Aspirants	Career AP/DPs	Focus Group Career AP/DPs
Female	**48.3** years	**54.8** years	**57.7** years
Male	**48.1** years	**54.0** years	**56.4** years
Overall Mean	**48.3 years**	**55.0 years**	**56.8 years**
	(SD = 6.99)	**(SD = 6.81)**	**(SD = 3.43)**

Table 7. Mean Age of Respondents

similar (see Table 7). The mean age for career AP/DPs confirmed what was expected in that this group was likely to be older than the principal aspirants given their intention to stay in this position in senior leadership. However, the mean age of the principal aspirants (48.3 years) was slightly higher than expected given that the Ministry of Education (2012) data show a mean of age of 47.2 years of age for the total population of secondary AP/DPs.

Figure 3 on page 84 illustrates some further patterns when gender, age and career typology are combined. Both male and female career AP/DPs were clustered in the 46-60+ age bands with very few career AP/DPs in the 30-45 age bands. Many female career AP/DPs were situated in the 51-55 age band whereas males clustered in the 56-60 age band. This suggests that more female AP/DPs in this study were making the decision to not seek principalship at an earlier stage in their career than their male counterparts.

The pattern for principal aspirants was somewhat different. There were very few principal aspirants and career AP/DPs below the age of 40 in this study. For male principal aspirants there was a bimodal pattern with a pronounced peak at the 41-45 age band and another at the 51-55 age bands. Female principal aspirants on the other hand had an obvious peak at the 46-50 age band before tailing off dramatically. The data may indicate that female aspirants gave

away their aspirations for promotion at an earlier age than male aspirants. However, the survey did not enable any comment regarding this.

Designation	Male	Female
Assistant Principal	18 (21.5%)	28 (33.7%)
Deputy Principal	62 (73.8%)	53 (63.9%)
Associate Principal	4 (4.7%)	2 (2.4%)
X^2 (2, N=167) = 3.5396, p=0.17 (p≤0.05)		

Table 8. Distributions by Gender and Designation

Table 8 above shows a small gender imbalance regarding an overrepresentation of female APs and an underrepresentation of female DPs while two females, in comparison with four males, identified as associate principals. However, statistical analysis of the differences between the proportion of male and female respondents who were designated as associate, deputy and assistant principals did not identify these differences as statistically significant (see Chi-square (X^2) statistic Table 8).
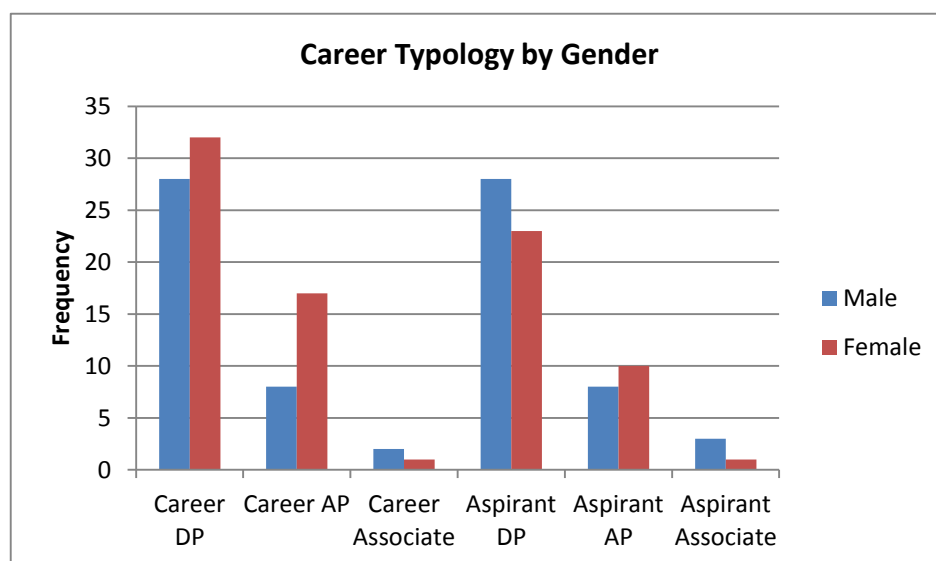

Figure 4. Career Typology by Gender

Aggregating the gender data by career typology and designation (see Figure 4 above), highlighted that females were being appointed to DP positions in similar proportions to males. Figure 4 shows slightly more male principal aspirants holding DP positions than females and conversely slightly more female career AP/DPs holding DP positions than male. What was noticeable, however, was that there was more than twice the number of females in comparison to males who were career APs. Despite this, difference in proportions of male and female respondents by career typology and designation was not statistically significant, (X^2 (5, N=157) = 5.2551, p=0.62 (p≤0.05)) inferring that these differences were more likely the result of chance.

Ethnicity and Educational Qualifications

	Study Respondent Data	Ministry of Education Population Statistics (2012)
NZ/European	**155 (90.1%)**	**83%**
Maori	**13 (7.6%)**	**9%**
Pacific Island	**2 (1.2%)**	**1.5%**
Asian	**1 (0.6%)**	**1.5%**
Other	**9 (5%)**	**5%**
Total	**180 (100%)**	100%

*Two respondents did not answer this question and 6 respondents identified with two separate ethnicities

Table 9. Ethnicity Breakdown

This section of the survey endeavoured to investigate any patterns or trends regarding ethnicity, highest professional qualification and career typology. As shown in Table 9 it is difficult to make an accurate comparison between the population ethnicity data (as provided by the Ministry of Education) and the sample in this survey as a number of respondents in the study identified with more than one ethnicity. As a consequence, the sum of the percentages

for each ethnicity in the survey adds up to more than 100%. However, apart from a relatively higher percentage of NZ/European in the survey sample, other ethnicities were represented in similar proportions to the national population characteristics of AP/DPs.

When the ethnicity data was compared with professional qualification details the pattern in regard to professional qualifications across ethnicities was very similar (see Table 10). As such a small number of respondents identified as Asian or Pacific Island it was difficult to draw any meaningful conclusion for these groups. What could be identified was that over 60% of the respondents in the study had a postgraduate qualification indicating that they were a well-educated group of professionals. At what stage in their careers these postgraduate qualifications were achieved, however, was not revealed through the questionnaire.

	Teaching Diploma	Bachelor's Degree	Postgraduate Degree	Master's Degree	Total
NZ/European	8 (5%)	46 (31%)	51 (35%)	42 (29%)	147
Maori	1 (8%)	6 (46%)	4 (31%)	2 (15%)	13
Pacific Island	1 (50%)	0	0	1 (50%)	2
Asian	0	0	1 (100%)	0	1
Other	1 (12%)	3 (33%)	2 (22%)	3 (33%)	9
Total	11	55	58	48	172

Table 10. Educational Qualifications

However, when the educational qualification data was differentiated by career typology an interesting trend was observed. The data in Figure 5 (p. 89) revealed that 71% of principal aspirants had obtained a postgraduate diploma or a master's qualification as compared to
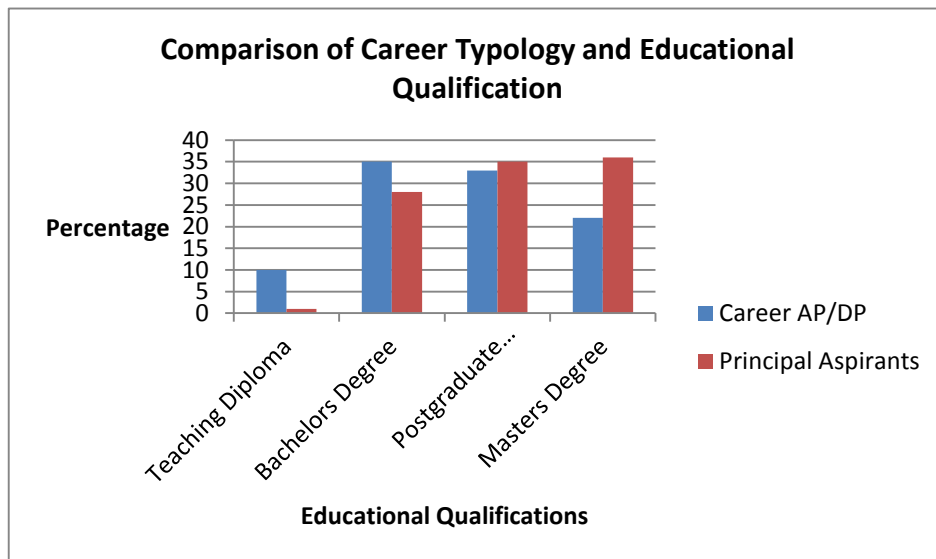
Figure 5. Educational Qualifications by Career Typology

55% of career AP/DPs. In addition, 45% of career AP/DPs had an undergraduate

qualification as their highest educational qualification as compared to 29% of principal

aspirants. The differences in educational qualifications of career AP/DPs and principal

aspirants were statistically significant (X^2 (3, N=199) = 12.1548, p=0.006, p≤0.01) with little

possibility that this difference was a random event. The data suggested that principal

aspirants were more likely to hold a postgraduate qualification than career AP/DPs.

Career Transitions

In this section of the survey respondents were asked to identify their tenure in each of the

educational positions they had held prior to, and including, their current senior leadership

position. The questions were framed around the typical career pathway of an AP/DP in

secondary education in Aotearoa New Zealand, namely, an assistant teacher, head of

department and then AP/DP. Only four AP/DPs had never served as a head of department

and were promoted directly from a position as a dean in the pastoral team. This was

somewhat different to the findings in the Douglas (2007) study where 20% of the AP/DPs

who responded to her survey were promoted from a role other than a head of department.

Tenure	Principal Aspirants			Career AP/DPs		
Assistant Teacher	Male	Female	Overall	Male	Female	Overall
Nil	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	1 (1.3%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.1%)	1 (1.1%)
Less than 4 years	5 (12.8%)	8 (24.2%)	13 (18.1%)	6 (15.4%)	3 (6.3%)	9 (10.3%)
4-9 years	21 (53.8%)	16 (48.5%)	37 (51.4%)	22 (56.4%)	20 (41.7%)	42 (48.3%)
10-15 years	8 (20.5%)	5 (15.2%)	13 (18.1%)	3 (7.7%)	10 (20.8%)	13 (14.9%)
16+ years	5 (12.8%)	3 (9.0%)	8 (11.1%)	8 (20.5%)	14 (29.1%)	22 (25.4%)
Total	39 (100%)	33 (100%)	72 (100%)	39 (100%)	48 (100%)	87 (100%)
Mean Value (in years)	8.69 years (SD=4.72)	7.21 years (SD=5.00)	8.01 years (SD=4.98)	8.73 years (SD=5.59)	10.99 years (SD=5.79)	9.98 years (SD=5.77)
Head of Department						
Nil	0 (0%)	2 (6.1%)	2 (2.8%)	2 (5.1%)	3 (6.3%)	5 (5.7%)
Less than 4 years	8 (20.5%)	4 (12.1%)	12 (16.7%)	2 (5.1%)	4 (8.3%)	6 (6.9%)
4-9 years	22 (56.4%)	20 (60.6%)	42 (58.3%)	14 (35.9%)	19 (39.6%)	33 (38.0%)
10-15 years	5 (12.8%)	4 (12.1%)	9 (12.5%)	16 (41.0%)	21 (43.7%)	37 (42.5%)
16+ years	4 (10.3%)	3 (9.0%)	7 (9.7%)	5 (12.9%)	1 (2.1%)	6 (6.9%)
Total	39 (100%)	33 (100%)	72 (100%)	39 (100%)	48 (100%)	87 (100%)
Mean Value (in years)	7.58 years (SD=4.79)	7.38 years (SD=4.70)	7.49 years (SD=4.73)	9.94 years (SD=5.03)	8.59 years (SD=4.37)	9.20 years (SD=4.70)
AP/DP						
Nil	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Less than 4 years	10 (25.6%)	9 (27.3%)	19 (26.4%)	3 (7.7%)	8 (16.7%)	11 (12.6%)
4-9 years	16 (41.1%)	15 (45.5%)	31 (43.1%)	15 (38.5%)	16 (33.3%)	31 (35.6%)
10-15 years	8 (20.5%)	7 (21.2%)	15 (20.8%)	13 (33.3%)	16 (33.3%)	29 (33.3%)
16+ years	5 (12.8%)	2 (6.0%)	7 (9.7%)	8 (20.5%)	8 (16.7%)	16 (18.5%)
Total	39 (100%)	33 (100%)	72 (100%)	39 (100%)	48 (100%)	87 (100%)
Mean Value (in years)	8.16 years (SD=5.40)	7.27 years (SD=4.69)	7.73 years (SD=5.07)	10.62 years (SD=5.18)	9.75 years (SD=5.42)	10.14 years (SD=5.30)

Table 11. Career Tenure History

Nevertheless, the data shown in Table 11 (see page 90) serve to illustrate that the typical pathway for an AP/DP has continued to include time as a head of a department in a school for the large majority of respondents in this study's survey.

The data in Table 11 suggest that principal aspirants move more quickly than career AP/DPs through the career stages of an assistant teacher and head of a department. Principal aspirants spent on average 8.01 years as an assistant teacher compared with career AP/DPs who spent 9.98 years. Principal aspirants spent on average 7.49 years in the head of department position with career AP/DPs spending 9.20 years there. This raised the question as to whether or not career AP/DPs as individuals were less motivated by, or focused on, advancing up the hierarchy of roles in secondary education.
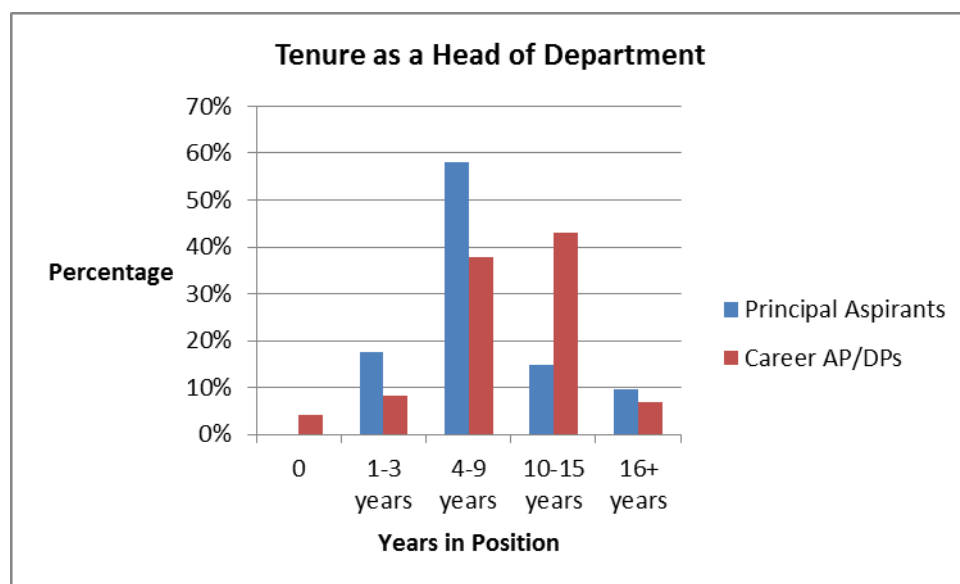
Figure 6. Tenure as a Head of Department

While the mean time of tenure for AP/DPs at the assistant teacher and head of department career stage highlighted that career AP/DPs had longer periods of tenure, there was a pattern within the data worth investigating that is highlighted in Figure 6. Seventy to eighty per cent of principal aspirants had spent less than ten years as a head of department whereas

approximately 50% of career AP/DPs stayed in the position for over 10 years. Statistical analysis highlighted that differences between career AP/DPs and principal aspirants with respect to time in the HOD role was particularly significant (X^2 (4, N=159) = 20.2512, p=0.0005, p≤0.01). This pattern was not so apparent, nor statistically significant (X^2 (4, N=159) = 6.2173, p=0.18, p≤0.05), at the assistant teacher stage of their career and therefore, it was decided to investigate what aspects of the HOD role were considered appealing to the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews.

Eight of the ten career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews had experience as a Head of Department (HOD) in a secondary school prior to their appointment to an AP/DP position. The other two AP/DPs had moved to this senior leadership position after time spent as a guidance counsellor and a pastoral dean and, therefore, had no experience in running a department or faculty.

Those AP/DPs who had been HODs reflected upon their time in this role very positively. The challenge and enjoyment from leading a curriculum area and building a department was a common theme. One participant went so far as to say that "if I won lotto, I would probably go back to that particular point" despite the satisfaction he continued to experience in carrying out his current role. Three of the participants commented upon being able to apply their expertise and knowledge in developing their department indicating their level of confidence in that role. "I enjoyed being in an area where I had a huge amount of expertise."

Many commented on the satisfaction gained from building and working with "a small group of staff" whom they "got to know well." As one put it, "I enjoyed the comradeship; we had a really close team working towards the same goal." Whereas at times the AP/DP position

could be seen "as an administrative role" the HOD position had had appeal in its "variety…a mix of teaching and administration" and its status in providing "a significant say in the management of the school."

More importantly though, all of the AP/DPs in the focus groups identified the HOD role as a key pedagogical leadership position in the school, which had appealed to them because "it's closer to actual teaching and learning." Two of the AP/DPs said that in moving from the HOD role to the AP/DP position, they had lost what they really enjoyed "working with the kids." Reflecting on how his time as an HOD coincided with significant educational change (introduction of the NCEA) which was a busy and exciting time, another emphasised that he "loved the teaching, enjoyed the students." He felt it was important that he did the job well as this would be of direct benefit to the students and their education.

Another theme that came through strongly in the responses was the enjoyment and satisfaction that many participants gained within the HOD role in being able to put a personal stamp on their department and the curriculum and programmes offered. The HOD role appealed in being able to be curriculum innovators and "introducing things in schools that hadn't been there before." This aspect of the role was viewed as exciting and highly satisfying.

In summary, the career AP/DPs who were interviewed confirmed that the HOD role provided high levels of satisfaction because it was focused on working with and meeting the needs of students and this appeared to be an important motivator. The HOD role also had appeal in that it allowed individuals to build a close, supportive team focused on providing a quality teaching and learning environment. The opportunity to work with an intimate, close group of

colleagues provided a sense of comradeship that was highly valued. As a result the career AP/DPs in the focus group were in many cases in no hurry to move through this career stage.

The AP/DP Career Stage

Tenure as an AP/DP	Principal Aspirant	Career AP/DPs
1-3 years	19 (25.3%)	12 (12.5%)
4-6 years	19 (25.3%)	22 (22.9%)
7-9 years	13 (17.3%)	14 (14.6%)
10-15 years	18 (24%)	31 (32.7%)
16+ years	6 (8.1%)	17 (17.6%)
Mean Value in Years	**8.04 years**	**9.88 years**
Time in Secondary Education		
1-5 years	1 (1.3%)	0 (0%)
6-10 years	5(6.7%)	1 (1%)
11-15 years	13 (17.3%)	10 (10.5%)
15-20 years	11 (14.7%)	8 (8.5%)
21+ years	45 (60%)	76 (80%)
Mean Value in Years	**19.12 years**	**21.2 years**

Table 12. Tenure

Both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs were, in general, very experienced professionals in the secondary education system. Principal aspirants in this study had spent on average 19.12 years in secondary education with Career AP/DPs averaging 21.2 years. More than 85% of career AP/DPs had served the secondary education system for more than 15 years as compared to approximately 75% of principal aspirants. However, it appears that in comparison to the career AP/DPs, principal aspirants were more likely to be in their earlier years of service.

Respondents to this survey were also asked to identify how many separate AP/DP positions career AP/DPs had held (see Figure 7). Approximately 65 % of the respondents had held only
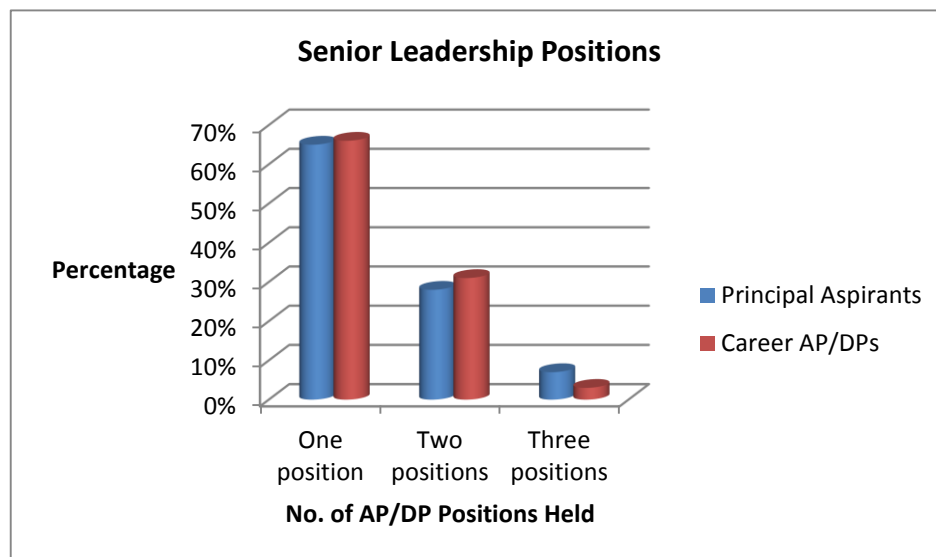
Senior Leadership Positions

Figure 7. No. of AP/DP Positions Held

one position with another 30% having held a second AP/DP position. The group as a whole did not appear particularly mobile within the senior management role. Considering that more than 50% of career AP/DPs and 33% of principal aspirants had been in the role for more than 10 years this finding was rather surprising. It certainly appears that once an individual is appointed to an AP/DP role then there is a strong likelihood that they will remain in the position for some time.

It was worth considering whether there were any issues behind why so many AP/DPs had stayed in the same position once appointed. Was this because they got immense satisfaction from the role or were there factors constraining them such as family and mobility issues? Is it difficult for many to make a change or is the 'cost' involved too much?

The focus interviews did shed some light on some of the factors at play here. When asked what might encourage them to consider another leadership position in a different school there were only a few responses such as "We've got a whole lot of positive aspects in our life here, it would have to be something really big to change that" and "I'd have to be dissatisfied with what I'm doing here first" which suggested that these participants were very happy in their current situations. A reference to feeling comfortable and lucky in their current situation suggested stability was important and there was no desire to 'rock the boat' and take on a further challenge. Upon reflecting a little longer one of the AP/DPs suggested that if she "was a little younger and I wanted to move out of the area and family stuff worked" then she may have considered it. However, there was no actual desire to change and she was happy and stimulated in her current role.

In one of the focus group interviews a participant spoke of his disquiet in being labelled a career AP/DP. He argued that the term had underlying meanings that he was uncomfortable with. In criticising the term he felt that on the one hand it "implies a lack of aspiration" while on the other hand it gives an impression that "this is what we set out to do". His comments were strongly supported by his colleagues in this group. One of the AP/DPs had worked all over the place and "suddenly I'm an AP/DP and love it" however it was not the result of a career plan. These participants were also quite clear that their decision not to pursue principalship was not the result of a lack of aspiration as they were highly motivated to make a positive impact in their schools. In the end, the discussion again highlighted the role of serendipity in their career decisions and the lack of any definite career plan that they were following.

Main Teaching Subjects

Faculty	Principal Aspirant	Career AP/DP	Overall Respondent Group
English	25 (33.8%)	18 (20.2%0	43 (26.4%)
Social Science	20 (27.0%)	21 (23.6%)	41 (25.2%)
Mathematics	12 (16.2%)	18 (20.2%)	30 (18.4%)
Physical Education	7 (9.4%)	10 (11.2%)	17 (10.4%)
Science	6 (8.1%)	11 (12.4%)	17 (10.4%)
Technology	0 (0%)	7 (7.9%)	7 (4.3%)
Languages	3 (4.1%)	3 (3.4%)	6 (3.7%)
Art	1 (1.4%)	1 (1.1%)	2 (1.2%)
Total	**74 (100%)**	**89 (100%)**	**163 (100%)**

Table 13. Teaching Areas

The most common curriculum areas of expertise of the AP/DPs in this study are detailed in Table 13. While it is not surprising that the core curriculum areas contribute 90% of AP/DPs it was interesting to see the dominance of English, the social sciences and mathematics which together contribute 70% of the AP/DPs in the sample.

Less than 10% of the AP/DPs in this study taught in subjects such as technology, languages and arts. This finding was probably not surprising as Douglas (2007) noted there were fewer teachers, in general, staffing those subjects in secondary schools. Of interest though was the small number of AP/DPs in this study, particularly those aspiring to principalship, whose area of expertise was science. Science was the most common curriculum area for AP/DPs in the Douglas (2007) study and with the large number of science teachers in the country we might have expected a higher percentage of this group moving into senior leadership positions.
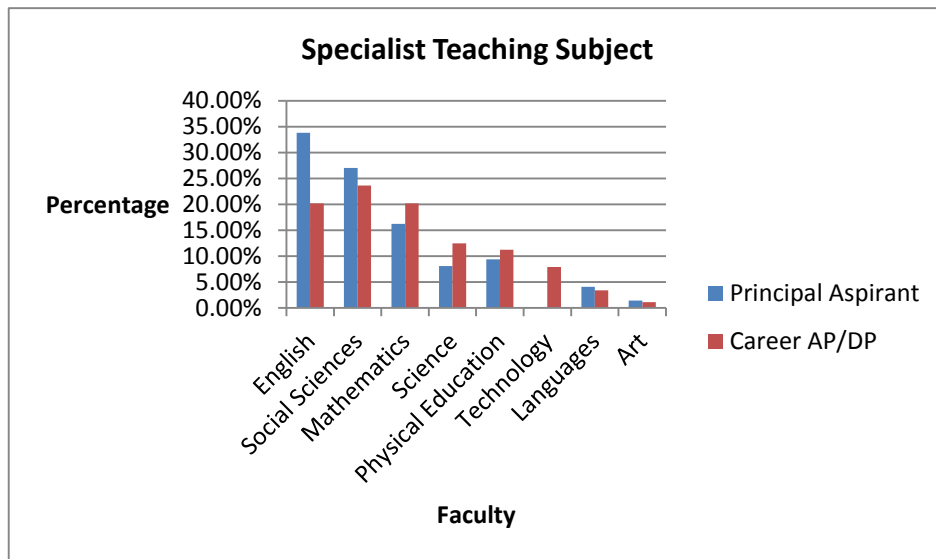
Figure 8. AP/DPs Specialist Teaching Subject

What Factors Influenced Respondents to Apply for their first AP/DP Position

This question was open to allow respondents to provide their own unique reasons for moving

into the senior leadership position. Nineteen different themes were identified in their answers

and these are presented in Table 14 (p. 99) in their order of frequency in all responses. The

responses were also differentiated for principal aspirants and career AP/DPs responses.

The percentage responses given in Table 14 (p. 99) are important in that there were 88 career

AP/DPs who responded to the question and 72 principal aspirants. Each response was

analysed in terms of the factors outlined in Table 14. In some cases an individual response

could contain two or more of the factors listed in Table 14, therefore, this point needs to be

taken into account when interpreting the data in this table.

Both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs identify professional challenge as the biggest

factor in encouraging them to seek an AP/DP position. A number of respondents stated that

Factors that Influenced Respondents Interest in Applying for AP/DP Position	Overall	Principal Aspirant	Career AP/DP
Challenge – to see if I could	47 (16.3%)	19 (15.3%)	28 (17.1%)
Wanted to have a say – to lead and influence	43 (14.9%)	16 (12.9%)	27 (16.4%)
Peer Encouragement	32 (11.1%)	11 (8.9%)	21 (12.8%)
Looking for promotion – career pathway	27 (9.4%)	16 (12.9%)	11 (6.7%)
Time for change and opportunity knocks	23 (8.0%)	8 (6.5%)	15 (9.1%)
Wanting to make a difference in terms of teaching and learning	18 (6.2%)	10 (8.0%)	8 (4.9%)
Desire to develop further professional skills	14 (4.9%)	8 (6.5%)	6 (3.7%)
Believing they had the skills to do the job – confident in themselves	12 (4.2%)	5 (4.0%)	7 (4.3%)(
Grew into it through carrying out a number of SMT roles	12 (4.2%)	5 (4.0%)	7 (4.3%)
Expand their personal and professional skills	11(3.8%)	3 (2.4%)	8 (4.9%)
Right time and in the right place	10(3.5%)	6 (4.9%)	4 (2.4%)
Bored or dissatisfied with their previous position	9(3.1%)	2 (1.6%)	7 (4.3%)
Interest in administration and leadership	9 (3.1%)	3 (2.4%)	6 (3.7%)
Fitted with geographical location and personal relationships	5 (1.7%)	4 (3.3%)	1 (0.6%)
More money - the financial rewards	5 (1.7%)	3 (2.4%)	2(1.2%)
Ambition to be a principal and to learn from their principal	4 (1.4%))	1 (0.8%)	3 (1.8%)
The particular school	4 (1.4%)	2 (1.6%)	2 (1.2%)
Poor leadership in their previous school	2 (0.75%)	1 (0.8%)	1 (0.6%)
Wanting personal recognition through the position	1 (0.35%)	1 (0.8%)	0 (0%)
Total	**288 (100%)**	**124 (100%)**	**164(100%)**

Table 14. Factors Influencing Application for an AP/DP Position

they wanted 'to see if I could' and test out their personal and professional competencies. The

second most common factor identified by both groups was a desire to be in a leadership

position in order to influence and have a say. Many felt that they had reached a stage in their

careers where they believed they had the skills and ability to make a positive contribution to the leadership of a school. In a few cases respondents were motivated by their genuine belief that they could do better than some of the AP/DPs under whom they had served as teachers and heads of department.

In comparing the top six factors identified in the analysis of this question (see Figure 9 below), two issues need to be emphasised. First, peer encouragement appeared to be more of an important factor for career AP/DPs in encouraging them to apply for an AP/DP position. Many career AP/DPs identified the support of their colleagues, including the principal and other members of the senior leadership team, as being the major factor in encouraging them.
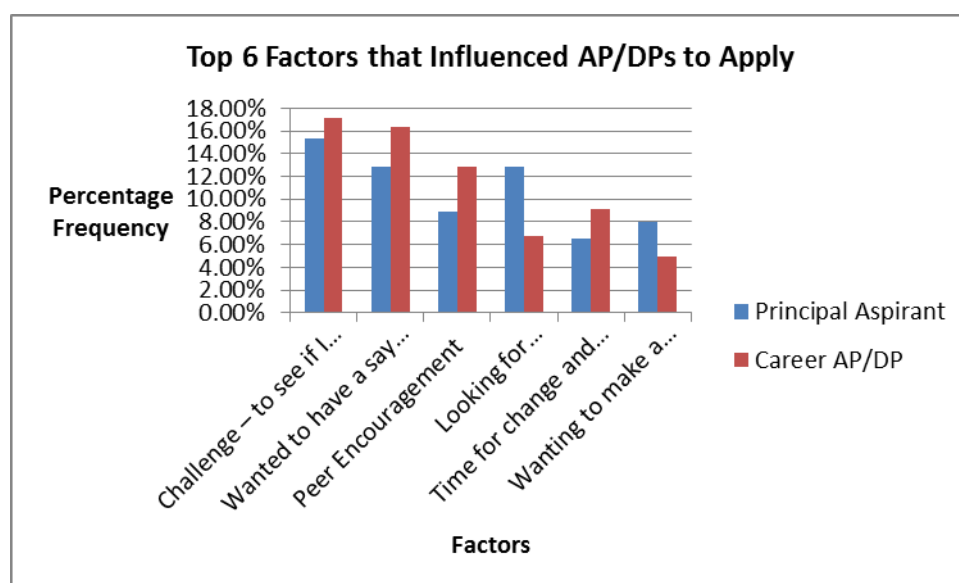
Figure 9. Top Six Factors of Encouragement

However, the level of significance of the difference in proportions of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants who had identified these top six factors including peer encouragement was not particularly significant (X^2 (5, N=216) = 7.5278, p=0.38, p≤0.05) and, therefore this finding could not be stated with any level of statistical confidence. Nevertheless, the impact

of peer relationships was investigated further as it was clear that for many career AP/DPs the supportive encouragement of their colleagues was the major catalyst in applying for promotion.

Many of these same factors also featured in the focus group interviews. For two participants their desire to seek promotion arose from stints as acting AP/DPs. While the circumstances were different both "thoroughly enjoyed it" and gained a lot of confidence and satisfaction from this experience. As a result both decided to pursue promotion and were confident they "would be a good fit for the position."

Two other AP/DPs who identified a deliberate desire to move to a senior leadership position had quite different stories. For one it was born of frustration given she had worked under one DP who she "found was absolutely useless and he ruled by fear". She believed she had the ability to do a better job of this role and actively sought an AP/DP position. The remaining AP/DP who was career motivated had initially pursued principalship. However, a change in family circumstances led to him re-evaluating his career plan as he needed "to put right the balance I had in my life". He believed he could achieve this in the AP/DP role but "the principal is busier" and was seen as a step too far.

The remaining AP/DPs who were interviewed were either prompted by colleagues they respected to take on the AP/DP role or there were strong elements of serendipity at play. The confidence displayed in them by valued colleagues was a key driver behind the application for many of these participants. As one put it, "I was approached by the senior mistress at the time who felt I was ready to have a challenge. I probably would not have done anything about it if she had not tapped me on the shoulder." Another was actually thinking

about leaving education when his principal approached him and said that "he felt I would be a good fit for the AP position" and would he apply. Being in the right place at the right time was a common career story. One participant happened to be at a ministry meeting where she met her present principal and got talking to him. Quite literally the next day there was an AP/DP position for the school in the gazette and she "felt she could work with this principal and the school." If she had not gained this position she was ready to resign and travel overseas. Nearly all of the career AP/DPs interviewed had spent considerable time in the HOD role and while enjoying many of the aspects of this role were ready and, in some cases, actively seeking further challenge and change. While some of the participants needed prompting from colleagues whose opinions they valued opportunity presented itself at a time when they were open to it and this had a considerable influence on their decision to seek the AP/DP role.

Reflecting upon those individuals who had a significant impact on their career journey the AP/DPs who were interviewed identified two clear categories comprising those who were professional colleagues and those who were long term friends and spouses.

The majority of the responses focused on influential colleagues who had been part of the teams they had worked in. Three of the focus group participants identified their principal, at both past and present schools, as very influential in their careers. These principals supported their aspirations by allowing them to "take on more responsibility" and restructuring their jobs in order to allow them "to grow and not get swamped." Another of the AP/DPs revealed that her principal "was a great change manager, I learned a lot from him, from working with him." AP/DP colleagues also promoted the careers of a number of the participants by encouraging them to "go out there and give it a go" and in one case even helping with the

application. Each of these AP/DPs was very grateful for the support and encouragement of someone with education credibility.

The emotional support provided by wives, husbands and trusted friends was acknowledged as having a somewhat different role than those who were professional colleagues. Having an close relationship with someone who understood the importance of the role and was prepared to listen was incredibly important. Not every day was professionally fulfilling and it was nice to have someone who understood "that some days are better than others." A comment such as "I've been married a long time, and I'm very, very lucky, I couldn't spend the hours I do without her, it would be impossible" highlighted how important friends and spouses were in allowing the AP/DPs to cope with the inevitable stresses of the job.

In contrast, the data from the survey questionnaire displayed that many principal aspirants were strongly focused on promotion and developing their careers. For these individuals, ambition and promotion was an important career driver. Principal aspirants were also motivated strongly by the thought of being able to make a contribution to improving teaching and learning and believed they had the skills to make a positive contribution in this area. This group also identified strongly with factors that encouraged professional growth.

Surprisingly, financial rewards, ambition to be a principal, geographical location of the school and the influence of personal relationships did not figure highly in terms of the respondents answers for either career AP/DPs or principal aspirants.

School Size, Type & Decile Rating

The pattern of distribution by school roll was very similar across principal aspirants and

career AP/DPs in comparison to the group as a whole (see Table 15). However, there were

Enrolment Size of the School	All Survey Respondents	Principal Aspirants	Career AP/DPs
Less than 300	10 (6.0%)	4 (5.5%)	5 (5.6%)
300-600	38 (22.6%)	11 (15.1%)	27 (30.3%)
601-900	37 (22.0%)	19 (26.0%)	17 (19.1%)
901-1200	19 (11.3%)	9 (12.3%)	10 (11.2%)
1201-1500	26 (15.5%)	11 (15.1%)	14 (15.8%)
1501-1800	20 (11.9%)	8 (11.0%)	11 (12.4%)
1801-2100	9 (5.4%)	6 (8.2%)	2 (2.2%)
2101+	9 (5.3%)	5 (6.8%)	3 (3.4%)
Total	168 (100%)	73 (100%)	89 (100%)

$$X^2 (7, N=162) = 8.8823, p=0.26 (p\leq0.05)$$

Table 15. Enrolment Size of School

some differences within the data. Over 30% of career AP/DPs worked in smaller schools of

between 300-600 students, compared to only 15% of principal aspirants, with 26% of

principal aspirants and 19% of career AP/DPs being employed in schools in the 601-900 roll

range.

Notably 15% of principal aspirants worked in schools with a roll larger than 1800 students,

compared to 5.6% of career AP/DPs. It may well be that there are characteristics of larger

schools that encourage more AP/DPs to actively consider promotion to principalship.

However, the level of statistical significance between the differences in both typologies by enrolment size was not significant (X^2 = 8.8823, p=0.26, (P≤0.05)) leaving open the possibility that any differences were due to chance. As a result, this finding was not pursued further given the focus of the study was on career AP/DPs.

There were no significant differences in the distribution of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants across the four school types of area, rural, urban and large metropolitan. While Table 16 below illustrates that there are approximately 5% more career AP/DPs working in area schools this was more likely to have occurred due to sample error than any other particular factor. This last statement was reinforced by the Chi-square Test (X^2 =1.8812, p=0.60) which identified a 60% probability that any differences were likely the result of chance.

School Type	All Survey Respondents	Principal Aspirants	Career AP/DPs
Area	9 (5.3%)	2 (2.7%)	7 (7.4%)
Rural	43 (25.3%)	20 (26.7%)	23 (24.2%)
Urban	80 (47.1%)	36 (48.0%)	44 (46.3%)
Large Metropolitan	38 (22.4%)	17 (22.6%)	21 (22.1%)
Total	170 (100%)	75 (100%)	95 (100%)
X^2 **(3, N=170) = 1.8812, p=0.60 (p≤0.05)**			

Table 16. School Type

Of more interest was the distribution of career typology by the decile rating of the school. Analysis of this data in Table 17 (p. 106) below shows that there were some very clear patterns that point to a possible relationship between the decile rating of the school and

AP/DPs career aspirations. Over 47% of career AP/DPs worked in decile 1 to 5 schools as compared to 26.3% of principal aspirants. Unfortunately, the Ministry of Education data (2012) did not break down the statistics by career typology. However, the percentage of career AP/DPs working in decile 1-5 schools in this survey was very similar to the national statistic for all AP/DPs while the figure of 26.3% for principal aspirants was very low.

Decile Rating	All Respondents	Principal Asp.	Career AP/DPs	MOE Data
1	8 (4.8%)	5 (6.9%)	3 (3.3%)	(6.3%)
2	7 (4.2%)	1 (1.4%)	5 (5.5%)	(8.2%)
3	13 (7.7%)	3 (4.2%)	9 (9.9%)	(8.4%)
4	16 (9.5%)	4 (5.5%)	12 (13.2%)	(12.5%)
5	20 (11.9%)	6 (8.3%)	14 (15.4%)	(10.6%)
6	27 (16.1%)	14 (19.4%)	13 (14.3%)	(13.5%)
7	20 (11.9%)	12 (16.7%)	8 (8.8%)	(10.0%)
8	14 (8.3%)	4 (5.5%)	9 (9.9%)	(11.6%)
9	19 (11.3%)	10 (13.9%)	8 (8.8%)	(10.7%)
10	24 (14.3%)	13 (18.2%)	10 (10.9%)	(8.2%)
Total	168 (100%)	72 (100%)	91 (100%)	(100%)

$$X^2 (9, N=163) = 14.5056, p=0.10 \ (p \leq 0.05)$$

Table 17. School Decile Rating

Of the principal aspirants who responded to this question 73.7% worked in decile 6 to 10 schools, compared to 52.7% of career AP/DPs. While career AP/DPs fitted very closely to the national profiles for all AP/DPs (Ministry of Education, 2011) in regard to school decile, principal aspirants were clearly skewed towards the higher decile schools. The difference

between the distribution of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants can be clearly seen in Figure 10 below. The Chi-square test of the significance of the differences between career AP/DPs and principal aspirants with respect to decile rating did not meet the 5% threshold (X^2 = 14.5056, p=0.10), however the fact that there was only a 10% chance of these differences being due to chance lent some weight to this finding. The reasons behind why so
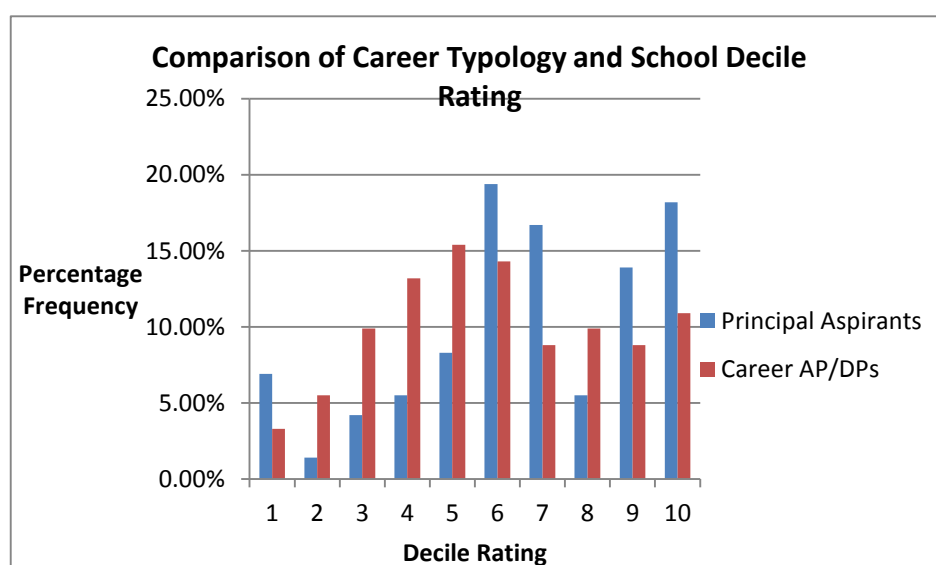

Figure 10. School Decile Rating

many principal aspirants work in the higher decile schools cannot be answered from the data in the survey. However, the pattern was so strong that it seemed likely that the school decile rating did have some influence on AP/DPs career ambitions.

Teaching Hours, Timetable Structure and Hours Worked

The mean number of teaching hours that AP/DPs undertook was 5.035 hours per week. Differentiating the data by career typology showed very little distinction between principal aspirants and career AP/DPs. Principal aspirants taught on average 5.04 hours per week as compared to career AP/DPs who taught on average 5.03 hours each week. Once the data on

teaching hours were further differentiated by gender (see Table 18 below) a few minor differences in the overall pattern were noted. However, there was nothing to suggest (including the Chi Square Test of Significance see Table 18) that gender had any large influence on the hours that AP/DPs taught in their schools.

Teaching Hours per Week	Male Principal Aspirants	Female Principal Aspirants	Male Career AP/DPs	Female Career AP/DPs
0	4 (10%)	1 (3.1%)	4 (10.3%)	5 (10.9%)
1-4	18 (45%)	13 (40.6%)	15 (38.5%)	20 (43.5%)
5-8	13 (32.5%)	14 (43.8%)	13 (33.3%)	13 (28.3%)
9-12	5 (12.5%)	2 (6.25%)	5 (12.8%)	6 (13%)
12+	0 (0%)	2 (6.25%)	2 (5.1%)	2 (4.3%)
Total	40 (100%)	32 (100%)	39 (100%)	46 (100%)

$$X^2 \text{ (12, N=157) p=0.90 (p} \leq \text{0.05)}$$

Table 18. Teaching Hours Worked per Week

The data for the number of periods in the daily timetable at each AP/DPs school is displayed in Table 19. As for the teaching hours in the previous paragraph there was no apparent pattern in the data to suggest that this was worthy of any further investigation.

Periods in Daily Timetable	Male Principal Aspirants	Female Principal Aspirants	Male Career AP/DPs	Female Career AP/DPs
Less than 5	5 (12.5%)	5 (15.65%)	3 (7.9%)	6 (12.5%)
5	26 (65%)	22 (68.7%)	27 (71.1%)	37 (77.1%)
6	7 (17.5%)	5 (15.65%)	6 (15.8%)	3 (6.3%)
7	2 (5%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.2%)	2 (4.1%)
Total	40 (100%)	32 (100%)	38 (100%)	48 (100%)

Table 19. No. of Periods in Daily Timetable

According to the AP/DPs who responded to this survey there were very few AP/DPs (less than 10%) who work less than 50 hours a week. On average principal aspirants work 58.05 hours a week while career AP/DPs average 57.85 hours a week. The data suggested that career typology and had very little influence on the hours worked by AP/DPs in New Zealand schools and this was substantiated by the Chi-square test of significance ($X^2 = 9.0609$, p=0.70) where any differences in hours worked by male and female career AP/DPs and principal aspirants had a 70% probability of being attributed to chance.

Hours Worked per Week	Male Principal Aspirants	Female Principal Aspirants	Male Career AP/DPs	Female Career AP/DPs
Less than 45	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
46-50	4 (10.5%)	3 (5.9%)	3 (7.9%)	3 (6.5%)
51-55	9 (23.7%)	7 (23.5%)	11 (28.9%)	15 (32.6%)
56-60	16 (42.1%	11 (32.4%)	16 (39.5%)	13 (28.3%)
61-70	9 (23.7%)	10 (29.4%)	8 (21.1%)	14 (30.4%)
70+	0 (0%)	3 (8.8%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (2.2%)
Total	38 (100%)	34 (100%)	39 (100%)	46 (100%)
X^2 (12, N=157) = 9.0609, p=0.70 (p≤0.05)				

Table 20. Hours Worked per Week

Nevertheless, differentiating the data by career typology, gender and hours worked did suggest (see Table 20 above) that 10-15% more principal aspirants work over 55 hours a week in comparison to career AP/DPs. The data in Table 20 also highlighted that more female principal aspirants and female career AP/DPs work longer than 60 hours a week in

comparison to their male counterparts. However, it is important to note once again that any differences were not statistically significant.

The findings in this chapter confirm the existence of a group of AP/DPs (called career AP/DPs in this study) who have different characteristics to principal aspirants. These differences are most noticeable in relation to qualification levels, speed of career advancement and time in tenure, the motivational factors behind their career decisions and the impact of decile rating (and to a much lesser extent school size) on their career typology.

Chapter Five: Findings

Professional Development (PD) and the Leadership and Management Tasks Undertaken by AP/DPs

Introduction

In the first part of this chapter I will report and discuss the professional development (PD) opportunities and support that the AP/DPs in this study have received as part of sustaining their leadership journeys. This discussion begins with the PD that they have undertaken in regard to their role and their levels of satisfaction with that PD; then the opportunities and support to undertake this PD; the PD opportunities that AP/DPs wished to undertake but were not able to; and what resources would have allowed them to participate in these opportunities are discussed.

The second part of the chapter reports and discusses the; management units AP/DPs received; percentage of time they spent on compliance and paperwork, student support and support of teacher practice; their input into negotiating professional tasks; constraints on their ability to fully carry out their tasks and responsibilities; and finally, their perceptions of their chance of being offered a principal's position should they apply.

Once again the views of career AP/DPs from the focus group interviews are added to the survey findings in order to support and clarify important areas of interest. The comments of these career AP/DPs, particularly with respect to their views on how well their professional learning needs have been met, illuminate aspects of the debate regarding an AP/DP's ability to carry out a significant role in leading learning in schools.

PD Undertaken and Level of Satisfaction Regarding Opportunity and Support for PD

The AP/DPs who responded to the survey were asked to identify the type of leadership and management professional development that they had undertaken since being appointed to the AP/DP role. This was an open question and, as a consequence, the responses were categorised into a number of common groups and these are outlined in Table 21. Some of the responses were somewhat unclear; however these only represented a small number of responses in the overall picture. The Chi-square Test identified that differences between the responses of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants were not significant ($X^2 = 10.1529$, p=0.66) and more likely to be attributed to chance, however despite this there were a number of themes in the responses that were worthy of further comment.

Professional Development Activities	Principal Aspirants	Career AP/DPs
On the job experience	67 (89.3%)	83 (92.2%)
Local AP/DP association	58 (77.3%)	67 (74.4%)
National AP/DP conference	54 (72.0%)	69 (76.7%)
Educational leadership websites	50 (66.7%)	44 (48.9%)
Informal mentoring by a colleague	44 (58.7%)	45 (50%)
Local and regional in-service	37 (49.3%)	51 (56.7%)
National in-service programme	32 (42.7%)	19 (21.1%)
Tertiary study in leadership	30 (40.0%)	27 (30.0%)
Formal mentoring by an outside school facilitator	17 (22.7%)	14 (15.5%)
Formal mentoring by a school associate	13 (17.3%)	19 (21.1%)

$$X^2 (9, N=840) = 10.1529, p=0.66 (p \leq 0.05)$$

Table 21. Professional Development Activities Experienced

On the job experience was the most common category identified by principal aspirants and especially career AP/DPs. Activities involving the local regional AP/DP association and the national AP/DP conference were also activities with which both sets of participants identified strongly. The strong responses in the questionnaire to 'on the job' training and the support of the local AP/DP association led to these areas being investigated a little further in the focus group interviews.

When asked to reflect upon what they believed was the most valuable professional development experience the most common theme in the focus group responses was also 'on the job' training. One participant used the analogy of a first year teaching position, "When you're in the classroom for the first hour, you learn so much about how you're going to react and how you're going to respond." The assumption here was that the AP/DP position was no different and that you learn from doing and "then reflecting on your own performance" and where possible "discussing your performance with another person." The majority of participants believed it is what you do every day and what you learned from this that was the most powerful learning experience.

The second most commented form of professional development was participation in professional associations, particularly regional and local AP/DP associations, with a high level of satisfaction with AP/DP associations support of professional learning. As one AP/DP commented the AP/DP association was a life saver for "him in providing good, impartial advice" when he found himself in very challenging situations. Nearly every participant believed that Regional AP/DP associations created an important support group outside of their immediate school colleagues. For these individuals there was a very real sense of

professional safety in "knowing who I can ring or email about a particular thing" particularly if that knowledge was not available within their own school.

Given the strong agreement that on the job training was so important the focus group participants were asked to consider how prepared they felt on their first day as an AP/DP. Their responses fitted into two broad categories. The first category included those AP/DPs who had previously filled acting AP/DP positions or had job descriptions that included many of the tasks that AP/DPs normally carry out. While acknowledging that they were "probably not prepared for it all," their previous job experiences brought them a level of comfort. A number of their responsibilities were very familiar "as they had already been doing them." As a result they felt as prepared for this job as well as anything they'd "stepped into, to be perfectly honest." While their major challenge was learning to cope with a full portfolio of senior leadership roles, they felt their previous experiences and the support of their colleagues had given them every chance of success.

The other category of responses came, in the main, from those individuals who had no previous experience in the role or the tasks associated with the role. Three of the AP/DPs used terms such as "sink or swim" and "thrown in the deep end" to describe their readiness for the role. "It was scary." In one case a DP reflected on being taken to his office and told "this is what you do" and left to flounder. Another recounted how in his first week on the job he was told "to put a teacher under competency" and if it wasn't for the support of the local AP/DP association he would have struggled to cope.

While many of this group of AP/DPs struggled to find a sense of professional equilibrium in their early stages, not all were left to their own devices. A number remembered being given

responsibilities but being backed up by their AP/DP colleagues who "offered advice on how it might be done." In the end most quickly "realised they could do it" and this created a sense of confidence in their ability to manage the responsibilities.

Two of the AP/DPs discussed the advantages of being an inside appointment. "You already know the staff" and have good working relationships which "fundamentally don't change." This was seen as a huge advantage and negated some of "the feelings of anxiety that you inevitably have." They reflected that due to feeling so comfortable in the environment they had an overriding feeling of "looking forward to the challenge."

Not one of the participants had received a formal transition programme in their early days as an AP/DP. On reflection many of the AP/DPs saw this as a clear weakness given their early experiences in the position. One or two could remember hearing about programmes designed to support aspiring AP/DPs but saw this as a more recent trend and these opportunities were not available to them. One AP/DP reflected positively on being "flown down for a day to spend time with the outgoing DP" and felt that this had been a great support to him. His experience was picked up by others who argued that there was "great value in talking with AP/DPs" about dealing "with aspects of the role and especially dealing with kids." The lack of these sorts of opportunities in their early days was something that they regretted.

The survey data highlighted that principal aspirants were more likely to regularly use educational leadership websites, undertake tertiary study in leadership and be involved in national in-service programmes including the Aspiring Principals Programme. These activities (including the Aspiring Principals Programme) were aimed at supporting the professional work of all AP/DPs whatever their career typology.

Apart from the points mentioned above both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs identified and participated in a very similar range of professional development experiences while in the role of an AP/DP. Their rates of participation in those professional development activities were also similar. However, the relevance of tertiary study warranted further investigation in the focus group interviews.

This was an area of significant disagreement amongst the career AP/DPs who were interviewed. Five of those AP/DPs had completed postgraduate diploma's or masters degrees and viewed tertiary study as "really helpful and really useful as well." Their perception was based on how important it was "when looking at the big picture stuff such as change management" and pedagogy. In their view, in order to have professional credibility there was a need to understand the theory of teaching and learning and organisational change. In contrast, the other five AP/DPs in the focus group interviews were at the other end of the continuum with respect to the usefulness of tertiary study. Their main argument was that the theory of leadership was not that relevant to "the day to day role you have in the school." In their opinion, "it's the interpersonal relationships and your ability to work with other people" which is the key to being successful in this job. The gibe "you can't learn interpersonal skills through a tertiary leadership programme" was somewhat dismissive of tertiary study and it was seen by this group as too much time for very little gain. One was left feeling that the two quite different views on this matter were perhaps the result of quite different experiences in educational leadership; however, there was no evidence to support this tentative hypothesis.

It was interesting to note in response to the questionnaire that formal mentoring programmes did not seem to be a strong part of the professional development experiences of the majority

of AP/DPs. As one put it "mentoring should be compulsory." Unfortunately, only about 20% of the AP/DPs who participated in this survey had been able to access formalised mentoring programmes indicating that perhaps mentoring is not yet a strong element of leadership training in New Zealand schools. However, what cannot be ascertained from the data was whether AP/DPs have actually been offered mentoring programmes as part of their professional development in their schools. However, four respondents did comment on their disappointment in not being offered a mentoring programme and as a result this aspect needed further clarification

The role of mentoring as a professional development tool was raised with the participants in the interviews. Not one of those interviewed had participated in a formalised mentoring programme. Despite this, these career AP/DPs saw mentoring as particularly important and they were all in agreement that mentoring should be compulsory. Two of them talked about how their local AP/DP association had asked experienced AP/DPs to mentor a newly appointed AP/DP in their area as it's "starting to become seen as a more important thing." These participants were unanimous in acknowledging mentoring as something that they believed would have helped them enormously as they started in the AP/DP role. However, the discussion highlighted that these career AP/DPs had a particular perception of formalised mentoring that appeared to be based on supporting those AP/DPs new to the profession rather than seeing it as a tool for the professional supervision and support for all AP/DPs no matter their level of experience.

Informal mentoring was a tool that focus group participants were much more familiar with. The majority of AP/DPs could identify a colleague or close confidant who acted as a mentor. In the main these mentors acted as a sounding board for discussing professional dilemmas or

providing someone safe to vent their frustrations to. Confidentiality and trust were important criteria in selecting a mentor as they needed to be able to talk "about things that were going on knowing it would go no further." Given the nature of the conversations and the privileged position the mentors held it was important to all of the AP/DPs that these mentors could be trusted to "hold their conversations in confidence."

One AP/DP in the focus group interviews talked about what he believed to be a formalised mentoring programme where the principal would mentor the AP/DPs in the school with the AP/DPs in turn mentoring the HODs. It was not entirely clear whether this was in fact a mentoring programme or rather an appraisal system that was typical of what might occur in many NZ secondary schools. However, another of the AP/DPs who had been a school counsellor had to participate in a formal supervision process in order to keep his accreditation as a counsellor. He found the supervision process "particularly valuable and when he became a DP he carried on with this person for a number of years." This AP/DP provided the only true example of an AP/DP who had experienced a programme that was close to formalised mentoring albeit that it started when he was in a different role.

The data from the questionnaire highlighted that the level of satisfaction with professional development was very similar for both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs (see Table 22 below). Using a numerical scale from 1 (very poor) to 6 (very high) to differentiate the satisfaction levels of AP/DPs, the mean value for principal aspirants was found to be 3.875 and for career AP/DPs 3.798. Approximately 60% of the AP/DPs in the survey rated their satisfaction levels as good or better. Despite this, however, it needs to be pointed out that 40% of these AP/DPs rate their experiences as at best only acceptable or worse. This represents quite a large group of AP/DPs in the area of the New Zealand secondary school

system that were surveyed in this study who believe they had not been well served in terms of professional development.

Satisfaction Rating	Principal Aspirant	Career AP/DP
Very High (6)	5 (6.9%)	5 (5.3%)
High (5)	18 (25%)	19 (20.2%)
Good (4)	23 (31.9%)	33 (35.1%)
Acceptable (3)	16 (22.3%)	27 (28.7%)
Poor (2)	9 (12.5%)	9 (9.6%)
Very Poor (1)	1 (1.4%)	1 (1.1%)
Total	72 (100%)	94 (100%)
Mean Satisfaction Rating	**3.875**	**3.798**

Table 22. Satisfaction with Professional Development Undertaken

Thirty five respondents in the survey took the time to make a comment regarding their satisfaction with professional development. A strong theme that emerged in these responses was the lack of time to undertake professional development which was mentioned by 7 AP/DPs in the survey. These AP/DPs were frustrated by the business of the role and the professional sacrifice that needed to be made to find time to squeeze in professional development to a busy day. This point was also mentioned by half of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews and was a significant reason behind their lack of engagement with tertiary study in leadership. Four AP/DPs in the survey mentioned the lack of support from leadership colleagues in initiating professional development experiences for them however, this needed to be balanced by an equal number of AP/DPs who mention the positive support of their principal and leadership team.

Three of the questionnaire respondents volunteered the comment that professional

development had to be initiated by them. They argued that there was little in the way of a

planned professional development programme offered that was linked to appraisal systems or

feedback from other senior leaders including the principal. Again this was balanced

somewhat by two other participants who claimed to be proactive in seeking appropriate

professional development opportunities themselves before subsequently gaining the support

of their principal to participate.

Opportunity & Support to Undertake PD Rating	Principal Aspirants	Career AP/DPs
Very High (6)	10 (13.7%)	18 (18.6%)
High (5)	24 (32.9%)	30 (30.9%)
Good (4)	20 (27.4%)	21 (21.6%)
Acceptable (3)	13 (17.8%0	18 (18.6%)
Poor (2)	6 (8.2%)	9 (9.3%)
Very Poor (1)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)
Total	73 (100%)	97 (100%)
Mean Rating	**4.08**	**4.28**

Table 23. Opportunity & Support to Undertake Professional Development

Table 23 above provides data on the level of satisfaction that AP/DPs felt in terms of the

opportunity and support they had received to undertake professional development. Their

responses were consistent for both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs. Using the same

numerical scale as the previous question, the mean satisfaction rating for principal aspirants

was 4.08 and a little higher at 4.28 for career AP/DPs. This would seem to indicate that the

majority of AP/DPs who responded to the survey felt supported in their role and were provided with a good range of professional development opportunities to develop their skills. The data in Table 23 highlighted that more than 70% of all respondent AP/DPs rated their opportunity to undertake professional development as good or better.

A range of viewpoints was expressed by the 29 questionnaire respondents who made a comment in answering this question. Many of the points were mentioned by respondents in answering the previous question. Seven of the respondents emphasised the positive support and the encouragement they had received from their principal and school while four others felt that the lack of time to undertake professional development was an impediment to them actually taking up the opportunity. Five participants pointed out the difficult financial circumstances of their schools which resulted in very few opportunities being available for them.

Two respondents commented that they wanted the school to provide more paid time to undertake leadership study as completing this study (in their own time) in addition to their normal responsibilities was a significant challenge. The views of these two participants are just some of a number of comments that highlight the difficulty for many AP/DPs in undertaking professional development given the workload of the role.

Forty nine respondents answered the question regarding the professional development programmes that they had wished to take part in but did not have the means or support to undertake. Given that 125 respondents skipped this question this would suggest that the majority of AP/DPs were very happy with the opportunities they have received. Of those who

responded, the four most commonly desired professional development opportunities that

AP/DPs would have liked to have participated in included: overseas conferences, AP/DP

PD opportunities that AP/DPs would have liked to participate in but did not have the support or means to undertake	All Respondents
Overseas Conferences/Courses	9
AP/DP Conferences	9
Mentoring	6
Tertiary Study	4
Principal Preparation courses eg NAPP	4
Time Management	1
Appraising & Observing Teachers	1
IT Training	1
Exchange Visits to Other Schools	1
Local Support Group	1
High Level Team Leadership Analysis	1

Table 24. Professional Development that AP/DPs Wanted

conferences, mentoring and tertiary study (see Table 24 above). Since the remaining

professional development opportunities were only mentioned by one respondent each, it is

likely that these other opportunities were not of significant importance to the group as a

whole. Of interest was the fact that conferences rated highly given that there is evidence

(Marshall & Hooley, 2006) that the actual outcomes of conferences and short courses in

terms of changing professional behaviour are probably marginal at best. Yet it seems that

many AP/DPs see conferences as being very important to them in their role.

Given the support for conferences as a key leadership learning tool in the survey questionnaire it was surprising to find that only one AP/DP in the focus group interviews made any effort to identify conferences as important. Conferences were very important to him in his formative days as an AP/DP but the need dwindled over time 'and then I stopped going." There was, however, more support for focused professional development in specific areas of educational leadership such as mentoring or "dealing with Maori and Pacific Island students" which could of course be delivered in a number of ways including the conference format.

A number of issues that were seen by participants as obstacles to their involvement in professional development were raised by those respondents who provided feedback for Table 24. These issues included: blocking by the principal, family commitments, lack of in-school support, school budget deficits, personal financial costs, and a lack of places on programmes such as the National Aspiring Principals Programme (NAAP). However, the two most common issues raised by the respondents were lack of time (identified by 6 respondents) and the lack of school funds (9 respondents) and these had obviously been a major impediment for many in terms of their professional development aspirations. The lack of finances in some schools to support quality professional development programmes for AP/DPs and the lack of time outside of their busy professional lives to commit to such programmes also (once again) came through strongly in responses to the next question in the survey (see Table 25).

The respondents who provided the comments displayed in Table 24 were asked to identify what support or resources they would have needed in order to take part in those professional development activities that they were unable to attend (see Table 25 p. 123). The three most

common themes that AP/DPs identified were the lack of professional development funding in their school, a lack of time to take part due to their busy professional role and, interestingly, a number identified a lack of recognition by the principal of the school for the need for them to

Resources Needed to Encourage PD Participation	Frequency
Professional development funding	15 (42%)
Time to complete PD	9 (25%)
Recognition from the principal for PD	8 (22%)
Mentoring	2 (5%)
An AP/DP Professional Budget	1 (3%)
Release time out of class	1 (3%)
Total	36

Table 25. Resources Needed to Encourage AP/DP Participation in PD

undertake professional development. The last point indicated that there had been some tensions within the relationships of some of the AP/DPs and their principals. This could be clearly seen in some of the statements volunteered by the AP/DPs, such as "There is no willingness by the principal to admit that we need external help to function effectively as a team" and "a principal who values PD is also required." These AP/DPs had identified the important part that principals play in developing the professional skills of the AP/DPs who were part of their senior leadership teams.

Management Units, Professional Time Spent on Compliance, Student and Teacher Support

Many AP/DPs in both the survey and the focus group interviews identified that the 'busyness' of the AP/DP role and a lack of recognition of their professional needs challenged

their ability to participate in professional development. The next section will look more closely at the leadership and management tasks that occupied the professional lives of the AP/DPs in this study. The section starts by analysing how management units (remuneration units for leadership responsibilities) were allocated to career AP/DPs and principal aspirants and whether remuneration levels were influenced by the individual AP/DPs career typology.

Tenure	Principal Aspirants			Career AP/DPs		
Management Units	Male	Female	Overall	Male	Female	Overall
PR3 or PR4	6 (15.4%)	5 (15.2%)	11 (15.3%)	3 (7.9%)	7 (14.9%)	10 (11.8%)
PR5 or PR6	6 (15.4%)	12 (36.4%)	18 (25.0%)	19 (50.0%)	24 (51.1%)	43 (50.6%)
PR7 or PR8	20 (51.3%)	13 (39.4%)	33 (45.9%)	13 (34.2%)	14 (29.8%)	27 (31.8%)
PR9 or PR10	5 (12.8%)	2 (6.0%)	7 (9.7%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (2.1%)	2 (2.3%)
PR11+	2 (5.1%)	1 (3.0%)	3 (4.1%)	2 (5.3%)	1 (2.1%)	3 (3.5%)
Total	**39 (100%)**	**33 (100%)**	**72 (100%)**	**38 (100%)**	**47 (100%)**	**85 (100%)**
Mean value	**7.04 units (SD=2.05)**	**6.41 units (SD=1.86)**	**6.75 units (SD=2.00)**	**6.45 units (SD=1.79)**	**6.01 units (SD=1.64)**	**6.21 units (SD=1.71)**

Table 26. Management Units Allocated to AP/DPs

There were some significant differences in the allocation of management units by career typology (i.e., career AP/DP or principal aspirant). Each management unit equates to $4,000 and so the higher the number of management units the higher the salary. Principal aspirants' responses were in general skewed toward the higher end of the management unit allocation with approximately 60% having an allocation of 7-11+ management units and 13.8% having an allocation of more than 9 PR units. In comparison, approximately 38% of career AP/DPs were allocated 7-11+ management units while 62% of career AP/DPs fell in the range of 3-6 management units. These differences were further reinforced with the mean allocation for principal aspirants being 6.75 units while for a career AP/DP it was 6.21 units. The Chi-

square test applied to managements units by career typology identified these differences as being statistically significant at the 1% level (X^2 (4, N=157) = 12.8626, p=0.01 (p≤0.1) further reinforcing these tentative findings. While the difference in the mean allocation of management units did not appear particularly large, nevertheless the data in Table 26 plus the results of testing for statistical significance displays a very clear pattern of difference in the allocation of units that suggested that career AP/DPs may be disadvantaged in terms of the remuneration they received.

When differentiated by gender the data highlighted that female principal aspirants were somewhat disadvantaged in terms of remuneration in comparison to their male principal aspirant colleagues. Over 51% of female principal aspirants were allocated between 3-6 management units with 49% receiving 7 or more management units. In comparison only 30.8% of male principal aspirants were allocated 3-6 management units with 69.2% receiving 7 or more management units. The difference here appears quite large, however, the application of the Chi-square test of significance identified that differences between gender and the allocation of management units was not significant (X^2 (4, N=72) = 4.9079, p=0.30 (p≤0.05)) with a 30% probability that the differences were due to chance. However, for the sample of principal aspirants in this study it would seem that gender is a factor in the allocation of management units for principal aspirants.

Interestingly, gender did not appear to have as much of an influence regarding the allocation of management units for career AP/DPs (X^2 (4, N=85) p=0.80 (p≤0.05)). Sixty-six per cent of female career AP/DPs had an allocation of 3-6 management units in comparison to approximately 58% of male career AP/DPs. This was an 8% difference for career AP/DPs whereas the 20.2% difference for principal aspirants was much more significant. However,

overall the data suggested that males were more likely to be allocated a higher number of management units in comparison to their female colleagues. Given that the mean management unit allocation for males in both career typologies had a similar half unit advantage over female AP/DPs this only served to corroborate this tentative finding.

There was nothing in the data to suggest why these differences had occurred. There may well be some pragmatic reasons behind this difference including that fact that there were greater numbers of female APs than males. In most circumstances, assistant principals would receive less in the way of remuneration than deputy principals and this may well have skewed the data for this particular sample. However, the data in Figure 11 below did reveal that when differentiating the management unit allocation by gender and career typology that female DPs and female APs received less remuneration than their male colleagues by way of
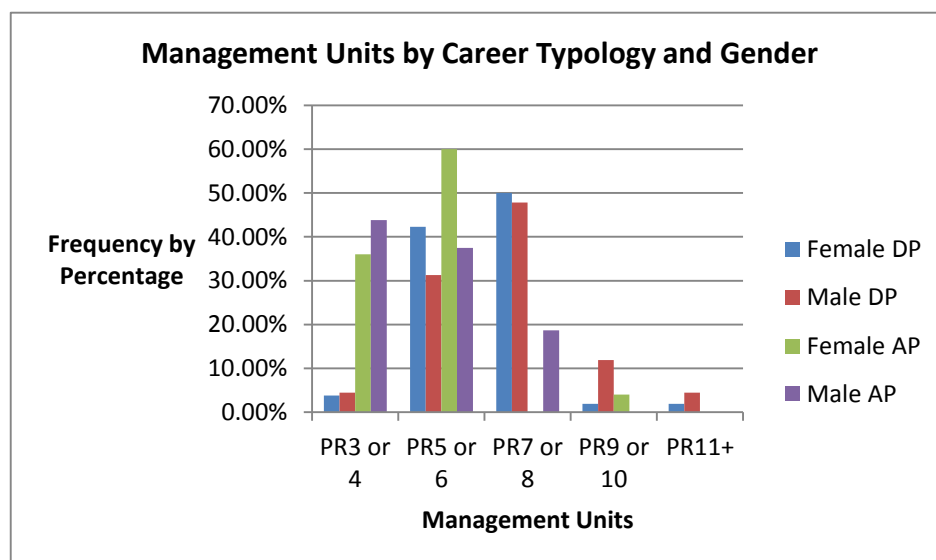
Figure 11. Distribution of Management Units for AP/DPs

management units at the level of PR 7 and above. Sixty four per cent of male DPs receive 7 management units or more in comparison to 53.9% of female DPs. This only served to

reinforce the earlier assumptions with regard to gender and remuneration levels.

Of note was the finding that 5% of career AP/DPs had a management allocation of at least 11 units which represented a salary of more than $120,000. It would be reasonable to assume that these individuals would be working in large schools where many might have significant responsibility with such structures as schools within schools. The data from this survey certainly supported this assumption with the mean management unit allocation increasing with the school roll size.

School Roll Size	Mean Management Unit Allocation	Number of Respondent AP/DPs
Less than 300	4.70	10
300-600	5.55	38
601-900	5.78	36
901-1200	7.08	19
1201-1500	7.10	25
1501-1800	7.30	20
1801-2100	7.72	9
2100+	9.06	9
Mean Value	**6.48**	

Table 27. Distribution of Management Units by School Roll Size

Those individuals working in the largest schools in New Zealand had an average management unit allocation of 9.06 units, however, those who were allocated 11 or more management units were more evenly spread across schools from a roll range from 1201 students through to 2100+ students (see Table 27). This was also the case with those AP/DPs

who had an allocation of 9 or 10 management units with those individuals spread across schools with a roll range from 601 through to 2100+ students. It could be assumed that those with a higher management unit allocation probably work in schools that have a hierarchical rather than flat management system within their senior management team. Figure 11 (p. 127) supports this argument in identifying DPs as the recipients of these higher management unit allocations.

The AP/DPs who completed the questionnaire were asked to provide an approximation of the amount of time that they would spend on tasks in three broad areas namely: paperwork and compliance, interacting with and supporting students and supporting teachers and their teaching practice. The broad area of paperwork and compliance included such tasks as correspondence, replying to emails and queries, development and oversight of policies and procedures, reports, auditing quality management systems, marketing, health and safety, emergency procedures and publications. Supporting students encompassed the pastoral care systems, teaching, lesson preparation, attendance, assemblies, supervision of students in the school grounds, day relief, assessment and reporting and extra-curricular involvement. The area of supporting teachers and their practice included facilitating professional development, supervising and evaluating teachers, curriculum development, co-ordination and involvement in teaching and learning initiatives, mentoring of staff and supporting provisionally registered teachers.

The data in Table 28 (p. 130) highlighted that principal aspirants spent on average 37.2% of their time on tasks associated with paperwork and compliance and 41.7% supporting and interacting with students. These first two areas occupy almost 80% of their time.

Significantly, they spent on average only 20.8% of their time on tasks supporting teachers and their practice.

Percentage of Hours Worked Each Week by Principal Aspirants	Paperwork & Compliance	Supporting & Interacting with Students	Supporting Teachers & Their Practice
0-20%	6 (8.1%)	8 (10.8%)	40 (54.1%)
21-40%	46 (62.2%)	32 (43.2%)	29 (39.2%)
41-60%	14 (18.9%)	24 (32.4%)	5 (6.7%)
61-80%	7 (9.5%)	9 (12.2%)	0 (0%)
80+%	1 (1.3%)	2 (2.6%)	0 (0%)
Total	74 (100%)	74 (100%)	74 (100%)
Mean Value	37.2%	41.7%%	20.8%

Table 28. Distribution of Time Spent by Principal Aspirants on Management and Leadership Tasks

Given the current importance placed on pedagogical leadership by academics such as Robinson et al. (2009) it is surprising that the role played by many principal aspirants was so heavily balanced towards management and student support. The extent to which these AP/DPs were concerned by the balance of their role will be explored in subsequent discussion of other questions. However, the data did call into question whether or not the role was preparing AP/DPs for a strong leadership for learning role that many see as the focus of educational leadership.

The data for career AP/DPs were very similar to that of principal aspirants. Career AP/DPs on average spent a little less time on paperwork and a little more time interacting with

students and supporting teachers in their practice. However, the difference was quite small although the spread of the data for career AP/DPs was wider than principal aspirants. The same points could be raised for this group as for the principal aspirants in regard to pedagogical leadership. The issue regarding career AP/DPs perception of their role and the management/pedagogical leadership balance was, therefore, an area which continued to need further discussion and clarification and was investigated further in the focus group interviews.

Percentage of Hours Worked Each Week by Career AP/DPs	Paperwork and Compliance	Supporting and Interacting with Students	Supporting Teachers & Their Practice
0-20%	18 (19.1%)	2 (2.2%)	41 (44.4%)
21-40%	46 (48.9%)	32 (35.6%)	40 (43%)
41-60%	29 (30.9%)	42 (47.7%)	11 (11.8%)
61-80%	1 (1.1%)	12 (13.3%)	1 (1.1%)
80+%	0 (0%)	2 (2.2%)	0 (0%)
Total	94	90	93
Mean Value	**33.2%**	**46.0%**	**24.3%**

Table 29. Hours Worked per Week by Career AP/DPs

Given that previous studies, including Graham and Smith (1999) and Marshall and Hooley (2006), reported that the compliance role was onerous, it was surprising to find that so many of the career AP/DPs interviewed in this study enjoyed this aspect of their role. Eighty per cent of the AP/DPs in the focus group interviews expressed high levels of satisfaction with those tasks that would be classified as administration and compliance.

For the majority of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews the compliance and administrative tasks had appeal in that they tended to be discrete tasks which had a start and a finish. "I had a day yesterday where I ticked off 5 jobs. That's bloody satisfying." The ability to' tick off' a job and know that the individual could move onto another job was an aspect that was highly satisfying and motivating for the majority of the AP/DPs who were interviewed,

Many commented that another of the appeals was being able to complete administrative and compliance tasks in a thorough and accurate way. "I'm a bit of a geek because I love doing March and July returns. I get real satisfaction from having a good accurate return." Comments such as this indicated that these AP/DPs set high standards for themselves and were driven by a desire to do these tasks to the best of their ability. "Getting things right" seemed to provide a real sense of positive self-worth and within this portfolio there were plenty of opportunities to achieve this.

The flip side of this, however, was that the current management philosophies in New Zealand education were considered as heavy on accountability and compliance. A couple of the AP/DPs saw this as somewhat burdensome as it can become "overwhelming when the demands keep coming." A number of the participants discussed how their leadership teams had overcome this issue. In one case the principal had used management salary units to create a number of small teams to support AP/DPs while in another school the paper work and compliance load was "shared in 4 ways so nobodies overloaded." This type of management restructuring was viewed by the participants in the interviews as a highly effective way of solving this particular issue.

Not every AP/DP in the focus group interviews, however, viewed the compliance and administrative role as being particularly positive. One argued that his particular way of thinking and management 'personality' led him to view the administrative and compliance role as irksome and frustrating. "I just like big picture stuff and know where I am going and I find the red tape and the detail that gets in the way is just bureaucratic nonsense really." While somewhat of a lone voice in the interviews his was an opinion that had been raised previously in studies of the AP/DP role in New Zealand such as Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009).

It is important to note that the AP/DPs who responded to the questionnaire felt they had a large influence regarding negotiating the tasks and roles for which they had responsibility. More than 50% were involved in negotiations with their principal and their leadership colleagues regarding their job roles and 49% indicated that those were reviewed and renegotiated on an annual basis. Many of the survey respondents who volunteered a written comment did note, however, that there was very limited scope for any role changes despite the annual review. In many cases roles were dependent on the skills of the team, and onerous tasks such as daily relief were shared on a term by term basis. Three survey respondents noted that they had never seen a job description for their leadership role but this did not seem to be a significant issue for them. One or two AP/DPs were disappointed that a number of their leadership colleagues wanted to hold onto their existing leadership responsibilities thus precluding these tasks from those that were up for negotiation. This had the effect of limiting their leadership experiences and narrowing the scope of the leadership role for them. This opinion was offset by two AP/DPs in the survey who noted that "it takes quite a bit of extra time and energy" to pick up new tasks and roles and this is one downside of continually rotating leadership and management tasks within the senior management team.

Constraints on AP/DPs Ability to Carry Out the Leadership Role

Survey respondents identified the sheer volume of management tasks as a major factor that impeded their ability to carry out their leadership role, supporting the points already made regarding the amount of time AP/DPs spent on paperwork, compliance and student interaction.

Constraints on AP/DPs Ability to Carry out the Leadership Role	No. of Times the Theme was mentioned
Too much Management & Too many Demands	58
Not Enough Time	57
Pastoral Care Responsibilities	10
Poor Team Dynamics Within the Leadership Team	8
Principal Interference & Constraints	7
Compliance Tasks	6
Not having Full Responsibility for a Task	5
High Teaching Load	4
Fire Fighting & Unplanned Events	4
Limited Scope for Delegation	2
Poor Integration of ICT	2
Family Constraints	1

Table 30. Constraints that Limit the AP/DPs Leadership Role

Sixty three AP/DPs went to the trouble of making a written comment regarding this issue and 92% of these comments identified this issue as the one of most concern to them. Comments such as "management and compliance tasks often leave little time for constructive

leadership", "too much paperwork" and "having to fire fight and act as a social worker" were typical of many of the responses that were made by AP/DPs in the survey. It is this issue, coupled with the perception that there was insufficient time to carry out all of their many tasks and roles, that many believed were the major influences on their level of effectiveness as an educational leader. As a couple of AP/DPs wrote "there is only 24 hours in a day" and there is "never enough time" to complete tasks in the way that they would have liked to.

Ten out of sixty three AP/DPs identified their pastoral care responsibilities as a major challenge but this did not come through as much as anticipated, given that it has been identified as a significant issue in many other studies involving the AP/DP role (Graham & Smith, 1999; Pellicer & Stevenson, 1991; Scott, 2008). Two other issues that AP/DPs commented upon were the negative influence of poor team dynamics within their senior leadership team and the interference of the principal in their role. Did this imply a lack of professional trust? A number of AP/DPs made the point that they wanted more autonomy and less micro-managing from colleagues. Some principals were seen by AP/DPs as autocratic and lacking in the necessary communication skills which resulted in staff working 'in the dark'. The issues surrounding relationships within the senior leadership team was a strong theme emerging from the survey responses. For many, relationships were a significant factor in their frustration with trying to enact educational leadership in schools. The importance of relationships is discussed in some detail in Chapter 6's report of the impact of various Job Attributes on job satisfaction.

Self-Perception of the Chance of Winning a Principal's Position

The respondents who participated in the survey questionnaire were asked how they would rate their chance of being offered a principals position if they applied tomorrow. This

question was asked in order to identify whether there were any significant differences between principal aspirants and career AP/DPs regarding their self-belief and confidence in their professional skills and ability to lead a school.

Principal Perception Rating	Numerical Value	Principal Aspirants Self Response	Career AP/DPs Self Response
Very High	2	2 (2.7%)	3 (3.3%)
High	1	12 (16.2%)	16 (17.6%)
Good	0	29 (39.2%)	20 (22.0%)
Fair	-1	24 (32.4%)	29 (31.9%)
Poor	-2	7 (9.5%)	23 (25.3%)
Mean Value		(-0.30)	(-0.58)
X^2 (4, N=145) = 4.4371, p=0.65 (p≤0.05)			

Table 31. AP/DPs Perception of Being Offered a Principals Position

Respondents were asked to rate their chances of being offered a principal's position using a 5 point scale from poor to very high. These were then converted to a numerical value using a Likert scale from -2 to +2. A value of -2 represents a strong negative perception while a value of +2 represents a strong positive perception by the respondent. The data highlighted that, in general, principal aspirants were slightly more positive in their belief that they would be offered a principal position (see Table 31). The mean perception rating for principal aspirants was -0.30 while for career AP/DPs it was -0.58. The Chi-square test ($X^2 = 4.4371$, p=0.65) identified that any differences between career AP/DPs and principal aspirants were not statistically significant with a 65% probability that the differences were due to chance. There is not a huge difference in the mean value between the two groups of career and aspiring principal AP/DPs and it is interesting that both groups had, on average, a slightly negative

perception of their chances of being offered a principal's position if they were to apply tomorrow.

Fifty-eight per cent of the principal aspirants as compared to forty-three per cent of career AP/DPs rated their chance of being offered a principal position tomorrow as good or better. However, the data also showed that over forty per cent of principal aspirants and fifty-seven per cent of career AP/DPs rated their chance as no better than fair. Possible explanations could include time in tenure, age and experience but it did highlight an issue in that many of the respondent AP/DPs had little confidence in their ability gain a principal position if they applied tomorrow.
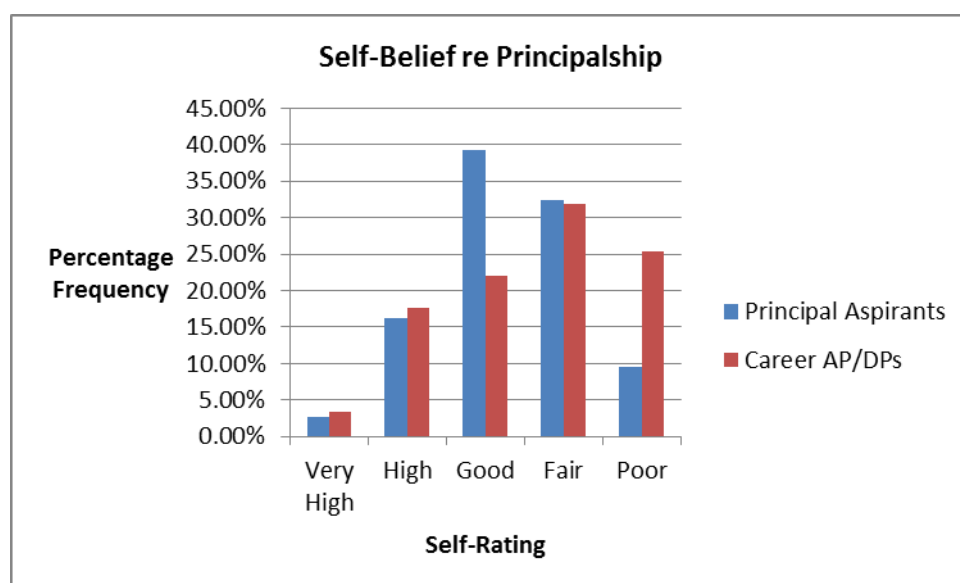
Figure 12. AP/DP Perception of Gaining a Principals Position

The main areas of difference in this question were between those AP/DPs who rated their chance of being successfully appointed to a principalship as either good or poor. In terms of rating their chances of gaining a principals position as good, principal aspirants are almost twice as positive as career AP/DPs, while career AP/DPs were three times more likely to rate

their chances as poor. For all other self-rating categories both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs had very similar perceptions. This trend can be seen very clearly in Figure 12, however, these comments have to be considered in light of the Chi-square test of significance which identified that there was a high probability that any differences were likely to be the result of chance.

Just under half of the respondents (64) took the time to make a comment to this question. They raised a number of issues that they believed would count against them. It was interesting that there were only three respondents who made a comment that was supportive of their chances including one AP/DP who identified her "excellent qualifications, wide range of experiences and strong emotional intelligence." However, comments such as these were rare with most AP/DPs outlining why they would not get the position. A number made comments such as 'age is now against me' or "being a women I have a lower than average chance of succeeding" and "well qualified but I do not have enough experience yet to be a strong candidate."

Reasons given why AP/DPs did not believe they would gain a principal's position	Frequency
Age – too old to be seriously considered	15
Lack of experience in senior leadership	11
Female gender works against respondent	5
Too long in one position	2
No time to study	2
Lack of confidence	2

Table 32. Why AP/DPs Lacked Confidence in Gaining a Principals Position

Table 32 above identifies the themes that emerged in the comments volunteered by respondents in this question of the survey. Age and lack of experience were by far the two most common themes and these two themes located individuals at each end of a continuum of experience as an AP/DP. Older individuals consider their age as a factor that would count against them gaining a principals position while those who were relatively new to the AP/DP position felt that their lack of experience would count against them. Five respondent AP/DPs identified their female gender as working against them gaining a principal position and impeded their promotional aspirations.

In conclusion, the findings in this chapter confirm much of the literature that identifies the role of the AP/DP as having a strong management focus at the expense of pedagogical leadership. While many career AP/DPs enjoy aspects of the management role (including supporting the pastoral needs of students) the heavy workload associated with the role acts as a barrier to AP/DPs engaging in pedagogical leadership tasks and significant professional learning opportunities. The findings also highlight a level of dissatisfaction from career AP/DPs regarding the professional support they have received both in transitioning into the position and during their development phase. Too many career AP/DPs talk of their experiences as sink or swim and almost none of them have received formal mentoring during their AP/DP career.

Chapter Six Findings:

The Influence of Job Attributes, Work Factors and School Context Items on Job Satisfaction

Introduction

Respondents in the survey questionnaire were asked to rate the impact of the job attributes, work factors and school context items on their level of satisfaction regarding the AP/DP role. The AP/DP responses were then converted numerically to a 5 point Likert scale from -2 through to +2. A value of -2 represents a strong negative influence on satisfaction levels, 0 indicates a neutral position (no influence one way or the other) and +2 represents a strong positive influence.

This section of the survey was followed up in some detail in the focus group interviews and these career AP/DPs certainly had clear views with regard to what were the important aspects of their role that provided high levels of professional satisfaction.

Job Attributes

The first question in this section asked AP/DPs to rate their level of satisfaction against 15 job attributes that are typical of the role. These job attributes (typical aspects of the AP/DP role that might act as job motivators) were developed through analysis of 40 AP/DP job descriptions and consultation with the executive of NASDAP as explained in chapter 3 pages 58 to 59. Three types of job attributes were developed, (a) objective job attributes that motivate through economic or measurable factors such as salary, (b) subjective job attributes that motivate through psychological rewards that enable AP/DPs to implement their self-concept and (c) critical contact job attributes that motivate through developing relationships

that meet important social needs. The process of developing job attributes in this study was also guided by the approach and examples of job attributes used in Pounder and Merrill's (2001) study of the factors that influence individuals' job perceptions and aspirations towards principalship. See Table 34 (p. 144) for an outline of the 5 objective, 6 subjective and 4 critical contact job attributes that were developed for this study. To avoid leading the respondents through having these items grouped into discrete categories the job attributes, work and school context factors were randomly assigned in that section of the questionnaire. The respondents' answers were then analysed by type of attribute in order to identify the influence that each had on satisfaction levels for AP/DPs.

Job Attribute Categories	Principal Aspirants Mean Value	Career AP/DP Mean Value
Objective Job Attributes	0.401	0.292
Subjective Job Attributes	1.513	1.353
Critical Contact Job Attributes	0.983	1.013

Table 33. Mean Scores of Job Attribute Categories

Table 33 displays the mean satisfaction rating of the job attributes differentiated by career AP/DPs and principal aspirants and this was relatively similar across the objective, subjective and critical contact job attributes. The findings would suggest that career typology (i.e, whether an AP/DP is classified as a career AP/DP or principal aspirant) did not have a significant impact on job satisfaction levels with respect to job attributes. This can be clearly seen in Figure 13 below where the only observable difference was a small variance in the mean rating for the subjective job attributes.

However, the data in Table 33 highlight a number of interesting factors about which job

attributes provide the highest levels of job satisfaction for these AP/DPs. The objective job

attributes focus on AP/DPs as being economic beings who weigh up job satisfaction against

Mean Impact of Job Attributes on Job Satisfaction
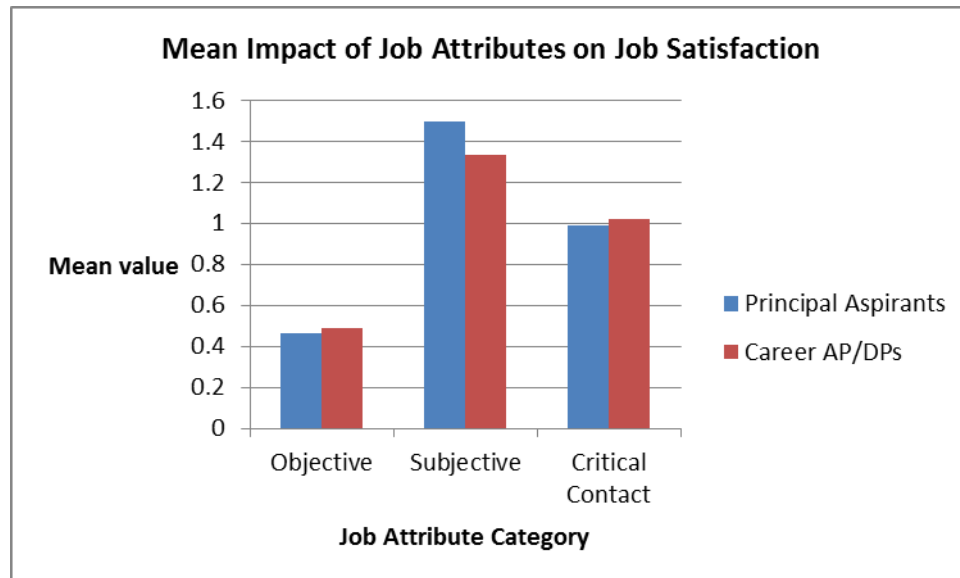
Figure 13. Impact of Job Attributes on Job Satisfaction

objective measurable factors (Behling et al., 1968). Objective job attributes had by far the

least impact on levels of job satisfaction for the AP/DPs who responded to this survey. A

mean satisfaction rating for principal aspirants of 0.401 and 0.292 for career AP/DPs was

only slightly positive.

On the other hand, subjective job attributes had a more significant positive impact on levels

of job satisfaction for AP/DPs in this survey. Subjective job attributes were developed within

a view of individuals as psychological beings who need to have their deep-seated emotional

needs met in the workplace. Both groups of AP/DPs perceived the subjective job attributes as

very important to their levels of job satisfaction with a mean rating for principal aspirants of

1.513 and career AP/DPs of 1.353. Both values were highly positive and reflected the

importance of these attributes to the AP/DPs who responded to the survey.

Critical contact job attributes incorporated those aspects that relate to relationships and personalities within the workplace. In this survey the impact of critical contact job attributes fell into the middle ground between objective and subjective attributes, with a mean value for career AP/DPs of 1.013 and principal aspirants of 0.983 that indicates the importance of their professional relationships in their job satisfaction levels.

Table 34 (p. 144) provides the mean value (and standard deviation) calculated for each of the individual job attributes. Table 35 (p. 145) provides the U score, probability of the differences between the career typologies being due to chance and size effect as a result of carrying out the Mann-Whitney U Test to gauge the level of significance of any differences. There were some interesting aspects in this data that were worth commenting upon. Within the objective job attributes, principal aspirants job satisfaction levels were clearly more influenced by the opportunity of career advancement than career AP/DPs. This was no surprise given their stated career aspirations and it was the only objective attribute where there was a difference greater than 0.3 in the mean value calculated. It was also the only objective attribute that the Mann-Whitney U Test identified as having a statistically significant difference ($U=1925$, $p=0.00$, $p\leq0.01$)) confirming that principal aspirants gain more satisfaction and motivation from this attribute with career AP/DPs being less focused on career advancement. The availability of holidays and flexible working hours did not rate highly at all and this was possibly the result of the workload that AP/DPs carry. One respondent made the comment that apart from the January holiday they had to work through the majority of the other holidays in order to stay on top of their role. Whether this was typical for all AP/DPs, however, cannot be determined from the information supplied by respondents to this question.

Job Attribute	Principal Aspirants	Career AP/DPs
Objective Job Attributes	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)
The salary and remuneration of the position	0.58 (0.86)	0.50 (0.66)
The opportunities for further advancement as a result of your experiences in the AP/DP role.	0.94 (0.61)	0.42 (0.60)
Increase opportunities for attending conferences and PD	0.46 (0.71)	0.34 (0.76)
The availability of holidays	-0.03 (0.92)	0.01 (0.76)
Flexible working hours and conditions	0.05 (0.92)	0.19 (0.82)
Subjective Job Attributes		
The opportunity to lead the improvement of teaching & learning	1.48 (0.60)	1.31 (0.70)
The experience of a wide leadership role in the school	1.47 (0.53)	1.43 (0.68)
The opportunity to experience personal & professional growth	1.49 (0.64)	1.32 (0.64)
The opportunity to influence others	1.34 (0.66)	1.15 (0.62)
The desire to make a difference in education	1.65 (0.48)	1.41 (0.57)
The opportunity to innovate/contribute to school development & change	1.65 (0.53)	1.55 (0.64)
Critical Contact Job Attributes		
The collegial support of your senior management colleagues	1.18 (0.68)	1.35 (0.68)
The opportunity to be associated with leadership orientated PD	0.85 (0.74)	0.64 (0.66)
Developing relationships between the community and the school	0.98 (0.75)	1.08 (0.72)
The opportunity to work closely with the principal	0.92 (0.84)	0.98 (0.90)

Table 34. Mean Scores & (Standard Deviations) for Job Attributes

Job Attribute	U Score, Probability & Effect Size
Objective Job Attributes	
The salary and remuneration of the position	U=3155, p=0.30, r=0.08
The opportunities for further advancement as a result of your experiences in the AP/DP role.	U=1925, **p=0.00**, r=0.38
Increase opportunities for attending conferences and PD	U=3242, p=0.45, r=0.06
The availability of holidays	U=3338, p=0.75, r=0.03
Flexible working hours and conditions	U=3100, p=0.48, r=0.06
Subjective Job Attributes	
The opportunity to lead the improvement of teaching & learning	U=3042, p=0.16, r=0.11
The experience of a wide leadership role in the school	U=3454, p=0.94, r=0.01
The opportunity to experience personal & professional growth	U=2733, **p=0.05**, r=0.15
The opportunity to influence others	U=2855, **p=0.08**, r=0.14
The desire to make a difference in education	U=2556, **p=0.01**, r=0.21
The opportunity to innovate/contribute to school development & change	U=3232, p=0.44, r=0.06
Critical Contact Job Attributes	
The collegial support of your senior management colleagues	U=2929, **p=0.09**, r=0.13
The opportunity to be associated with leadership orientated PD	U=2850, p=0.19, r=0.10
Developing relationships between the community and the school	U=3096, p=0.33, r=0.08
The opportunity to work closely with the principal	U=2953, p=0.41, r=0.07

Table 35. Mann-Whitney U Test (Statistical Significance of Differences) - U Score, Probability and Size Effect for Job Attributes

All six subjective job attributes scored very highly with 'the desire to make a difference in education' and 'the opportunity to innovate and contribute to school development and change' being the subjective attributes that provided the highest levels of job satisfaction for both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants. The data identified that the mean satisfaction rating for subjective job attributes for principal aspirants was higher than career AP/DPs across all six attributes. The difference between the mean response of principal aspirants and career AP/DPs for a number of subjective attributes was also statistically significant. The 'desire to make a difference in education' was significant at the 1% level and the 'opportunity to experience personal and professional growth' was significant at the 5% level. Added to this, the subjective attribute 'the desire to make a difference in education', while not making the 5% significance threshold did identify that there was a less than 10% probability that the differences were due to chance. While both career typologies were highly motivated and satisfied by subjective job attributes it can be stated with some confidence that subjective job attributes were a stronger source of job motivation and satisfaction for principal aspirants.

The positive influence of subjective attributes on job satisfaction was also clear in the focus group interviews. While the subjective attributes were not a strong focus in the interviews, they were raised by career AP/DPs particularly when talking about their leadership of teaching and learning as well as the pastoral network.

The career AP/DPs were unanimous in claiming that the variety of leadership tasks and the ability to influence others and help shape the school were a strong part of their attraction to the job. While it was not always easy to carry out such a wide variety of tasks the participants interviewed enjoyed testing their professional capabilities. As one AP/DP commented "I love the challenges" and these challenges have "proved to be really good fun."

The subjective attribute 'the desire to make a difference in education' scored highly in terms of satisfaction levels by career AP/DPs in the survey and this also came through strongly in the focus group interviews particularly with respect to their role in leading the pastoral team. This aspect of the role is discussed fully on page 152 (Interacting with Students), but it is worth noting here that the satisfaction gained from developing processes to support students was commented upon by the majority of the AP/DPs in the study. One of the career AP/DPs summed up its importance in stating "If you have made a positive difference to a kid, that's what teaching is about."

Six of the career AP/DPs in the interviews made a comment on how much satisfaction they gained from their role in being able to innovate and contribute to school development. This was also the subjective attribute that received the highest satisfaction rating from both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs in this study. Whether it was their leadership of the pastoral network or their leadership of learning role, there seemed to be immense satisfaction gained "from implementing change and seeing the results." There were many comments throughout all of the focus group interviews that identified how rewarding it was for career AP/DPs to develop systems and processes and then see "people take up change and run with it" often leading to "significant shifts in organisational culture." Their sense of pride in contributing to their schools on-going growth and development was very evident and an aspect of the AP/DP role that provided a very real sense of personal worth for them.

The opportunity to lead the improvement of teaching and learning was another subjective attribute that the participants in the interviews regarded as important to their levels of professional satisfaction. In developing programmes to support improvements in teaching and

learning satisfaction levels for career AP/DPs were high when staff were seen to actually buy into professional development initiatives. As one career AP/DP acknowledged "seeing staff learning and engaging is really energising." Their leadership role in supporting teachers to improve their classroom practice was considered an important role for AP/DPs and this is discussed in more detail on page 163 (Supporting Teachers in Their Classroom Practice).

The pattern for the critical contact job attributes is the opposite of the pattern for the subjective job attributes. Apart from the attribute involving leadership orientated professional development, career AP/DPs rate the critical contact attributes higher than principal aspirants. While the difference between career AP/DPs and principal aspirants in terms of the mean satisfaction rating was again quite small it was worth mentioning that career AP/DPs rated the 'collegial support of their senior management colleagues' and 'the opportunity to work closely with the principal' more highly than principal aspirants. One career AP/DP reinforced this in their comment by stating "I am the people person in my team …and I have a strong motivation to be an enabler for the staff." While neither of these two critical contact attributes met the 5% significance threshold for the Mann-Whitney U Test there was a less than 10% probability that the difference in mean result for 'the collegial support of your senior management colleagues' was due to chance. Therefore, there was a strong suggestion that the collegial support of their colleagues was a stronger motivator for career AP/DPs.

The importance of the relationship that career AP/DPs have with their colleagues was investigated in the focus group interviews. This part of the focus interview concentrated on the part that significant people in the lives of the AP/DPs had on their career journey and their impact on their levels of satisfaction in the role. Given that so many of the participants in the study were "provoked, motivated and supported by significant others" (McCulla, p. 82,

2012) it was important to drill down into this area in order to further understand the influence others had on their levels of satisfaction in the AP/DP role.

The focus group participants were unanimous in identifying their senior leadership team as one of the most important professional supports they had. "If you had asked me what is the greatest motivator for me in my job its being part of the leadership team." The strong connection to their senior leadership teams provided a sense of comradeship and belonging. As one of the DPs commented, "I love my DP job" and within our leadership team "we have laughter and we have serious debate, and we don't get scared about disagreeing with each other." She felt trusted and confident in her role and within her place in the team.

The values of trust and loyalty were the most common theme raised by the AP/DPs in describing what was important to them with respect to their teams. "You need to be able to have that sense of trust and loyalty towards each other." The AP/DPs argued that in a high trust environment an effective team was "the sum of the parts" with each individual bringing different strengths and talents to the table. If these individual differences in the team were to "complement each other rather than cause friction" then there had to be a culture of loyalty and trust within the team. According to a number of the AP/DPs a high trust team is a "well-oiled machine" which supports each other, listens to those "at the chalk face, hears what is actually going on and attempts to address things" for the overall benefit of the whole school community.

It was during the discussion on the importance of key values that the concept of collective responsibility was raised by a number of the participants. Vigorous debate, discussion and disagreement were a common element within all the leadership teams but the participants'

were adamant that team members must "totally buy into collective responsibility." As one of the experienced AP/DPs stated, "it's the old Westminster thing isn't it, when you leave the room you sing from the same song." Many of the AP/DPs saw this as crucial if staff were to have confidence in their leadership team. On the other hand, if there was a rogue member in the team "it is really interesting how cancerous that can be." When there was a 'leaker' in the leadership team the effectiveness and enjoyment levels of the whole team suffers. "You can't give out information as you don't know how safe that information is going to be."

The importance of the principal as leader of the team was raised by many of the participant AP/DPs. They argued that effective principals create the conditions in the team that allow free debate, disagreement, laughter and fun and develops processes to "resolve any conflict that might happen." The participants acknowledged "the principal's right to make the final call" but in their eyes a good principal listened to the views of their team and "empowers you to run in certain directions and trusts you to do it."

The focus group participants were also asked to reflect on how their leadership team colleagues impacted on the job satisfaction that they gained from the position. The first point that was raised in all three interviews harked back to the value of trust previously discussed. Trust was seen as a value that was both given and received. The trust of the principal and their leadership colleagues provided the majority of the participants with a sense of both satisfaction and affirmation. "The Headmaster, never once has he questioned a decision I have made" and he has "always supported me." As a result the participants felt an obligation to act in ways that reciprocated this support and trust. The majority of the AP/DPs argued that they were lucky to work within such a culture and the result was a tight unified team which resulted in high levels of motivation and satisfaction for them.

However, as one AP/DP had experienced when the team is dysfunctional and the principal is autocratic "it makes it a bit lonely" and stressful. In the end satisfaction comes from knowing you are an important and functioning part of the team and when there is a "guy at the top, you know, making the calls, you know that is not really a team process."

For nine of the ten career AP/DPs their teams were almost like family to them. "We have meetings every morning for half an hour, we tell jokes and we share personal stuff as well. If there's personal stuff going on in your life we generally share that." This led to genuine friendships within the team, "We are not just colleagues we are very close friends." As a result of these strong interpersonal connections the participants argued that the effectiveness of their teams was greatly enhanced.

Being part of a 'tight' team also had a number of other benefits and rewards. A number of the participants reflected that their jobs were characterised by spikes in workload and when in one of those spikes and under stress "it's nice to know your colleagues will be there for back-up if needed." This also implied being "sensitive to how others are feeling" and reciprocating when required. Three of the AP/DPs also talked of how important it was to have an 'open door' policy amongst the team. They needed to be able to walk into the principal's or one of their colleagues' offices and put things on the table and debate issues as they arose. Anything raised needed to be kept confidential until it could be shared with the wider leadership team and implied a high level of trust between individuals. These strong relationships were seen as a special and valued aspect of working in their leadership teams.

Receiving affirmation was also seen as a sign of a healthy leadership environment. While the intrinsic aspects of the job provided huge satisfaction receiving affirmation from the board, principal, and others in the team was highly valued. Given that the demands could be "overwhelming at times" it was noted by a number of the AP/DPs that it was very rewarding "when someone has noticed that I've been working hard." This provided a real lift and as one AP/DP argued it was "a very important driver for most people."

Work Factors

The next question in the survey asked respondents to rate the impact of a number of work factors on their level of satisfaction regarding the AP/DP role. These work factors were identified through analysis of over 40 job descriptions that were part of application packs for AP/DP positions in the period November 2010 through to April 2011. These work factors were then grouped by the researcher into a number of sets namely; work factors involving interaction with students, problems and professional dilemmas, management and time demands and, finally, supporting teachers in their classroom practice.

Interacting with Students

Table 36 (p. 153) outlines those work factors involving interactions with students. There were a number of areas that respondent AP/DPs felt impacted negatively on their job satisfaction. Those work factors included managing teacher relief (principal aspirants only) and management of grounds duty and litter while oversight of student safety with respect to vehicles and buses had at best limited influence. Those work factors that had the biggest positive influence on levels of satisfaction for AP/DPs included involvement in co-curricular and extra-curricular life, teaching timetabled classes, managing the pastoral care systems and year levels and oversight and facilitation of assemblies and student gatherings. On average

Work Factors Involving Interactions with Students	Principal Aspirants Mean (SD)	Career AP/DPs Mean (SD)
Oversight of the timetable and student options	0.70 (0.71)	0.82 (0.90)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2311, p=0.47, r=0.06	
Managing teacher relief	-0.55 (1.07)	0.13 (1.05)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=1587, **p=0.001**, r=0.30	
Managing student behavioural issues	0.38 (1.18)	0.48 (1.18)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3107, p=0.58, r=0.04	
Managing the student pastoral care systems & year levels	0.94 (0.75)	0.92 (0.85)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2445, p=0.76, r=0.03	
Teaching timetabled classes	0.97 (1.01)	1.10 (0.90)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2677, p=0.54, r=0.05	
Ensuring student safety including oversight of vehicles & buses	-0.01 (0.98)	0.26 (0.89)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2075, **p=0.07**, r=0.15	
Management of grounds duty and litter	-0.70 (0.81)	-0.34 (1.06)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2325, **p=0.05**, r=0.16	
Involvement in co-curricular/extra-curricular life of the school	1.12 (0.82)	1.14 (0.74)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2859, p=0.83, r=0.02	
Oversight and facilitation of assemblies and student gatherings	0.96 (0.76)	0.86 (0.92)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2842, p=0.67, r=0.03	
Overall Mean value	**0.423**	**0.597**

Table 36. Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Mann-Whitney U Score for Work

Factors Involving Interactions with Students

career AP/DPs rated work factors involving interactions with students slightly more positively (mean of 0.597) than did principal aspirants (mean of 0.423).

Differences between two of the work factors involving interactions with students were identified as being statistically significant. Career AP/DPs were more positive in their responses to managing teacher relief (0.13 against -0.55 for principal aspirants) and the difference was significant at the 1% threshold (U=1587, p=0.001). While management of grounds duty and litter was seen as somewhat negative for both groups the difference (-0.70 for principal aspirants and -0.34 for career AP/DPs) was significant at the 5% threshold (U=2325, p=0.05). Coupled with this career AP/DPs were also more positive with regard to ensuring student safety with regard to buses and student vehicles and the difference here was very close to the 5% threshold (U=2075, p=0.07). While these differences were significant none of these work factors had a major positive impact on AP/DPs levels of job satisfaction although career AP/DPs were more positive with regard to these roles.

The data in Table 36 did identify a number of work factors involving interacting with students that respondents rated very positively and this was subsequently investigated a little further in the focus group interviews. "If you took the pastoral responsibility away I think I would quit." This statement was, rather surprisingly, typical of the strong feelings that the career AP/DPs who were interviewed had towards their pastoral role. In commenting upon this role the energy levels of the participants rose markedly. There was strong agreement that the close contact with students and parents was particularly appealing and one of the AP/DPs summed up their feelings succinctly in stating "it's the pastoral side that keeps us all in the job."

So what was it about the close contact with students and families in their schools that provided so much satisfaction for these career AP/DPs? There was certainly appeal in being able to observe and influence students with significant challenges. The feelings of one AP/DP summed it up nicely. "Seeing kids grow through issues, seeing them develop as their own person and knowing that you and others in the school have had some influence on their development" was an aspect of the pastoral role that was highly appealing. The many other similar stories helped explain why the participants viewed their pastoral responsibilities with fondness despite the obvious challenges that it brought with it.

Another positive was the satisfaction gained from implementing changes in structures and processes within the guidance network that led to positive improvement. A number of the participants discussed examples they had been involved in. In one example, a school moved from "horizontal form (groups) to vertical forms" and after 5 years there was "a big change in the school that's reflected" in reduced stand-down's and suspensions. According to many it was very satisfying knowing the changes they had responsibility for implementing had highlighted "the benefits of a new system" and created positive benefits for students.

The relational aspects of the pastoral role were also highly valued. The close personal knowledge of the students and the strong relationships that grew from their interactions with them were seen as an enjoyable and highly satisfying aspect of their AP/DP role. By the time that the students "get to Year 13 you're almost got a friendship with them, you keep the boundaries but they're happy to come and talk to you or sit in the office yacking." The relational aspects of the AP/DP role can even spill out into the grounds where they were able to "chat to the kids, throw balls and do whatever you do with the kids and it's great." It was

hardly surprising, therefore, that two of the AP/DPs likened their schools and their relationships to the students as that of a family.

The pastoral role was, however, not for everyone. One AP/DP considered himself lucky not to have a strong pastoral role in his school. He did not want to pretend otherwise and saw the role as "quite stressful, there is a lot of conflict and a lot of issues are not easily resolved." There were times when finding solutions to resolve issues were almost impossible as AP/DPs found themselves dealing with "the personalities of staff, students and others and things outside of the control of the school." While acknowledging this point of view the majority of the participants were more comfortable with these challenges and fully understood that they could not solve every issue nor change every child.

The participants in the interviews were subsequently given the opportunity to discuss any changes that had impacted on their pastoral role over the last 10 years. Given the previous, mainly positive comments the level of frustration and negativity of their comments about several things was a stark contrast.

The AP/DPs firstly identified a complete lack of resources to bring about effective solutions to the challenges caused by poverty and deprivation. This lack of support was seen by the majority of these career AP/DPs as creating an increasing burden on schools and those in schools involved in the pastoral network. "If only we had the resources. I mean we could have supported the students at Year 7 or Year 9" and possibly been able to make the difference needed for these students. Without the necessary resources required, three of the AP/DPs indicated they felt like they had their hands tied and "we are trying to take on more ourselves" without the necessary specialist skills to be effective.

Pockets of success were noted by a couple of AP/DPs when support services acted in a coordinated manner. They saw the most effective approaches as being when "social services, police, local doctors, families and schools wrap around" the student. Unfortunately, this was seen as all too rare and as another of the AP/DPs stated with some frustration "you are left to ring up and you know plead to get IRF funding to get an aide" to try and keep the student in the school. Ultimately, according to many without specialist support the staff and leadership team were left to try and solve what were almost insurmountable issues with some students.

A lack of parenting skills was also seen as a significant factor behind a rise in behavioural issues that AP/DPs had to deal with. Many of the AP/DPs blamed family breakdowns that placed "the kids in a different sort of family and social situation." Inevitably, as one AP/DP argued, "there's a lot more stress on the solo parent" and as a result some of the students act out at school. The participants in the study were not unsympathetic to their plight as in one example an AP/DP talked of thinking about one child "actually you are doing pretty well, how did you dig your way through that crap."

One of the focus groups did, however, expand on this discussion to describe how schools had met some of these challenges. Restorative practice was one strategy they promoted "that's made a big difference." Students and staff experiencing conflict "have to be part of the process and it has led to the reduction of stand-downs and kids on detention." Restorative practice was seen by the AP/DPs in this group as a very effective pastoral response and has impacted on other processes such as the detention system. In some schools there is no longer a detention system or it is much reduced as restorative practice has changed staff thinking around consequences and punishment. A number of other strategies such as student

leadership and mentoring programmes and social workers in schools were put forward as examples of an expanded guidance network that were designed to respond to their local need. The effectiveness of these strategies had happily resulted in "decreases in our workload."

Problems and Professional Dilemmas

The next group of work factors were those focused on problems and professional dilemmas (see Table 37). Interestingly, both career AP/DPs (mean of 1.07) and principal aspirants (mean of 1.04) enjoyed communicating with parents regarding student issues, however

Work Factors – Problems & Professional Dilemmas	Principal Aspirants Mean (SD)	Career AP/DPs Mean (SD)
Communicating and negotiating with parents	1.04 (0.83)	1.07 (0.81)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3088, p=0.83, r=0.02	
Dealing with staff who do not comply with school policies…	-0.64 (1.04)	-0.49(1.11)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2906, p=0.26, r=0.09	
Dealing with complaints against teachers	-0.25 (0.98)	-0.30 (1.06)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3178, p=0.94, r=0.01	
Mean value	**0.050**	**0.093**

Table 37. Mean Scores & Standard deviations and Mann-Whitney U Score for Work Factors Involving Problems & Professional Dilemmas

dealing with staff concerns was another matter. The respondent AP/DPs as a whole found dealing with staff who do not comply with school policies and directives as a challenge regarding their levels of job satisfaction. Given this finding it was no surprise that dealing with complaints against their teaching colleagues was also seen in a negative light. This

begged the question as to why this was so given that AP/DPs obviously got considerable satisfaction from communicating with parents regarding issues that involved their sons and daughters at school. Given the large positive influence of the first factor in this category the mean value of 0.050 (principal aspirants) and 0.093 (career AP/DPs) highlighted this set of work factors as an area that challenged the levels of job satisfaction for AP/DPs in this survey. This was also a set of work factors where there were only small differences in the responses of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants with none of these differences being statistically significant.

The issue of dealing with complaints against their colleagues was followed up in the focus group interviews. This was one particular job under the teaching and learning portfolio that the participants would willingly like to pass onto someone else and their views supported the findings in the survey. Every one of the AP/DPs who were interviewed found dealing with complaints against teachers from either students or parents as emotionally and professionally testing. This process was viewed as such a challenge due "to the strong social connections with staff" which tested important professional values such as honesty and integrity given their strong feelings of loyalty to their colleagues. This comment was an example of how important critical contact attributes (i.e., relationships in the workplace) were to career AP/DPs and how the complaints process created tensions in these relationships that led to feelings of dissatisfaction with this aspect of their role. It could be a very emotional experience as one AP/DP found. "One of my friends is a staff member who I had to deal with." There was a real dilemma at times in trying to hold a line with regard to professional standards while trying to maintain positive relationships with staff.

The concept of natural justice was seen as a crucial framework for those AP/DPs who commented on this process. As a result they tried hard to be fair and stick to the facts. In trying to follow a fair process one AP/DP reflected that there was "a natural tendency to not side with the teacher, it's almost like you are harder on your own." It appeared very important to the participants that they acted with integrity and they viewed this as a necessary part of the responsibility of being a senior leader in the school.

The ability to be dispassionate within the process was crucial but nevertheless professionally challenging. Three of the AP/DPs discussed how the AP/DP has "to play the middle ground" as they proceed carefully in order to "find the validity of the complaint." They talked of trying to find a "win, win scenario where staff member and child reflect, learn and change." However, solutions could be difficult to find at times and "someone will always end up unhappy, feeling aggrieved." The major challenge in this area was that individuals' "perception of truth leaves matters open to interpretation" and a number of participants made the point that it could, at times, be difficult to verify the validity of the complaint. As a consequence the AP/DP was often left feeling like the meat in the sandwich and dealing with a strained relationship with those involved in the process.

It was, therefore, no surprise that the participants who were interviewed felt that the principal must be involved in the process and provide direction. The AP/DPs argued that this was imperative given the types of outcomes that might eventuate from the process. Someone, and in their view it was the principal, had to ultimately ensure that where staff had made mistakes they must accept responsibility and accept the need to put things right. On the flip side if "the parent gets too pushy" the principal needed "to be prepared to step in" and ensure natural justice prevailed. Clearly this was seen by the participants' as a very political arena and one

which AP/DPs were ultimately comfortable to hand onto the principal in the more difficult cases.

Management and Time Demands

Work factors that incorporated administration and management were the next set of work factors for analysis. This was another group of work factors where there was a mixture of tasks that AP/DPs perceived in both a positive and negative light. The two work factors in this group that provided the greatest levels of job satisfaction were managing the day to day running of the school and the AP/DPs active involvement within the wider school community. Career AP/DPs rated managing both of these work factors more highly than principal aspirants with the difference in responses for managing the day to day running of the school being statistically significant (U=2511, p=0.03) but the difference in response in terms of their active involvement in the wider school community was very minimal only.

Those issues that were perceived by respondent AP/DPs as impacting negatively on job satisfaction included working extended hours of work and balancing the demands of the position with family responsibilities (see Table 38 p. 162). Given that those issues had been raised by AP/DPs earlier in the survey with regards to obstacles to participating in professional development, this issue was impacting on a number of aspects of AP/DPs professional lives. Both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants were less than positive about undertaking Ministry of Education audits and student and staffing returns and a number of the other management tasks had at best a neutral influence in terms of AP/DPs satisfaction levels. However, given that career AP/DPs were generally more positive in their responses to the management work factors and that differences in managing the day to day running of the school, completing general correspondence and monitoring quality management systems

were all significant at the 5% threshold there was a strong suggestion that career AP/DPs might be more accepting of the management roles in their portfolio. As one respondent AP/DP stated "some things just have to be done."

Work Factors – Management and Time Demands	Principal Aspirants Mean (SD)	Career AP/DPs Mean (SD)
Working an extended work day/hours	-0.57 (0.71)	-0.54 (0.85)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3238, p=0.70, r=0.03	
Managing the day to day running of the school	0.81 (0.85)	1.12 (0.81)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2511, **p=0.03**, r=0.18	
Balancing the demands of the position with family responsibilities	-0.51 (0.88)	-0.50 (0.98)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3217, p=0.95, r=0.01	
Active involvement with the school community e.g. BOT,PFA etc	0.85 (0.78)	0.87 (0.89)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3020, p=0.85, r=0.02	
Undertaking MOE, student and staffing returns	-0.35 (0.85)	-0.21 (0.92)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2093, p=0.35, r=0.08	
Monitoring quality management systems including NZQA liaison	0.16 (0.84)	0.49 (0.81)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=1556, **p=0.04**, r=0.19	
Completing general correspondence	-0.14 (0.79)	0.13 (0.74)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2606, **p=0.05**, r=0.16	
Mean Value	**0.034**	**0.194**

Table 38. Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Mann-Whitney U Scores for Work Factors Involving Management and Time Demands

This view was clarified somewhat in the focus interviews. In chapter 5 (p. 162) the

participants in the focus group interviews said that the discrete nature of many of the

management and compliance tasks and the ability to complete them in an accurate and timely

way provided a sense of satisfaction with this role.

Supporting Teachers in Their Classroom Practice

Work Factors – Supporting teachers in their classroom practice	Principal Aspirants Mean (SD)	Career AP/DPs Mean (SD)
Facilitating the change management process	1.25 (0.75)	1.35 (0.70)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2791, p=0.56, r=0.05	
Facilitating and supporting learning initiatives in the school	1.41 (0.61)	1.43 (0.69)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2552, p=0.71, r=0.03	
Facilitating national curriculum developments	0.55 (0.89)	0.74 (0.89)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2177, p=0.20, r=0.11	
Facilitating professional development & promoting teacher practice	1.30 (0.71)	1.23 (0.63)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2286, p=0.54, r=0.05	
Carrying out teacher observations, evaluation & mentoring	1.18 (0.71)	1.16 (0.71)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2785, p=0.89, r=0.01	
Supporting provisionally registered teachers	1.09 (0.77)	1.04 (0.72)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2353, p=0.63, r=0.04	
Supporting the review of school policies & developing new systems	0.90 (0.86)	0.89 (0.92)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2843, p=0.67, r=0.03	
Mean value	**1.096**	**1.120**

Table 39. Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Mann-Whitney U Scores for Those

Work Factors Supporting Teachers in Their Practice

Work factors focused on supporting teachers in their classroom practice were the final set of work factors surveyed in the study (see Table 39 above). With a similar mean rating of 1.120 for career AP/DPs and 1.096 for principal aspirants, these factors provided a very positive influence on the respondent AP/DPs levels of job satisfaction. The data clearly identified that the mean satisfaction rating for supporting teachers was twice as high as the mean rating for working with students and was the area that gave the respondent AP/DPs their highest levels of job satisfaction.

The work factor that rated the highest with the AP/DPs in the survey was facilitating and supporting learning initiatives in the school. With a mean rating of 1.41 (principal aspirants) and 1.43 (career AP/DPs) this work factor provided the highest level of job satisfaction across all work factors in the survey. Two other factors rated very highly and included facilitating the change management process and facilitating professional development and promoting teacher practice. Again, there was little difference in the mean satisfaction rating for these factors for both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants. Coupled with the high mean satisfaction ratings for other work factors in this set and the fact that there was no statistically significant difference for any work factor in this group there seemed to be little doubt that both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants really enjoyed supporting their teaching colleagues and their practice.

The findings of the survey questionnaire indicated that career AP/DPs enjoyed their role in supporting teaching and learning yet it was an area they struggled to devote significant attention to. The focus group interviews provided the opportunity to explore this area in a little more detail.

Many of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews acknowledged the HOD as the engine room with regards to improving teaching and learning practice. They saw their role as having a more indirect influence rather than the close, direct involvement that HODs had in influencing teaching practice at the school. A number of the AP/DPs saw their main role as professional mentors giving "HODs someone to bounce ideas off." In this role they were able to influence teaching and learning through discussion and debate with HODs regarding how best to develop "the curriculum to cater better for the kids" who were in the school. Satisfaction came from supporting HODs to bring about changes to teaching and learning practice and then "observing it and seeing change" happen.

Another major area in the teaching and learning portfolio where the AP/DPs considered they were able to make an impact was facilitating professional development programmes for HODs, staff and provisionally registered teachers (PRTs). Many spoke passionately about the feelings of satisfaction they gained from putting together a professional development programme and then observing staff who have "actually gone away and used it." While honest enough to admit that this was not the outcome of every session when they attempted to bring about a "shift in culture" they were incredibly gratified when they saw teaching staff taking up their ideas "and running with it." One of the participants was very perceptive in comparing the satisfaction gained as a teacher when impacting positively on students with that same feeling when "staff engage with a professional learning opportunity that you have facilitated or presented."

It was clear from the points raised in the last two paragraphs that many of the participants saw AP/DPs as important organisational change agents. Their influence on teaching and learning in their schools was not necessarily at the coal face. The majority believed that it

was through their ability to support and "empower staff in gaining more knowledge to improve their teaching" that they were able to exert the greatest influence in this important leadership area.

As a result of the strong role that AP/DPs have in providing professional support to staff a number of the AP/DPs felt that any person applying for an AP/DP position should be an expert teacher. Being seen and recognised as an "expert" teacher seemed important and one of the AP/DPs was very clear in stating she "would be disappointed if there was an AP or DP who made it to the position" who was not. This view was supported by others and indicated that many of the participants viewed a high level of skill in this area as a key requirement of the position 'if you were going to have something to offer" schools and it was something that they took pride in.

In the course of the focus group interviews the AP/DPs did acknowledge a number of challenges for them in leading learning. First, many of the AP/DPs had only limited time available for this portfolio and "it is a bit frustrating only doing an hour here and an hour there, where really big blocks of time would be good." Given that the majority of their time was spent on the compliance and pastoral aspects of the AP/DP role the time available for leadership of teaching and learning was "negligible, except for supervising other staff." There appeared to be a sense of realism here that this was the way it was and, therefore, the HOD was "the driver not me" and the AP/DPs influence had to focus on the rather limited time they could provide to support and encourage key staff.

The second area of frustration was dealing with disaffected staff. One participant expressed his frustration in arguing that it's "unfortunate that you only need one disaffected staff

member who doesn't want to change" to influence your satisfaction levels. While there was some agreement that "rogue staff members" could be significant impediments to change it was felt that if too much focus went on isolated individuals it was easy to forget about "the ten who are doing it" and making considerable effort to bring about change.

The lowest mean satisfaction rating for a work factor in the supporting teacher set of the questionnaire was facilitating national curriculum developments. Given the high mean rating of other factors associated with supporting teachers it was surprising that this factor rated so low for principal aspirants (0.55) and career AP/DPs (0.74). Clearly the respondent AP/DPs saw something quite different between facilitating national curriculum developments and facilitating and supporting learning initiatives in the school. Whether this was related to the prescription and lack of institutional ownership of a national curriculum versus the freedom to respond, own and innovate within their own school cannot be determined from the data in the survey and this issue was not pursued in the focus group interviews. However, it certainly highlighted a point of difference within this set of work factors and this may well be an area for further investigation in the future.

Figure 14 provides a clear picture of the influence of the four sets of work factors on job satisfaction for AP/DPs in this study. In terms of the mean satisfaction levels career AP/DPs scored slightly above principal aspirants in all four of the work factor sets. The graph also underlines how highly AP/DPs in this study rated those tasks that supported their teaching colleagues and their practice, with only the set that focused on interactions with students showing any significant positive affect on AP/DPs levels of job satisfaction.
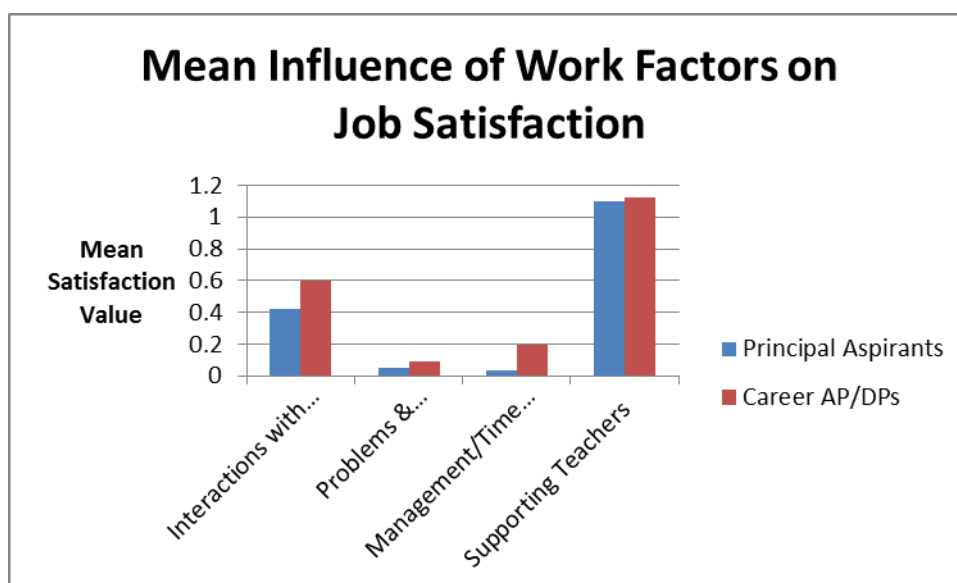
Figure 14. Influence of Work Factors on Job Satisfaction

School Context Items

The next section in the survey asked respondents to rate the impact of a number of school

context items on their level of satisfaction as an AP/DP. The overall mean satisfaction rating

for both groups of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants was very similar with principal

aspirants having a value of 0.790 as compared to career AP/DPs with 0.724. The mean

satisfaction values for the 5 individual school context items were also very close and there

were no statistically significant differences in the responses of the two groups leading to the

assumption that career typology has no significant influence for this item (see Table 40,

p.169).

However, the mean satisfaction value for the individual items highlighted some interesting

aspects in the data. The enrolment size and the decile rating of the school were two factors

that had no particular influence (quite neutral) on the satisfaction levels of the AP/DPs in this

study. The reputation of the school, on the other hand did seem to be important to them. The

School Context Items	Principal Aspirants Mean (SD)	Career AP/DPs Mean (SD)
The reputation of the school	1.18 (0.87)	1.15 (0.90)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3257, p=0.86, r=0.01	
The decile rating of the school	0.28 (0.62)	0.24 (0.77)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3218, p=0.97, r=0.01	
The enrolment size of the school	0.46 (0.72)	0.40 (0.82)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3189, p=0.69, r=0.03	
The school type (e.g. boys, girls, coeducational, private, state)	0.99 (0.51)	0.93 (0.70)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=3116, p=0.61, r=0.04	
The geographical location of the school	1.04 (0.87)	0.90 (0.73)
(Test of Significance, U Score, Probability and Size Effect)	U=2973, p=0.38, r=0.07	
Mean value	**0.790**	**0.724**

Table 40. Mean Scores, Standard Deviations and Mann-Whitney U Scores for School Context Item Scores

school type and the geographical location of the school were two further school context items that impacted positively on respondent AP/DPs satisfaction levels.

The varying impact of the five school context items on AP/DPs levels of satisfaction is graphically displayed in Figure 15 below. The graph highlights the significant impact that school reputation, school type and geographical location have on the satisfaction levels of respondent AP/DPs and the limited impact provided by the other school context items.
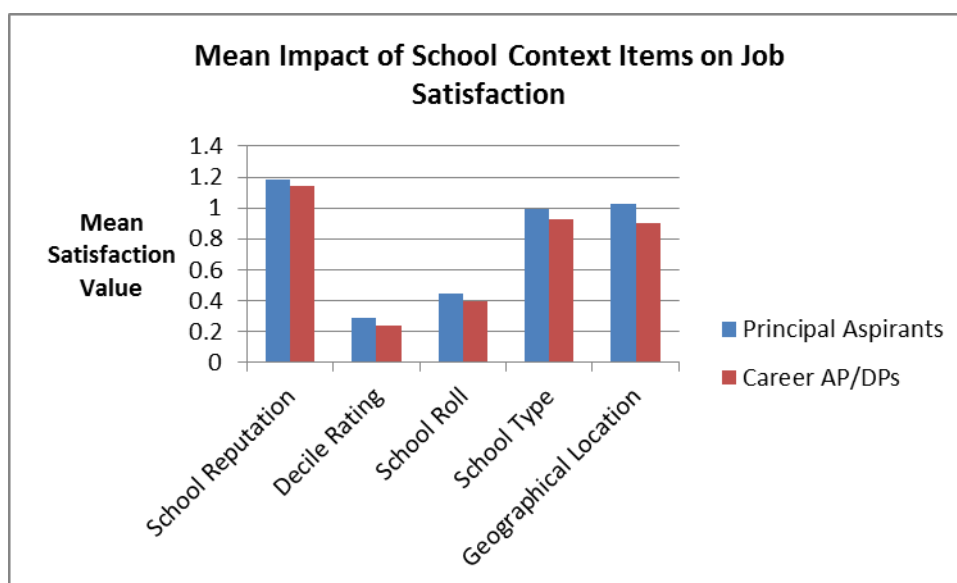
Figure 15. Impact of School Context Items on Job Satisfaction

The reputation of their school was the most significant school context item for the career AP/DPs who completed the questionnaire and impacted strongly on their levels of satisfaction. The focus group interviews provided the opportunity to explore this discovery further in order to clarify the reasons behind this finding.

The participants in the interviews were unanimous in arguing that a positive school reputation was incredibly important to their motivation and satisfaction levels. The reputation of the school was considered a reflection of the job the management team was doing and the "higher in the hierarchy, the more important it becomes." It was apparent that the AP/DPs took great pride in their leadership role and they enjoyed it when the community reflected back to them that they were "doing a good job." In a sense it could be claimed that professional egos were at stake.

It was also argued that a positive school reputation in the community helped increase their levels of satisfaction with the school. There was a clear consensus from these career AP/DPs

that when a school was 'on song' there was a sense of positivity within the student body which promoted achievement and student pride in the organisation. Being an active part of the success of the school and the students "lifted your self-esteem" and "builds your confidence as a leader." It was clear from the discussions that feeling successful in their leadership role was personally and professionally important to those AP/DPs who were interviewed.

As a consequence, where a school was performing poorly this was seen as quite professionally damaging to those in the leadership team. Many schools were seen as being in very challenging situations and as one participant commented, "I feel sorry for people in low decile schools with a falling role where fault may not necessarily lie with the staff of the school." In empathising with the staff in these situations two of the AP/DPs talked about how a 'failing' school can directly impact upon the self-esteem of staff and particularly the leadership team. They argued that "feelings of failure" and inadequacy can quickly lead to deteriorating performance.

The benefits of a successful school for students past and present were an aspect raised by a number of these AP/DPs. There was a strong feeling that they were the protectors of the school legacy and this was a positive burden on them. These participants felt a responsibility to maintain the on-going success of their schools so that the "students can be proud of belonging to the school" and hopefully go on to be "valued in society as members of our school." The AP/DPs gained a huge amount of satisfaction in helping to maintain and protect the hard won and long held values of the school.

The close emotional connection to their work was a common theme in the responses of these focus group participants. Comments such as "it's not a job is it, it's a way of life" and "in a sense the school's almost part of you" highlighted how important they viewed their work as leaders in education. It is, therefore, hardly surprising that feelings of personal and professional success and failure were closely aligned to the reputation and success of their schools.

The geographical location of the school scored very positively in the questionnaire responses, but this aspect was not a significant focus in the focus group interviews. However, there were some comments that suggested location was important to the career AP/DPs who were interviewed. Professional and personal stability appeared to be highly valued. "It's very comfortable here…and we have got a whole lot of positive aspects to our life here" in this location. There were one or two comments that suggested that their emotional connection to the school community was so strong that "it would have to be something really big" for them to consider moving to another role and particularly out of the town where they have strong family ties.

Final Respondent Comments

The final question in the questionnaire asked respondent AP/DPs whether they had any other thoughts that they would like to share about their experiences as an AP/DP in the secondary education sector in New Zealand. This was an open question and 48 AP/DPs made a final comment. A number of themes were apparent in their answers and these are outlined below.

A large majority of the AP/DPs who responded to this question made the point that they enjoyed the role using phrases such as "great job," "fantastic job," "rewarding job,"

"enormously satisfying" and "a very positive experience". Two AP/DPs stated that they "love my job." These individuals saw the position as endlessly challenging and it was a privilege to be able to serve their communities in this role.

This very positive feedback in the survey questionnaire also came through in the focus group interviews. Not one of the ten career AP/DPs interviewed expressed any regrets regarding their decision to become an AP/DP. Comments such as "I've enjoyed the job, love the school" and "I absolutely love it, love the challenges, every day they are different, every day you meet new people" were typical comments. As one participant stated, "If I was in the same situation again I would make the same decision."

A number of the AP/DPs interviewed spoke of how much they enjoyed being "able to influence the shape and direction of the school more." They enjoyed the strong leadership role in this position and that "its people focused totally." The constant interaction with staff, students and parents was an aspect that was highly valued and came up consistently in a number of the sections of the focus group interview.

One participant in the interviews commented on enjoying the freedom to innovate and to develop initiatives while having the confidence of the principal to try things as long as "you were prepared to take the consequences if it went terribly wrong." The ability to make decisions and put in place programmes when and as the need arose was seen as stimulating and rewarding as was having the support of the principal to allow them to make these professional judgements.

It was interesting to note that almost without exception that career AP/DPs expressed that their enjoyment of the AP/DP role acted as a block to further thoughts of career promotion, "I am just happy where I am and enjoying what I am doing and I thought, what's the point in changing." There appeared to be a strong sense of well-being that came from leading the school from a senior position which they were comfortable in. "I like being second" was one comment that came through a number of times in the interviews. It appeared that being second provided a high level of challenge within an important educational leadership position but without the ultimate responsibility and consequent stress that came with occupying the principal's position.

Three career AP/DPs stated that one of the most important elements of the AP/DP role that they enjoyed was the constant "interaction with students and staff." They enjoyed the "daily interaction with people's lives" through the everyday activities that took place in a school. These individuals saw the principal's role as focusing on "looking at the big picture stuff" and as a consequence principals were somewhat disconnected from those daily interactions that these AP/DPs valued so highly. This provided further motivation to remain as an AP/DP and put aside any thoughts of principalship.

Another of the roles of the principal that two of the career AP/DPs saw as a turn off was the constant tension between trying to innovate and develop programmes and the reality of a finite financial pool of resources. The principal spends "a large part of the day listening to people coming to them with really good initiatives and really good ideas and knowing they wouldn't have the resources to provide it." This was an aspect of the role that was seen as particularly negative and detrimental to the school and it seemed it was much easier to avoid

these professional challenges and remain in a role which they felt was more positive and satisfying.

Many of the AP/DPs in the survey questionnaire commented on the frenetic nature of the role. It was seen as a never ending job characterised, as one respondent put it, by "rapid pace, multiple demands and transitions throughout the day." For these AP/DPs there were not enough hours in the day and, as two commented, there was "rarely a dull moment." The challenge for many was to effectively manage a role where unplanned and unscheduled tasks were often urgent (e.g., pastoral care) and took precedence over other important tasks. As one AP/DP stated, "it is difficult to plan your day when so much is reactionary …as a result little of your plan is achieved." This fire fighting role had a significant impact on their ability to complete all of their job tasks. Much of what they had responsibility for had to be fitted around the urgent stuff and a number of AP/DPs reflected upon this, stating that "work/life balance is a struggle."

The tension between leadership and management also came through in many of the comments in the questionnaire. A few respondents felt submerged in a sea of management tasks at the expense of a leadership role. One AP/DP wrote that principals "bury us in management" and that there was a need by principals to deliberately train and focus their AP/DPs on leadership. Another felt that the AP position was only that of an "administrator with some authority" and that DPs get to do the real leadership in schools. "Leadership needs to be more distributed" argued one, and this point was raised by two other AP/DPs who argued that schools should be seen as being led by teams rather than a CEO. A small number of AP/DPs felt undervalued as the "principal gets all the credos" and the efforts of AP/DPs were not always fully appreciated. Two of the respondents asked for greater levels of

professional trust and more autonomy from the principal in order to get more satisfaction from the position. "AP/DPs are highly underrated in terms of what they do towards maintaining the smooth running of the school" one claimed indicating perhaps a feeling that the efforts of AP/DPs were not fully recognised or appreciated.

It is important to note that some of these views were not supported by participants in the focus group interviews. As previously mentioned many of the career AP/DPs viewed their teams and principals very positively describing them as 'family'. The majority worked in leadership teams where their input and voice was listened to. They also reflected the view that their principals endeavoured to create teams where individuals were trusted and supported in their role.

In conclusion, the subjective attributes of the AP/DP role provided career AP/DPs with the highest levels of satisfaction in carrying out the role even though the mean score was somewhat less than principal aspirants. The psychological rewards that career AP/DPs gained from subjective attributes such as making a difference in education were highly valued and enabled career AP/DPs to feel good about their contribution in the school. Career AP/DPs also valued their relationships with their colleagues with critical contact attributes scoring highly and this emphasised the importance of social connections for career AP/DPs. Having the trust, support and confidence of their principal and leadership colleagues was an important motivator for career AP/DPs.

Work factors focused on supporting teachers and their practice scored more highly than work factors supporting students and emphasised how important the pedagogical leadership role was to career AP/DPs. However, it was also an area of frustration given that AP/DPs felt

somewhat swamped by the management and administration load. From their view there was never enough time to make the sort of impact in leadership for learning that they wished for.

Chapter Seven:

Discussion and Implication of Findings

Introduction

It is the purpose of this chapter to discuss key themes that have been presented in chapters four to six.

The study has identified career AP/DPs as a unique group with a set of characteristics that differentiate them from principal aspirants which can be summarised as follows.

Typically, when compared to the principal aspirant AP/DPs in this study, career AP/DPs experienced a much slower career progression, were less likely to be employed in larger, high decile schools and had little in the way of a clearly thought out career plan. Most of these career AP/DPs seemed to have lower levels of self-belief in their professional capabilities and were not so motivated to work in a position of ultimate leadership responsibility, preferring to lead from a position within a leadership team, rather than above as was the case for the principal aspirants. Typically, career AP/DPs enjoyed the pastoral role and would not like to lose this valued aspect of the role. They also enjoyed being directly involved in the daily interactions with staff and students viewing the move to a principal's position as necessitating the loss of this cherished aspect of the AP/DP role. These career AP/DPs had less involvement in national educational leadership preparatory programmes, in comparison with principal aspirants and are less likely to have undertaken tertiary leadership study. They were highly relationship orientated, and workplace stability and work/life balance appeared to be a higher priority than for principal aspirants. Finally, these career AP/DPs had no interest in principalship and they found the AP/DP position a highly satisfying and motivating role from which they gained immense satisfaction and psychological rewards.

While the career anchorage perspective was an important tool in identifying this group of career AP/DPs, job choice theory was also an important theoretical framework underpinning this study (see the conceptual framework section of chapter three). Job choice theory integrates three separate theories. Individuals make job decisions in varying degrees through an objective lens (as economic beings), a subjective lens (as psychological beings) and a critical contact lens (as relational beings). Following Pounder and Merrill's (2001) research approach, a number of job attributes developed within these three theories plus some other work factors and school context items which were typical of the AP/DP position were developed for this study. Participants in the questionnaire were asked to rate the influence of these attributes and factors on their levels of satisfaction and motivation in the role. The analysis of their responses identified a number of important themes regarding the impact that job attributes, work factors and school context items have on career AP/DPs levels of satisfaction. From these it is possible to determine the job choice lens that AP/DPs use to rate their work.

The discussions that follow in this chapter have been structured into three main sections. Section One focuses on demographic characteristics of the career AP/DPs and aspects of their career journey, followed by, Section Two's discussion of significant aspects of their professional learning and how they have been supported in carrying out the AP/DP leadership role. Finally Section Three examines their involvement in leading learning and the challenges that they have experienced in attempting to carry out this role.

Section 1: A Career Journey Story: Identifying the Career AP/DP

The findings in this section are related to research questions:

a) What evidence supports the identification of secondary school career AP/DPs who consider their role as a legitimate terminal career alternative to principalship?

b) In what ways do the personal characteristics, professional perspectives and views of the role of the career AP/DP differ from those AP/DPs aspiring to principalship?

c) What are the experiences and perspectives of career AP/DPs with regard to?

    I.   their attraction to the role

Introduction

The first part of this discussion looks to identify the characteristics of the career AP/DP. As noted on page 96 of this study the term 'career AP/DP' was not accepted by all participants in this study as a positive or even accurate term for describing those educational leaders who have no aspiration towards principalship. However, the term has been retained in order to differentiate the group of AP/DPs who are aspiring to principalship from those who are not. The latter are the focus of this study. In using this term there is no assumption made that those labelled as career AP/DPs will continue to serve in this role as their ultimate career destination. Some may well subsequently move out of the New Zealand secondary education system, some may move back down the career ladder in education and some even change their minds with regard to pursuing principalship. However, given the age and the responses from many of the participant career AP/DPs it does appear that the majority will continue to serve in this position until retirement.

Using James and Whiting's (1998, p. 47) career anchorage perspective categories, fifty-eight per cent of the respondents to the questionnaire identified themselves as either a settler or

unavailed aspirant (settlers are AP/DPs who have never applied for principalship and do not envisage doing so in the future while unavailed aspirants are AP/DPs who have applied for principalship in the past but will not do so in the future). As such, they have been thereby categorised as career AP/DPs. This proportion of current AP/DPs with no aspiration to principalship is similar to findings of studies in Britain (James & Whiting, 1998), Australia (Gronn & Rawlings-Sanaei, 2003) and New Zealand (Douglas, 2007) and identifies career AP/DPs as a very significant group within the AP/DP body of educational leaders (though only James and Whiting used that term).

Age and Career Transitions: A Little Less Haste for Career AP/DPs

The career AP/DPs in this study moved more slowly through the traditional career transition stages of an assistant teacher and head of department (HOD) in comparison to principal aspirants. Fifty per cent of career AP/DPs stayed in the HOD role for more than 10 years while 70% of the principal aspirants passed through this stage of their career journey in under 10 years. Time in tenure at the HOD stage appeared to have an influence in affecting the age of the career AP/DP upon appointment and beyond.

This effect can be interpreted within a career anchorage theory (Tausky & Dublin, 1965), which argues that individuals evaluate their career by either anchoring the point of reference to a career's origin or on the level of ultimate possible achievement. Tauskey and Dubin (1965) called these points of reference polar orientations with those individuals who look downwards to the starting point in their career being classified under a limited success model which in this study is defined as career AP/DPs. Principals aspirants on the other hand focus on ultimate possible achievement (unlimited successors) which in a school environment is the principal position. In their study, Tauskey and Dubin (1965) argued that individuals' career

orientations change with age increasingly changing to a downward focus on starting points (career AP/DPs) with advancing age and in particular after age 45.

The length of time in tenure as an HOD appeared to have a significant influence on the career orientation of participants in this study. On average career AP/DPs served for 2 years longer as an HOD before moving to the AP/DP position with half holding the HOD position more than 10 years as compared to around a fifth of principal aspirants. Indeed, many career AP/DPs were on average considerably older when gaining an AP/DP position than principal aspirants. The data (see Fig. 3, p. 84) would support Tauskey and Dubin's (1965) proposition that as individuals pass the age of 45 their career orientation increasingly changes to one focused on the AP/DP position as a career.

The impact of the advancing age of individuals on their job choices in education were also discussed in Pounder and Merrill's (2001) study using job choice theory. They argued that those in senior leadership roles had already experienced significant psychological rewards in the role through displaying their commitment to education and the opportunity to lead and influence others. Because of their age and being further along in their careers, many assistant principals, Pounder and Merrill (2001) claimed, had family and economic commitments that made the principalship less attractive.

Gender also seemed significant in this current study in that females made the decision not to seek principalship at a much earlier age than males. One possible reason for this differential given by Donn (1987), and supported in the work of Graham and Smith (1999), centred on women's perceived limited attainable career choices. This belief was influenced by a range of interacting factors of discrimination that influence a women's path in attaining top leadership

positions in education. These factors include a prevalence of male centred models of leadership, a woman's perception and experiences of leadership and employment practices that inhibit women's aspirations as educational leaders. The challenges for women were also recognised in Scott's (2008) study of New Zealand AP/DPs where she argued that many female AP/DPs in her study were very tentative regarding aspirations towards principalship. Major concerns for this group centred on considerations around their family and the employment situations of their husbands and partners and while very few female career AP/DPs were able to be interviewed in the study, those who were voiced similar views. It is quite apparent that women face many more obstacles in their career journey and it is, therefore, easy to understand why they might reject further career advancement at an earlier age than their male colleagues.

There were also other factors with respect to the HOD role that influenced career AP/DPs to stay longer in the HOD position than principal aspirants. The career AP/DPs in the interviews painted a very positive picture of their time as an HOD, identifying challenge, the ability to build a close and supportive team and the ability to apply their subject expertise as highly valued aspects of the role. They emphasised that the HOD was a key pedagogical leadership position and this role had significant appeal for them in that it was focused on actual teaching and learning and enabled them to express their love of teaching and their enjoyment of working with students. Research studies using job choice theory (e.g., Pounder, Crow & Bergerson, 2004; Pounder & Merrill, 2001) have highlighted that subjective job attributes have the most significant influence on the job choice of individuals. According to Pounder and Merrill (2001), individuals seek work environments that provide satisfaction at a deep emotional level. The views of career AP/DPs with regard to the HOD position suggest that

the position was highly satisfying enabling them to contribute to the academic success of students and helping meet their self-image as quality educators.

The importance of teaching and maintaining close contact with students was also expressed in Graham and Smith's (1999) study where a number of AP/DPs dismissed pursuing principalship as they would lose already limited classroom and teaching time. These findings suggest that AP/DPs are well aware that each step up the career ladder takes them further away from the work of teaching in the classroom and the psychological rewards that it brings. This view was also reflected by career AP/DPs in this study and for many respondents was a significant factor in weighing up the merits of pursuing career advancement in education.

The second important factor related to career AP/DPs tenure as an HOD was that many did not at that stage intend to move to the AP/DP position. Given the enjoyment that all of the career AP/DPs expressed regarding their time as an HOD they were more likely to enter a period of maintenance or stability until a significant catalyst for change prompted them to consider other options. Job choice theory (Behling et al., 1968) would contend that respondents would remain in the position until some change in the economic, subjective, critical contact and work factors inherent in the HOD position resulted in a level of dissatisfaction that prompted thought to a role change.

Principal aspirants, on the whole, were more likely to be in their earlier years as an AP/DP than career AP/DPs. More than half of the principal aspirants in this study were in their first six years of tenure as an AP/DP, compared to under a third of career AP/DPs with only 18% of all respondent AP/DPs in their first three years in the position. This finding was very low compared to data from historical studies such as Manchester (1983) and Graham and Smith

(1999) where between 35 – 50% of AP/DPs in New Zealand were in their first three years of service as an AP/DP. It suggests that there is currently less opportunity for career advancement in the New Zealand education system than in previous decades, and is another possible reason behind why so many career AP/DPs in this study spent a significant period of time as an HOD.

Connected to this point was the issue of career mobility, which was identified in this study as limiting career pathways and options. The majority of the surveyed AP/DPs had only ever held one AP/DP position with only a quarter of the respondents having held a second or third AP/DP position. This pattern of tenure suggested that once appointed many of the AP/DPs in New Zealand block (albeit unintentionally) the further advancement of others interested in the position by staying in the role for long periods of time. Given that more than half of career AP/DPs and just under three quarters of the AP/DPs in this study have been AP/DPs for more than 10 years, a bottleneck is created for those HODs aspiring to be an AP/DP and/or principal. The situation is further impacted by the limited number of secondary schools in New Zealand resulting in only a small number of principals and senior management positions becoming available each year for those seeking promotion.

There were a number of factors identified in the questionnaire and subsequent focus group interviews that provide some clues to why so many career AP/DPs once appointed remain in their position for such a long period of time. First, AP/DPs who responded to the survey and the career AP/DPs who participated in the interviews were almost unanimous in expressing their enjoyment of the role and the positive levels of satisfaction gained from it. Second, career AP/DPs enjoyed their strong leadership role without having the ultimate responsibility carried by the principal, commenting "I like being second." This suggested that many of the

career AP/DPs felt that they exerted significant leadership influence in their role in schools and did not need a "higher position in order to satisfy that need" (Graham & Smith, 1999, p. 85). A similar argument was made in Kelly's (1987) study of APs in the United States in claiming that the AP position has enough rewards in itself. As a consequence, many of the APs in this study did not feel a need to seek something more or push themselves beyond their current situation given that they enjoyed a strong leadership role that was both satisfying and challenging. When asked what might encourage them to seek other leadership positions in different schools a number of the career AP/DPs in the interviews stated very clearly that there was no point in moving when they were so happy in their current situation. For these individuals there was little appeal in moving given that their current position was both fulfilling and challenging and provided them with the motivation to work hard and contribute to their schools development.

A third reason behind the lack of mobility of career AP/DPs was related to family and lifestyle factors. Three career AP/DPs commented in the focus interviews that maintaining stable family relationships was important and they did not want to put this at risk by seeking further career challenges. They also expressed their desire to remain in a geographical location that supported a balanced lifestyle further highlighting the importance of stability for these individuals. These factors suggest how important the work/life balance is for many of the career AP/DPs in this study and that their career is very important but not the total driving focus in their lives. This view was not unique as some AP/DPs in Douglas' (2007) study rejected further promotion to principalship as the stress and expectations made "it difficult to maintain a work/life balance because of the high workload" (Douglas, 2007, p. 18).

Finally, academics such as Wylie (1997), Draper and McMichael, (1996) and Maclean, (1992) have all identified that the negative impact on principals, deputy principals and their families created by heavy workloads and school commitments is a major cause of career dissatisfaction. However, the large majority of career AP/DPs interviewed in this study expressed high levels of satisfaction with their AP/DP role, their school and lifestyle and this suggests that they have attained a point of career equilibrium where both professional and personal responsibilities were working well. There was little motivation to change knowing that the inevitable increase in workload and stress levels that comes with a new position could put family relationships and their current work/life balance at risk. There is a sense here of 'if it isn't broke don't change it'. The high levels of satisfaction expressed by most career AP/DPs emphasises that their current role provides high levels of psychological rewards (through the subjective attributes of the job) and they were unwilling to sacrifice this for further career advancement.

The Serendipitous Nature of Career Progression

The responses from career AP/DPs and principal aspirants about what factors motivated them to apply for their first AP/DP position provided some interesting insights. Both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants' rated personal and professional challenge and wanting the opportunity to lead and influence others as the two most common factors. These responses once again highlight the important influence of subjective factors (job choice theory) within the role that fulfil deep emotional needs on the motivation and satisfaction levels of all respondent AP/DPs. However, there were a number of subtle differences in some of the other factors identified by the respondents.

Principal aspirants identified career progression and promotion as the next most common factor with approximately a tenth identifying this factor. In comparison a study of 40 newly appointed AP/DPs by Scott (2008) found that 22% of her respondents identified career progression as a key reason for applying for their current position. While principal aspirants in this study did not rate career promotion and progression as highly as AP/DPs in Scott's (2008) study, their rating was twice as high as career AP/DPs. It may be that principal aspirants were more likely to see the AP/DP position as part of a planned, linear progression towards a higher status position given that their career anchorage perspective was focused on the ultimate possible career achievement, namely the principal. Coleman (1996) argued that in this context the AP/DP position is a means to an end.

Career AP/DPs, on the other hand, identified peer encouragement and opportunity knocks as the next most significant factors behind their decision to apply for an AP/DP position. Job choice theory (Behling et al., 1968) proposed that when individuals were considering a new role or job the influence of colleagues and the relationship established with the interviewer were, among others, important considerations in their decision. This is only one aspect of the critical contact theory that is incorporated in job choice theory but this relational element was a significant factor in this study. The influence of trusted others proved to be an important source of job motivation, satisfaction and choice.

While following the same traditional pathway of a teacher, head of department and then AP/DP, it would appear that for many career AP/DPs in this study there was less of a focus on a planned progression towards a higher status position (not surprising given their career anchorage perspective); was more serendipitous with a number applying only due to the strong support of their peers, mentors or family members. The same point was made by

McCulla (2012) in a small Australian leadership study of teachers' transition to an educational leadership or management position. He stated that "any interest in career progression had been provoked, motivated and supported by 'significant others' in the life of the teacher rather than the teacher themselves" (p. 82).

Many of the career AP/DPs told stories of significant support from both the principal and their senior leadership colleagues whom they regarded as the single biggest influence in championing their careers and advocating on their behalf. These influences have been found in both New Zealand and international literature (Coleman, 1996; Graham and Smith, 1999; Mertz, 2000). A number of participants in this study indicated that they would never have applied if it were not for the encouragement of their principal and colleagues, leaving the impression that a number were not completely confident in their ability to step up to the position.

This tentative supposition was supported somewhat when looking at the situation of a number of career AP/DPs who were asked to fill acting AP/DP roles. Two of the career AP/DPs talked of gaining so much confidence from their acting stint that they subsequently pursued a permanent AP/DP position. As one AP/DP in Scott's (2008, p. 84) study said, acting in the role gave her the opportunity to "look at the job and describe what it was like to be in it and to try out things and be part of a team" (p. 84).

Another aspect of the serendipitous nature of career progression for career AP/DPs is provided in the stories of participants who gained internal appointments. Four of the interview participants in this study talked of being persuaded to apply for a position by the principal and just falling into the role. This was seen as more by accident than design. They

suddenly found themselves in a position that they had not necessarily intended seeking. Falling into a senior leadership position is by no means a unique story with regard to studies of AP/DPs in New Zealand (see for example, Farnham, 2009; Scott, 2008). Graham and Smith (1999) refer to the work of Golandra (1991) in contrasting the experiences of New Zealand AP/DPs stumbling into the position with those in a number of overseas countries such as the United States where anyone seeking an AP position must undertake formal, mandated tertiary leadership programmes before they can be licensed to take up this leadership position (Glanz, 2004). While not the case in New Zealand, once in the position the career AP/DPs in this study found that this was the job they wanted and that they did have the skills and abilities to do the job.

A significant percentage of both career and aspiring principal AP/DPs identified that needing a change motivated them to apply for their first AP/DP position. Some AP/DPs in this study pursued the role as a way of bringing about change in their situation as they had become professionally bored or in some cases dissatisfied with their current school. This finding supported the view of Harris and Lowery (2004) who argued that the need for change is a common response from those in education who have been in a position for several years. Proponents of job choice theory (Harris & Fink, 1987; Pounder and Merrill, 2001; Young, Rinehart & Henneman, 1993) would argue that once the psychological rewards gained from the subjective attributes in the role diminish, individuals become motivated to seek alternative roles that regain the emotional connection and psychological rewards they are seeking. In contrast, other AP/DPs, however, saw the change in their role as a way of testing themselves and developing a new range of leadership skills so that they could make a significant difference for the students and the school that they served.

The Impact of School Demographics on Career and Aspiring Principal AP/DPs

A third of the career AP/DPs worked in small secondary schools with a roll size of 300-600 students as compared to one fifth of principal aspirants. In contrast three times as many principal aspirants as career AP/DPs worked in larger schools with student rolls greater than 1800. Given that there were no other New Zealand or international studies to compare these data with it was difficult to determine whether this finding was significant or not. However, the findings highlight that the majority of principal aspirants worked in larger schools with higher levels of remuneration, larger senior management teams and a wider range of resources and this may well have been a factor in influencing them to be a principal aspirant.

The distribution of career typology (i.e., career AP/DP or principal aspirant) by the decile rating of the school was another area that provided some interesting data. Approximately half of the career AP/DPs in the survey worked in decile 1-5 schools which are very similar to the Ministry of Educations statistic for distribution of AP/DPs by decile for New Zealand (Ministry of Education, 2012). However, approximately three quarters of principal aspirants worked in decile 6-10 schools in comparison to around a half of career AP/DPs indicating that there are characteristics of higher decile schools that influence an AP/DPs career anchorage perspective. Unfortunately, the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews were unable to shed any light on this issue yet the findings suggest that working in a higher decile school does result in more AP/DPs considering principalship as a career pathway. This is an area that could well serve as a focus for future research.

One possible reason behind the proposition that there is a correlation between decile rating and the AP/DPs decision to be a career AP/DP or principal aspirant was highlighted in previous New Zealand research by Wylie (1997) who found that principals in schools

situated in low socio-economic areas were more likely to experience greater stress than others. Perhaps AP/DPs working in low decile schools are well aware of the stress and difficulties that come with leadership positions in lower decile schools and this may well impact on their feelings about principalship. Unfortunately, the data in the study did not provide any hard evidence that this was the case.

Linked to this aspect of discussion was the finding that principal aspirants had a significant advantage in remuneration levels over career AP/DPs. Two thirds of career AP/DPs in the study had an allocation of 3-6 management units while the same proportions of principal aspirants were allocated 7-11+ management units. Principal aspirants were advantaged in terms of remuneration levels as the majority work of them worked in higher decile schools with larger rolls and consequently were more likely to have a higher allocation of management units. Those AP/DPs who worked in schools with a roll less than 300 received on average 4.70 management units while those who worked in the largest schools with rolls of 2100+ were allocated on average 9.06 management units. The data showed a clear linear progression where the average management unit allocation increased as the school roll increased. Other New Zealand studies of AP/DPs including Douglas (2007) and Scott (2008) concluded that the pattern of management unit allocation was linked to how funding by the Ministry of Education was allocated according to school size (the larger the school roll the more management units the school will receive). It was also a result of the internal decisions made by each school regarding how they allocated these management units and to whom (PPTA, 1996) and it was this aspect that could well be at the core of the gender equity issues for female aspirants.

AP/DPs Are Not Economic Beings

Job choice theory argues that the attractiveness of a job can in part be predicted by a person's preference for objective factors such as salary and remuneration and the organisations ability to meet these preferences (Behling et al., 1968). This is predicated on a view of individuals as being economically driven, seeking to find the job with the best level of remuneration and combination of economic benefits. Although this study's findings showed that career AP/DPs have a significant disadvantage in terms of salary levels, the survey responses also showed that objective job attributes had little or no positive influence on job satisfaction for career AP/DPs. The salary and remuneration of the AP/DP position had a mean satisfaction rating of + 0.5. While this was the highest satisfaction rating for an objective job attribute, it was considerably lower than any of the subjective or critical contact job attributes that respondents rated in the survey. This finding was in stark contrast to the Pounder and Merrill (2001) study where principal aspirants in the United States rated the salary and benefits of the principal's position as the second most attractive job attribute. There may well be pragmatic reasons behind this difference in perception with principals' salaries generally being considerably higher in most commonwealth countries including New Zealand and with many more economic benefits than a corresponding AP/DP position. This leap in remuneration level may change the relative importance of this factor for those considering the principal's role.

The Pounder and Merrill (2001) study was also focused on AP/DPs perceptions with regard to the principal's position. Those considering promotion to principalship would, therefore, take into consideration the obvious benefit of a significant rise in salary and benefits. This study's focus was different, in that respondents were asked to indicate what level of satisfaction the salary of the position they already had provided. Career AP/DPs in this study

were intent on remaining in this position so the benefits of a rise in salary and other remunerations were possibly not relevant. It is also important to note that salaries for AP/DPs in New Zealand are relatively standardised within a particular range and do not tend to change once appointed so salary provides little in the way of on-going motivation. However, that is not to say that salary is not at all, important as one of the career AP/DPs in discussing the HOD role said that "if I won lotto, I would probably go back to that point." This comment indicated that while he would strongly consider going back to the HOD position he was not willing to give up his salary which was obviously higher as an AP/DP.

Overall, career AP/DPs did not strongly identify themselves as being highly motivated by objective measurable factors where salary, holidays, benefits and employment conditions provided high levels of professional satisfaction. A number of the objective job attributes such as the availability of holidays and flexible work hours were criticised by many respondents in the survey and participants in the interviews as unrealised expectations. Career AP/DPs were very clear in stating that the 'busyness' of the role resulted in them having to spend their holidays at work catching up on their workload with almost two thirds of career AP/DPs in this study working more than 55 hours per week. Flexible work hours and the joys of a relaxing holiday were an unrealised dream and this had in all probability contributed to the low satisfaction ratings by career AP/DPs of these objective job attributes.

In summary, objective job attributes play a negligible part in motivating the AP/DPs in this study highlighting that these AP/DPs are not economic beings driven to choose careers and roles that offer the most economic benefits such as salary, allowances and other direct benefits.

The Influence of School Context Items

Career AP/DPs were very clear also in identifying the reputation of the school, the geographical location of the school and the school type as context items that enabled positive satisfaction levels in the role. The strong satisfaction rating given to the school's geographical location is indicative of the importance of this item. Leadership studies such as that of McCulla (2012) have indicated that career path progression is impacted on by mobility with school choice being restricted to certain geographical locations because of family ties. It would seem logical that career AP/DPs would be happy to remain in locations which suit their personal circumstances thereby supporting their enjoyment of, and satisfaction with, the role. Some could also argue that this is also a limiting factor that works against further thoughts of career advancement or change.

Pounder, Crowe, and Bergerson (2004) put forward the proposition that the geographical location which in this study was placed under school context factors can be considered an objective attribute that possible job applicants would consider carefully. Given that this study is focused on individuals who were already in the role, and some for many years, it was likely that their measurement of this attribute was based on hard facts and personal experience that were measureable and so the contention by Pounder, Crowe and Bergeson (2004) is worthy of consideration.

The reputation of the school was the school context item that had the biggest positive impact on satisfaction levels with a rating of 1.15. Pounder and Merrill (2001) argued that the subjective theory of job attraction recognises individuals as psychological beings who view the organisation in terms of meeting their psychological needs. Did a school with a good reputation provide a feel good factor that enhanced the AP/DPs psychological appeal to the

organisation? The career AP/DPs interviewed were unanimous in confirming that the reputation of the school had a direct impact on their professional satisfaction. They argued that the higher up the hierarchy the more important this factor was as the reputation of the school was seen as a reflection of the quality of the job leaders in the school were doing. They fully realised that many other staff also contribute to the success of the school, however, when a school was seen to be on song they could take significant credit for their role in this. The psychological rewards that came from this situation were increased levels of self-esteem and confidence as a school leader.

A number of the career AP/DPs talked about the legacy and the positive burden that drove them in their role. They felt a responsibility to ensure that their schools continued to succeed so that students would be proud of the school and the values that were promoted. The career AP/DPs enjoyed their strong feelings of connection to the school and derived satisfaction from their role as a protector of the legacy of the school. This group of career AP/DPs were, however, emphatic in noting how difficult it must be to work so hard in a school with a falling role that might be considered by the community as failing and the feelings of professional failure for the leadership team that this might evoke. Their strong emotional connection to the school was obvious and it seems very clear that the success of the school did promote feelings of personal and professional wellbeing for the career AP/DPs in the study. These feelings in turn help to promote a sense of loyalty to their schools which further influences career AP/DPs to remain in their schools.

Conclusion

The data has clearly answered some of the elements of the research questions posed at the start of this section in identifying that there is a group of AP/DPs who view the position as a

legitimate terminal career alternative to principalship. The findings also provide some of the answers to what attracts career AP/DPs to the role and some of the different characteristics and perspectives that they hold in comparison to principal aspirants. While each and every AP/DP in this study had his or her own unique career story and personal journey the data from this study provided a number of insights into the character of the 'typical' career AP/DP. Career AP/DPs described their career journey in education as an almost random set of chance events where all of a sudden they found themselves 'falling into' an AP/DP position. This helps to highlight that, in comparison to principal aspirants, there was in the main a lack of thought to career planning and future aspirations. Fortunately, for the large majority of career AP/DPs, they obviously enjoyed the position and were challenged by it. In many cases these career opportunities came out of the blue at a point when they were ready for a change after some years in an HOD position or they were motivated to apply by the encouragement of colleagues who believed they had the skill set to step up into a senior leadership role. However, their desire to seek further promotion was tempered by their enjoyment of their current AP/DP position and the psychological rewards it provides, their lack of motivation to pursue higher remuneration rates and other economic benefits and their desire to protect their current work/life balance where issues of family, lifestyle and levels of stress were important considerations. For career AP/DPs the AP/DP position provided a level of professional stimulation and a quality of life that they were not prepared to put at risk by seeking further career advancement and in this respect they are quite different to principal aspirants who were more driven by career ambition.

Section 2: Role Preparation and Professional Development and Support

The findings in this section are related to research question:

    c)   What are the experiences and perspectives of career AP/DPs with regard to:

              II.   their perception of the support they have received in carrying out the role?

Introduction

The second part of this discussion looks to identify and discuss those issues that AP/DPs have raised with regard to the opportunities to develop their professional leadership skills. Two themes were identified in the findings chapters that career AP/DPs argued had a major impact on their ability to develop as educational leaders in their schools. The first theme was the lack of role specific preparation that was planned and focused on the skills required to execute the AP/DP role. Six respondents in the survey and the majority of career AP/DPs in the focus interviews reported feeling stressed, anxious and unprepared for the role in their early days in the position. As a consequence, the first part of this discussion will look in some depth at the reasons behind why so many career AP/DPs felt uncomfortable and uncertain as they started their AP/DP career.

The second theme that was identified in the findings was the importance of the support of their colleagues, both in their school leadership teams and also in their AP/DP regional networks, in enabling them to not only survive the rigours of the position but to grow and thrive. Their strong connection to their colleagues provided not only a source of professional expertise and knowledge but also a strong sense of attachment and belonging that also indicated the importance of critical contact attributes in developing high levels of job satisfaction for career AP/DPs.

In the final part of this section a number of barriers to the involvement of Career AP/DPs in professional learning and growth programmes will be discussed.

A Lack of Role Specific Professional Development

All survey respondents identified 'on the job' experience as the most significant and common form of professional support in developing their ability to lead and manage in their schools: The importance they gave to on the job experience mirrors the findings of Graham and Smith (1999), Cranston et al. (2004) and Scott (2008) where the majority of participants stated "that learning on the job was the most useful, practical and relevant training or preparation for their new position" (Scott, 2008, p. 96). This applied particularly for those who had experience in acting AP/DP positions or in roles with many tasks that normally an AP/DP would carry out.

While learning from previous roles in education such as the HOD position is, according to respondents, very worthwhile, Matthews and Crow (2003) suggested that the extensive and school wide nature of the AP/DP role provides a significant challenge that only time in the actual position would ameliorate. The AP/DPs in this study agreed claiming on the job training was the most useful form of professional learning they had undertaken. Half of the career AP/DPs who were interviewed were of the view that tertiary leadership study and theory is all well and good but it was not until you were on the ground that you had the opportunity to put things into practice and test your skills. From their point of view time in the position and the experiences that come with it was seen as the best form of professional growth available.

One of the areas that was able to be focused on in the Stage Two of the study was how well prepared did career AP/DPs feel on their first day in the role. The findings from the focus interviews highlighted that not one of the career AP/DPs had received a formal transition programme when they won their first AP/DP position. This same issue has been noted in other studies of New Zealand AP/DPs (e.g.,Cranston, Tromans & Reugebrink, 2004; Graham & Smith, 1998; Scott, 2008). Career AP/DPs in the interviews talked of being relatively unprepared for what they subsequently faced, and of being in a 'sink or swim' scenario, or as Graham and Smith (1999) describe, 'flying by the seat of your pants'. Given that these issues have been raised a number of times in studies in New Zealand over the last two decades (Graham & Smith, 1998; Cranston et al., 2004; Scott, 2008) one cannot help wonder why AP/DPs have not received the same level of support as provisionally registered teachers or new principals gain through the First Time Principals Programme. In reflecting upon their experiences, three of the career AP/DPs argued that this lack of support during the transition process resulted in high levels of anxiety in their early days in the position.

It is clear that the Ministry of Education has responded to this issue somewhat through the implementation of the National Aspiring Principals Programme (NAPP) even though it would seem the focus is actually on aspiring principals rather than career AP/DPs. The questionnaire responses identified, however, that career AP/DPs have significantly less involvement in continuing education through national in-service programmes such as the National Aspiring Principal's Programme. Principal aspirants in the study had completed national in-service programmes at twice the rate of career AP/DPs and this could well be an outcome of the focus of the programme on principalship. Given that the national Aspiring Principals programme inducts 230 applicants into the course annually and at the 5th July only 15 were appointed to principalship from the 2011 cohort (Parsons, 2012) it would seem that

this programme could easily be renamed as an Aspiring Educational Leaders Programme. While career AP/DPs may not be focused on principalship their involvement in a programme to develop their leadership skills could only benefit the schools and communities they work in.

Adding to this, only half of the career AP/DPs who completed the survey questionnaire held a postgraduate or masters qualification as compared to three quarters of principal aspirants. The findings from the survey clearly highlighted that career AP/DPs were not as engaged as principal aspirants in longer term professional development programmes and the reasons behind this were investigated further in the focus group interviews.

Unfortunately, not one of the career AP/DPs interviewed had participated in the New Zealand Aspiring Principals' Programme. Their lack of participation in this latter programme was hardly surprising given that almost all were in their fifties or older and had been in their current position for many years. The National Aspiring Principals Programme is a relatively recent initiative and given the age, experience and career anchorage perspective of the career AP/DPs interviewed there was less incentive for their involvement in such a preparatory programme. As a result, this study was unable to investigate this aspect any further.

However, that was not the case with tertiary study. The perspectives of the respondents in the focus group interviews mirrored the survey findings somewhat with half of the career AP/DPs promoting the usefulness of postgraduate leadership study. The five career AP/DPs who had actually completed a postgraduate leadership qualification were convinced of the benefits to their practice. These participants made very strong statements about the contribution of tertiary study to improving their leadership skills and abilities. Their views

were very similar to a number of AP/DPs in Scott's (2008) study where one participant made the comment that her tertiary study had "made me realise I could manage or lead any organisation. It gave me the confidence, inspiration and perspective" (Scott, 2008, p. 98). However, the benefits of study had to be offset by the effort and time needed to commit to such a programme. The remaining five career AP/DPs in the interviews saw postgraduate study in leadership as lacking in relevancy to the day to day role of the AP/DP and as 'too much time for very little gain'. This perspective is certainly not new and the degree of commitment needed to study on top of such a demanding role has been noted in a number of New Zealand studies including Graham and Smith (1999) where a number of AP/DPs commented on how difficult it was to complete postgraduate study "when one is stretched beyond what is a reasonable workload" (Graham & Smith, 1999, p. 84).

For those career AP/DPs who viewed tertiary leadership as lacking in relevancy, their decision appeared to be an example of work/life balance as each individual made up their mind regarding what they could cope with. Long hours and little time for holidays led to limited downtime with their families and little opportunity to relax and re-charge. It could be that this was also another contributing reason why career AP/DPs in this study appeared to have a lower level of participation in the National Aspiring Principal's Programme given the commitment and extra time outside of school hours needed to participate fully.

This would seem to place many career AP/DPs at a considerable disadvantage given that these "longer, in-depth programmes have been more successful in supporting the professional learning" (Scott, 2008, p. 98) of AP/DPs. These types of programmes developed as the result of criticism regarding one-off short term programmes that rarely provided the necessary skill-building experience nor addressed the professional concerns of this group (Marshall &

Hooley, 2006). It is a concern that, for whatever reason, so many career AP/DPs in the New Zealand secondary education system have missed out on professional growth opportunities that could potentially benefit both themselves and their school communities.

This discussion on professional development and leadership preparation has links with job choice theory. Increased opportunities for professional development was one of the objective attributes used in this study to determine which factors provide high levels of job satisfaction for AP/DPs. Both principal aspirants and career AP/DPs identified this objective attribute as only having a marginal positive influence on their levels of satisfaction in the role with career AP/DPs scoring it lower than principal aspirants. It appeared that the reflections of some of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interview indicated that involvement in longer term professional development programmes came at a cost, impacting negatively on other objective attributes such as the availability of holidays and flexible working hours and which in many cases were described as unrealised dreams by the majority of participants in the interviews. For half of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews and a number of respondents in the survey who took the opportunity to comment, their involvement in professional development programmes such as NAAP and tertiary leadership study may come down to a very basic question. How much am I willing to sacrifice in terms of my personal life and stress levels in order to improve my ability to influence education? It would seem that participation in professional growth programmes has a direct influence on the ability of many career AP/DPs ability to enjoy other objective attributes that are typical of the AP/DP position and has a strong influence on the choices that they make regarding professional development opportunities.

Mentoring was another significant professional development strategy that was investigated in both stages of this study. Over half of the AP/DPs in the survey identified informal mentoring by a colleague as an important element of professional development in their leadership role. However, only about one fifth of respondent AP/DPs indicated being involved in a formal programme of mentoring by a school associate or outside school facilitator. Despite evidence in the literature (Hartzell, Williams, & Nelson, 1995: Macpherson, 2008) regarding the importance of a professional mentor in supporting the learning and development of newly appointed senior managers in schools very few of the career AP/DPs in this study have benefited from a formal mentoring programme. Over three quarters of AP/DPs in the survey had never experienced a formal, structured mentoring programme and not one of the career AP/DPs who were interviewed had received this support. A lack of a coordinated approach to leadership training involving structured mentoring was also a common finding in other international studies including British research by Harris, Muijs, and Crawford (2003) and Fink (2010).

Fink (2010) argued that regardless of the general approach, mentoring and coaching in recent years have become important parts of virtually every important leadership development model. The First Time Principals Programme and the National Aspiring Principals Programme in New Zealand are very good examples of professional development programmes that involve these elements. However, mentoring was not a common experience for the AP/DPs in this study and many of the career AP/DPs in the interviews regretted this as they felt it would have been incredibly helpful.

In one focus interview group the career AP/DPs equated their experience to that of a first year teacher arguing that you learn from doing and then reflecting upon your performance and

where possible discussing your performance with another person. This last point is where the evidence in this study suggests that AP/DPs have been somewhat let down. Not only has there been no lack of a formal transition programme, but also no formalised, or in many cases even an informal, mentoring process. As two of the career AP/DPs emphasised in the interviews, they had no regular access to professional conversations about their performance, which is precisely where academics such as Hartzell et al. (1995) and Fink (2010) argue that real opportunities for learning and leadership growth take place.

This would seem to be a lost opportunity given that career AP/DPs rate critical contact attributes of the job so highly. In their comments, career AP/DPs in this study present themselves as very relational beings, enjoying interaction with colleagues both at school and within their professional networks (this will be discussed in some depth in the next part of the discussion). A formal mentoring programme would provide an effective method for promoting professional growth within a relational model that career AP/DPs value.

Related to this is a point made by three respondents in the survey and two career AP/DPs in the interviews, that there was no professional development programme offered that was linked to appraisal systems and feedback from the principal. This is a concern given that academics such as Fink (2010) suggested that prospective leaders require among other things: leadership development opportunities that enable AP/DPs to meet the challenges of the role; supportive mentors who assisted AP/DPs to meet these challenges; and feedback on their performance that was honest and constructive. While these three career AP/DPs were critical of their principals with regard to this aspect as will be seen in the next part of this section the principal was spoken of very positively by focus group participants and the majority of questionnaire respondents for playing a very important role in their professional growth.

Clearly, this discussion has highlighted many elements that could be improved in supporting career AP/DPs (all AP/DPs actually) in transitioning into the role including formalised mentoring programmes, carefully structured transition programmes and professional development programmes linked to appraisal systems that include strong elements of honest and constructive feedback. The next part of this section discusses the part that their senior leadership colleagues, including the principal and their regional AP/DP associates, have played in developing their ability to carry out their professional duties.

The Support of Colleagues is Important

Job choice theory identified critical contact factors such as the personality of the recruiter, communication strategies and the influence of colleagues and friends as important factors in weighing up a job choice (Pounder, Crow, & Bergerson, 2004). In this study, critical contact attributes were used to measure the influence of the relationships that career AP/DPs have with their colleagues on their levels of satisfaction and motivation within the AP/DP role.

In the survey in phase one of the study critical contact job attributes were the only category where career AP/DPs indicated higher levels of satisfaction than principal aspirants. The opportunity to work closely with the principal, the collegial support of their senior management colleagues and developing positive relationships within the wider school community were all aspects that career AP/DPs indicated provided them with very positive satisfaction levels. Given the part that 'significant others' had played in many career AP/DPs decision to apply for the position it would suggest that relationships and social interaction were a very important element in influencing job satisfaction positively.

The focus interviews further emphasised how important professional and personal relationships were to career AP/DPs. Their senior leadership team was considered the greatest motivator in their role and provided career AP/DPs with an important sense of comradeship and belonging. This finding is certainly not unique given that relationships with their leadership colleagues also provided a strong sense of professional belonging and support for AP/DPs in the studies by Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009). However, the use of the term 'family' in this current study to describe their colleagues was a very strong expression and emphasises the strength of the connection to their teams for career AP/DPs. It seems that the close relationship with colleagues that career AP/DPs enjoy also adds to the psychological rewards that they experience in their schools such as the opportunity to influence others and the opportunity to experience personal and professional growth. This highlights the interconnection between the critical contact attributes and the psychological rewards that are typical of subjective attributes identified within job choice theory (see Table 34, p .144).

While discussion in the first part of this Section Two detailed areas where newly appointed AP/DPs could be better supported the majority of AP/DPs acknowledged their colleague's support as being crucial and effective. Career AP/DPs interviewed rated their colleagues as the most vital professional support they had. The term colleague was used in two senses; first, their senior leadership team including the principal and second, the wider group of AP/DP colleagues in their local regional associations.

The Senior Leadership Team

The relationship with the principal was highly valued by both questionnaire respondents and career AP/DPs interviewed in the study. While the relationship with the principal was not specifically questioned in the survey at least ten respondents had taken the time to write

comments in support of their principal while four respondents had indicated in their responses to being questioned about their leadership development that principal interference and micro-management had impacted negatively on their ability to carry out a leadership role. As a result, the relationship with the principal was investigated further in the focus group interviews and almost all of the participants were very complimentary about their leadership teams and their principals. Their acknowledgment of the right of the principal to make the final decision indicated that these career AP/DPs were aware that their teams operated more like a democratic hierarchy than a flattened or distributed leadership model (Graham & Smith, 1999). However, it was clear that the majority of their principals were very active in listening to their views and considered them seriously as part of any decision making process and this was empowering and satisfying. Having a positive relationship with the principal enabled them to feel safe in their role knowing that the door to the principal's office was always open to them and feeling confident that the principal would not break their confidence. This two way sense of loyalty and trust between AP/DPs and their principals is a recurring theme in the literature (see for example Graham and Smith, 1999; Harris, 2009; Marks & Printy, 2003; Scott, 2008). According to the participants in the focus interviews when the relationship with the principal was strong it created a strong sense of attachment and belonging (a psychological reward) which directly increased their satisfaction levels.

The trust of the principal was highly valued by career AP/DPs. It empowered them to make decisions and pursue positive initiatives in the school knowing that they would have their principal's support. In contrast, one of the career AP/DPs was able to use personal experience to argue that where there was a lack of trust and loyalty in the team towards the principal and/or each other that the team could quickly become dysfunctional. He argued that an autocratic principal who makes all the calls destroys any sense of teamwork resulting in

increased levels of stress and professional loneliness (a negative psychological outcome) that worked against the greater good of the school. This same point was made in Scott's (2008) study when participants criticised principals for being autocratic and not listening to their views resulting in them feeling unsupported and isolated.

Thus, it was no surprise to find that the principal was identified by eight of the ten career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews as a major influence on their ability to grow and develop as educational leaders. There was strong consensus that an effective principal created the conditions in the senior leadership team that promoted free debate, an inclusive decision making process and a culture of trust and empowerment. Knowing that the principal was prepared to listen to their views and give them the freedom to act within bounds (and sometimes fail) was a highly satisfying aspect of the role. Academics such as Harris (2009) argue that this leadership approach fits a distributed leadership perspective where leadership is mobilised at a number of levels in the organisation and is not just invested at the top. Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) take this view further in claiming that distributing leadership across the organisation has the added benefit of increasing the influence and satisfaction levels of those who are lower in the organisation and this has certainly been reflected in the feedback by five of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews. These views are supported by a recent British report (Bush Abbot, Glover, Goodall & Smith, 2012) of nine British schools who received outstanding Ofsted grades (including four secondary schools). The report concluded that a shared vision, good personal relationships, high levels of trust and a common purpose were all features of high performing leadership teams. They added to this conclusion, arguing that in order to divest responsibilities and accountability throughout the school these leaders had purposely distributed leadership throughout their leadership

teams and beyond in order to create a stimulating environment where individuals were valued and unified around a common purpose.

Further to the above points, Hartzell et al. (1995) argued that the way principals establish priorities, shared decision making processes and clarified expectations reduced uncertainty for newly appointed AP/DPs and this was a view that was supported by two of the career AP/DPs interviewed in the second phase of this study. The majority of career AP/DPs interviewed identified shared decision making as an important feature of their senior leadership teams. Despite this, there were a number of comments that suggested an acceptance of the principal as "the legitimate authority in the school" (Scott, 2008, p. 110). As long as the principal listened to their points of view and gave them genuine consideration they were happy for the principal to make the final call. Their argument was that it was the process that was important and it was the dialogue during the decision making process that brought about professional growth and learning.

Not all career AP/DPs experienced a distributed leadership model. One of the focus group participants argued, from experience, that an authoritarian principal destroyed any sense of teamwork and unity and the resulting environment could be described as 'very lonely and scary' leaving newly appointed AP/DPs to flounder and lose confidence. Thus, according to this participant, the leadership style of the principal can have a significant impact on the professional growth and self-confidence of team members. These diverse points of view highlight the importance to career AP/DPs of teamwork, relationships and communication in developing their leadership skills. As Carter (2014) states, no significant learning can occur without a strong and positive relationship highlighting the influence of principals in allowing

career AP/DPs to gain maximum satisfaction from the critical contact attributes identified in this study.

The second group of important professional colleagues that was identified through the questionnaire and focus group interviews were their fellow AP/DPs in their leadership teams. The large majority of career AP/DPs interviewed talked very positively about their senior leadership teams and described how satisfying it was to be part of such a group reflecting findings in other New Zealand research (Cranston et al., 2004; Farnham, 2009; Graham and Smith, 1999; Scott, 2008). In talking about their colleagues in their leadership teams the career AP/DPs constantly talked about the importance of teamwork, collaboration and trust.

The importance of teamwork, collaboration and trust had also been identified in other New Zealand studies of the AP/DP. AP/DPs in Smith and Graham's (1999) study implied that teamwork was about learning how to work with other people and how not to use power and manipulation. According to these AP/DPs teamwork required collaboration, collegiality, trust and empowerment and while recognising the principal was in charge it was about developing a shared vision and solidarity. One participant in Scott's (2008) study emphasised the same point in arguing that a positive team culture enabled members to talk freely and share while recognising that it was safe to disagree. These views were in very close agreement to the opinions of the career AP/DPs in this study and highlighted the relevance and importance of both the values and the wider team culture in creating an enjoyable, satisfying and challenging work environment.

One psychological reward that was an outcome of a high trust model was highlighted by nine of the ten career AP/DPs when in they talked of a strong bond with their colleagues almost to

the point of friendship where they quite naturally and openly shared some of the personal stuff that was going on in their lives. Their comfort in sharing such intimate details about themselves enhanced their sense of belonging and commitment to the team. Clayton (2004) suggested that such personal and professional networks provide school leaders with a vehicle to help develop self-awareness and inform what they believe in and value in their professional lives. As Sergiovanni (2001, p. 8) suggested earlier, our understanding of our own leadership requires a "strong sense of self-awareness and a preparedness to pursue self-development" and the ability to be actively involved in professional dialogue is one way of developing a clearer understandings of our leadership values and beliefs.

The career AP/DPs in the focus interviews made the same point in describing how important their leadership team was to their professional development and growth. They suggested that where there was a strong sense of comradeship and belonging in a team there was also a strong sense of professional safety which enabled career AP/DPs to feel confident in having vigorous debate with their colleagues thereby being able respond to the issues of staff at the chalk face. They also acknowledged that an effective team was "the sum of the parts" where the individual strengths and talents of team members were used to complement each other. As one career AP/DP stated "it's not uncommon for me to have to hit on Deputy A's shoulder to get a bit of assistance" and this highlights how even these common interactions between team members supported the professional growth of their colleagues.

In discussing how the leadership team supports each other, two or three of the career AP/DPs talked about the importance of the open door policy where they could go to the principal or one of their colleagues and discuss issues as they arose. Often this helped to resolve an issue or develop ideas as a result of this dialogue with a colleague and these conversations

provided one vehicle for enabling career AP/DPs to gain feedback on performance that was honest and constructive (Fink, 2010). These participants felt trusted and empowered to have a go at things and then come back to their colleagues to discuss progress or concerns.

Some career AP/DPs in the study went so far as describing their leadership teams as family. They described their colleagues as close friends who were in tune with the challenges of the role and who would step in to back them up if they saw that their colleagues were under stress because of workload. This was a somewhat unique finding in this study in that interpersonal relationships, verging on friendships, came through much more strongly than previous New Zealand studies investigating the role of the AP/DP. Once again, the findings support the view that critical contact attributes are an important positive influence on career AP/DPs job satisfaction and motivation levels.

Professional Networks

AP/DPs also identified a further professional support involving their colleagues that was important to them. Three quarters of all survey respondents (including three quarters of career AP/DPs) identified their local AP/DP association as a key driver in their growth and this was rated second only to 'on the job experience'. The strength of this response highlights the importance that AP/DPs attach to this connection with their regional colleagues.

Local and regional AP/DP associations were also rated highly by career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews with one career AP/DP who had the unfortunate circumstance to walk into a dysfunctional leadership team describing the local AP/DP association as a life-saver in his early days in the role. Involvement in professional associations had the extra benefit of creating a wider network of colleagues who were seen as impartial and who, on some

occasions, were able to provide advice and knowledge that was not available within their own leadership team. AP/DPs in Graham and Smith's (1999) and associate principals in the Pounder and Merrill (2001) studies talked of the importance of creating networks of support outside of their individual schools in order to develop their knowledge and understanding and this is where the regional AP/DP associations have played a significant role for participants in this study. Many of the experienced career AP/DPs in this study were now contributing to this network of support themselves by agreeing to mentor less experienced AP/DPs in their local region and they saw this as a positive way to support others in their profession.

Clearly relationships with their leadership team including the principal and regional AP/DP colleagues were a very important factor in enabling career AP/DPs to enjoy and gain satisfaction from the work they do in their job role. Those critical contact attributes identified in the study that focused on relationships were valued very highly by career AP/DPs. The psychological rewards that came from having positive relationships within the workplace including belonging, commitment, enjoyment and satisfaction highlighted the importance of the relationships themselves but also the positive influence of strong relationships on levels of professional growth. Having identified the influence that colleagues have played in their professional growth and on their levels of satisfaction and motivation the next section looks at some of the specific opportunities and barriers to participation in professional development that AP/DPs in the study have experienced.

Barriers to Professional Growth

This section outlines the thoughts of participants concerning their access to, and satisfaction with, professional development opportunities. It identifies some important professional issues identified by participants in this study.

Just under two thirds of respondents in the survey rated their level of satisfaction with the professional development that they have undertaken in their AP/DP role as good or better. There was very little difference between the satisfaction levels of career AP/DPs and principal aspirants; in fact they were remarkably similar with mean satisfaction ratings of approximately 3.8 (see Table 22, p.119). However, it was important to note that more than a third of all AP/DPs in the survey rated their experience and satisfaction with professional development as acceptable only, poor or very poor. This finding has some support from Douglas' (2007) New Zealand study where one third of the 159 AP/DPs who responded to her survey had not completed any professional learning in respect to their role in the last two years.

Those AP/DPs in the study who rated their satisfaction with, and opportunities to undertake, professional development as mediocre at best, identified several barriers to their full participation. These included the lack of time to undertake professional learning; the frenetic nature of the role; the sacrifices that had to be made to include professional development activities in their busy schedule; and the lack of support from their leadership colleagues including the principal. These points have also emerged in a number of other contemporary New Zealand studies on the role of the AP/DP (e.g. Douglas, 2007; Scott, 2008; Farnham, 2009). Almost two thirds of principals in Douglas' (2007) study did not actively engage themselves in developing the leadership skills of their AP/DPs and Scott (2008) noted that not one of the 40 respondents in her study had received an induction programme in preparation for their AP/DP role in the school. Farnham (2009) described the AP/DP in New Zealand as working long hours in busy circumstances which impacted on their ability to develop their leadership skills, while Cranston (2007) characterised the AP/DP role as

typically busy, reactive and unpredictable. The views of AP/DPs in this study certainly reflected many of the same issues and highlighted them as time poor.

The reference to being time poor came through in the focus interviews strongly and career AP/DPs argued that this was a major disincentive to their participation in professional development activities including participation in tertiary leadership study where the sacrifices needed to participate were considered too high a personal cost. Three participants suggested that schools should grant AP/DPs more paid time to undertake tertiary leadership study indicating that for them workload issues were a major disincentive. These suggestions are not new as invariably every contemporary study of New Zealand AP/DPs has had similar findings with AP/DPs being described as "distressed by the lack of time for professional development and reflection" (Graham & Smith, p. 76). However, the provision of paid time would be a significant challenge to the staffing of many New Zealand schools without the central funding to support this. That said, this issue continues to be a major concern for AP/DPs in the profession and currently acts as a block to enabling many of the AP/DPs in our system to gain valuable professional growth.

The lack of school funds to provide the necessary professional development opportunities was the second most common theme identified in the responses. The points raised concerning lack of school funds raised the possibility that the current financial position of some secondary schools in New Zealand acted also as a blocking mechanism for AP/DPs. In those schools with limited resources professional development opportunities were often the first to go sacrificing the professional growth needs of some AP/DPs in the process. Another possible reason could be that the budgeting priorities set by principals and boards in some schools gave professional development a lower priority than other areas and this would be

disappointing given the research on the impact of professional development in improving educational outcomes (Robinson et al., 2009).

The third significant barrier raised by survey respondents was somewhat at odds with findings in the focus group interviews. A number of respondents identified the lack of recognition by their principal for their need to undertake professional development opportunities. This was also a point raised by Douglas (2007) in arguing that principals and senior leaders need further training in mentoring and developing ideas on how to support their senior colleagues. Douglas (2007) saw this lack of recognition rather as a lack of knowledge, expertise and confidence to provide for and fully understand how to best develop their colleagues. Academic opinion including Calabrese and Tucker-Ladd, 1991 (cited in Scoggins & Bishop, 1993), James and Whiting (1998) and Macpherson (2008) puts a significant onus on the principal to ensure that their AP/DPs are encouraged and supported in their professional growth. One such view is that the principal needs to buffer the AP/DP "from an ironic sense of isolation in the school setting" (Clayton, 2004, p. 10) and ensure where possible that AP/DPs have the necessary networks of support to thrive in their role.

In contrast as already noted earlier, the focus group career AP/DPs were, in general, very complimentary about their colleagues and principal regarding their influence on professional growth. However, this divergence of opinion is possibly due to differing interpretations in discussing this area. Those career AP/DPs were in the main, a group of experienced and confident individuals who were comfortable with their place in their leadership teams. They were confident in their relationship with the principal and their senior leadership colleagues as well as their ability to carry out the leadership role. As a result they were very supportive of their principals and colleagues and there was little in the way of criticism expressed about

their colleagues in the interviews. Given the demographic of the focus interview groups it is possible that their views were different to the wider population of career AP/DPs. It is also important to bear in mind that even the experienced career AP/DPs interviewed identified the lack of mentoring as an issue and so the argument that Douglas (2007) raises regarding the development of principals' skills in this area is worthy of further consideration.

On a different matter when asked in the survey what professional development opportunities respondents would have liked to participate in but did not have the support or means to do so, the importance placed on conferences (both national and international) was a little surprising. Given that the academic literature evaluating the effectiveness of these one off professional development experiences was variable at best, according to Guskey (2002), it is of interest to note that both national and international conferences were frequently requested and valued by respondents in this study (see Table 24, p. 122). Perhaps this finding reflects that these short courses or one-off activities have been the typical professional development experiences of AP/DPs (Harris, Muijs, & Crawford, 2003) and they have limited experience of the effectiveness of longer in depth courses. AP/DPs in Scott's (2008) study argued that longer more focused courses with a greater chance of in depth discussion and reflection were more valuable than traditional conferences where the bulk of the time was spent sitting and listening. To further complicate this issue conferences were hardly mentioned at all by the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews. Only one said conferences were important in his early days in the position, but at some stage his desire to attend these opportunities had waned and he had not attended any conferences in the last five years. Nevertheless, many of the surveyed AP/DPs viewed conferences as a valuable growth opportunity and were disappointed that barriers such as cost or support from the principal had prevented them from being able to participate in these activities.

Time, lack of school funds, and the limited understanding of principals in how best to support their AP/DPs were often mentioned barriers to professional learning for AP/DPs in this study. While many of these have been raised before in previous studies of AP/DPs in New Zealand, almost two decades after Graham and Smith's (1999) study little has changed in regard to these barriers. The National Aspiring Principal's Programme (NAAP) has been one response in trying to develop programmes to support those aspiring to principalship and as noted earlier, it could be argued that it is also a valuable programme for an existing AP/DP wanting to develop their skills further. However, even this programme required individuals to make further sacrifices in giving up precious personal time outside of their hectic professional life to participate and, therefore, does not attend to the core problem as identified by AP/DPs in the study. It is quite clear that many of the career AP/DPs in this study view work/life balance as an important issue for them and that a number of the professional development opportunities that they would like to undertake such as tertiary study come at too big a personal cost to seriously consider.

Conclusion

With respect to the research question regarding the levels of professional support provided the findings have highlighted the limited support that many career AP/DPs have received in developing their skills as educational leaders in education. The AP/DP position itself has not received the same levels of support as provisionally registered teachers or those aspiring to principalship and in the main career AP/DPs have been left to develop their leadership skills through on the job experience and what limited professional development they can squeeze into a very busy professional life.

As a result their senior leadership team colleagues, including the principal, have assumed a very important role in enabling career AP/DPs to grow and develop. Career AP/DPs talk very highly of their colleagues and regard their colleagues as the single most important motivator and source of satisfaction in their role. This finding emphasises that the development of positive relationships within the workplace add significantly to the psychological rewards that career AP/DPs experience in their role which, in turn, leads to higher levels of motivation and job satisfaction.

Section 3: The Debate Over Management versus Leadership of Teaching and Learning

The findings in this section are related to research questions:

   c) What are the experiences and perspectives of career AP/DPs with regard to:

   I. their attraction to the role?

   III. the impact of their management and administrative responsibilities on their capacity to lead teaching and learning?

   IV. the satisfaction levels that they derive from varying aspects of their position and work?

Introduction

The small numbers of contemporary New Zealand studies focusing on the AP/DP position have all alluded to the frustrations of many AP/DPs in New Zealand regarding their ability to have a direct influence in leading teaching and learning in their schools. Cardno (2003) and Farnham (2009) both suggested that AP/DPs have an almost superficial leadership of learning role in that they "provide the means for others, like middle managers and teachers to lead learning in their school" (Farnham, 2009, p. 120). The role of the AP/DP is most often focused on maintaining organisational stability and, therefore, they help create the conditions necessary for effective teaching and learning to take place (Cardno, 2003). The following section discusses issues in these areas from the perspective of the career AP/DPs who participated in this study.

Contrasting Views on Management and Administration

The focus of the AP/DP role on organisational stability, according to Cardno (2003), leads to a predominance of managerial and administrative tasks in their daily work. As a result it was

probably no surprise that Hauseman, Nebeker, McCreary, & Donaldson (2001) found in their research that AP/DPs reported low levels of satisfaction when dealing with pedagogical leadership tasks given that they did not have the time to deal with these tasks effectively. Other studies have found that AP/DPs resented the heavy load of administrative and management tasks which have reduced their opportunities for educational leadership (Palmer, 1997; Douglas, 2007; Farnham, 2009; Scott, 2008).

These findings were replicated in the survey and the respondent AP/DPs were quite clear that the sheer volume of administrative and management tasks was the major impediment to them being able to carry out effective leadership for learning in their school. Too much management, too many demands and too little time were a frustration that over ninety per cent of these AP/DPs identified, suggesting that what AP/DPs do and what they would like to do are "at odds with each other creating a potential source of frustration and dissatisfaction" (Farnham, 2009, p. 109). However, it is important to note that career AP/DPs were more positive than principal aspirants with regard to a number of the management and administrative tasks that were identified in the work factors in Table 38 (p. 162) even if their mean score for some of these roles were at best neutral.

Therefore it was not a complete surprise to find so many career AP/DPs in the focus interviews expressing positive views of their management and administration role. It appeared that the appeal for those career AP/DPs was that the administrative tasks were discrete parcels of work that could be easily completed and ticked off. Satisfaction came from doing these tasks accurately and efficiently and then being able to move onto another job. Although these career AP/DPs were still critical of current management practices in New Zealand schools, describing them as burdensome and heavy on accountability and

compliance, 'getting things right' enabled them to feel a positive sense of self-worth and satisfaction within this role. There were then, some psychological rewards for these AP/DPs as a result of their management and administrative work.

There were a number of possible reasons behind why this group of career AP/DPs might view this area of their practice so positively. In the main, the career AP/DPs in the focus interviews worked in schools with rolls of 800 students or more. The participants talked of how their principals had created a number of small teams to support them in sharing the compliance load, while others had management structures that allowed the administration and management load to be shared amongst a number of the AP/DPs in the school. This protected them from a sense of administration overload and supported their ability to manage the wide range of portfolios that they were responsible for. While the career AP/DPs were very well aware that one of the most important skills needed to be successful in the AP/DP role was the "ability to multitask" (Scott, 2008, p. 115) as there were so many things on the go at once, support teams allowed them to delegate some of their responsibilities. This not only improved their ability to be effective leaders but enabled them to have a greater chance of "getting things right" something which was highly valued. This discussion did highlight, however, how difficult it was for AP/DPs in smaller schools where principals did not have the staff or resources to create such support teams. As Graham and Smith (1999) argued, in small schools there are a lot of people having to do too many jobs and, therefore, the levels of job satisfaction were diminished.

There was another possible reason behind why career AP/DPs in the interviews enjoyed the administrative and management role. Hauseman et al. (2001) argued that many DPs in their study reported high levels of success and satisfaction in dealing with administration and

pastoral tasks because unlike instructional tasks they had the time to deal with these issues effectively. This is possibly not the case in smaller schools but as almost all of the participants in the focus group interviews were in larger schools the voice of those AP/DPs in smaller schools was unable to contribute to this discussion. However, one career AP/DP who worked in a smaller school had a teaching load that was equivalent to a HOD and, therefore, it was likely that dealing with administration and management tasks would be somewhat more burdensome.

The literature argues that there is a degree of acceptance from AP/DPs that the role is primarily concerned with management and administration (see for example, Cranston, 2007; Farnham, 2009). There was some evidence in this study that this was also the case and comments such as "it's part of your role… you've just got to accept it and do it" indicate that perhaps these AP/DPs do have a "socialised disposition to the position" (Mertz, 2000, p. 14). According to Mertz, AP/DPs are at least partially responsible themselves for maintaining a focus on administration and management because of their acceptance that the role involves doing whatever is needed to maintain the smooth functioning of the school.

Finally, Deputy Principals in the Mertz (2000) study referred to a sense of control that AP/DPs had because they had their own duties. This provided some satisfaction even if they were not necessarily happy with what they did. If this is the case there is a danger here. Farnham (2009) argues that while AP/DPs may have felt a sense of satisfaction in the management role their future development as educational leaders was jeopardised, especially if they stayed in the same roles for too long.

Farnham's (2009) warning has some relevance to this study. While half of the AP/DPs in the survey had their job roles reviewed and negotiated on an annual basis, the ability to take on new roles to promote their professional growth was limited by a number of factors, including which portfolios members of their leadership team were confident in taking on and whether their colleagues were interested in releasing their existing responsibilities. While some AP/DPs in the study argued that holding onto existing roles protected them from the extra time and stress involved in taking on new roles, it resulted in 'ring fencing' the scope of their leadership experience.

The Desire to Make a Difference

Job choice theory argues that subjective job attributes play a significant part in an individual's job choice and job satisfaction. They provide job satisfaction for a person through recognition of their deep seated emotional needs (Behling et al., 1968). As Pounder and Merrill (2001) put it, individuals are most likely to be attracted to, and satisfied within, a position which fulfils their psychological needs. Subjective attributes identified for this study were; the opportunity to lead the improvement of teaching and learning, the experience of a wide leadership role in the school, the opportunity to experience personal and professional growth, the opportunity to influence others, the desire to make a difference in education and the opportunity to innovate/contribute to school development and change (see Table 34, p. 144).

Significantly, the career AP/DPs in the survey got the most satisfaction from these job attributes. Almost without exception, each of the subjective attributes had a higher mean rating than any other job attribute in the study. In particular, AP/DPs in both the survey and career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews rated the desire to make a difference in

education and the opportunity to innovate/contribute to school development and change as two subjective attributes which provided respondents with the highest levels of personal and professional satisfaction. This finding was also the case in the Pounder and Merrill (2001) study of aspiring principals where potential candidates were most attracted to the position due to subjective factors such as a desire to influence and improve education. These findings emphasise the importance of such attributes to job satisfaction and emphasise for schools how important it is to develop leadership roles that maximise the opportunity for AP/DPs to experience these attributes.

It was revealing that the examples that the career AP/DPs in the interviews used to highlight how satisfying and motivating the subjective attribute of innovating /contributing to school development and change were drawn from their pastoral role. Other New Zealand studies such as Scott (2008; Farnham, 2009: Graham & Smith, 1999) have identified similar patterns of response indicating that the pedagogical role was not always the preeminent focus in the thoughts of AP/DPs when responding to questions about their leadership role.

The desire to make a difference in education was the second highest rating subjective attribute in the survey and this was also strongly supported in the interviews when career AP/DPs talked about how satisfying it was to develop processes that supported students (This will be discussed in more depth later). There appeared to be both subjective and critical contact motivators at play, in that satisfaction was gained from enjoying their involvement in enabling the student to grow and develop (subjective or psychological factor) and relishing the close contact with the student and their family (critical contact or relational motivator). As one said "if you have made a positive difference to a kid, that's what teaching is about."

While the majority of AP/DPs in this study alluded to the impact of too many demands, too little time and too much management on their ability to be effective leaders of learning, they also identified other issues worthy of comment. Graham and Smith (1999), Marshall and Hooley (2006) and Farnham (2008) and Scott (2008) all reported that AP/DPs identify student discipline as one of the most time consuming tasks in their role; "it's endless. You can never plan anything" (Scott, 2008, p. 116). It was interesting therefore, to find that only one tenth of AP/DPs who responded to the survey identified pastoral responsibilities as a constraint on their effectiveness as a leader in their schools. Given that the views expressed by these AP/DPs were somewhat at odds with findings in previous studies, this became an area of interest. It was important to fully understand how career AP/DPs in this study perceived their pastoral role and whether they felt that their contribution in this role was a positive and key aspect of educational leadership in their schools or a distraction from more important matters.

The Pastoral Role is Important to Me

Scott's (2008) study of newly appointed AP/DPs also had a low number of respondents identifying the pastoral role as a constraint on their ability to lead. However, when she subsequently interviewed a number of the AP/DPs they were very critical of the impact of the pastoral role, seeing it as very time consuming and a major barrier to their work (Scott, 2008, p. 116). This was not completely the case in this study. One of the very first responses from a career AP/DP in the initial focus interview was "If you took the pastoral responsibility away from me I think I would quit."

This very strong statement was a common thread through all of the focus interviews. With the exception of one career AP/DP all of those participants enjoyed the strong connection with

students and the relational aspects of this role were highly valued. Their view supported the finding in the survey phase. In their view, therefore, the relational focus of the critical contact attributes was highly valued and a key driver in enhancing AP/DPs' motivation and satisfaction levels in the role. It was 'good' work and viewed with much fondness especially as they took so much pleasure from their part in helping students grow through issues and develop.

Despite this, career AP/DPs were very well aware of the frustrations and tensions that go with the pastoral role. The work was acknowledged as time consuming and inevitably placed AP/DPs into conflict with those in the school community. Respondents in Scott's (2008) study made a similar point in arguing that the pastoral role is so demanding largely because of the potential for conflict with students, teachers and parents. However, the career AP/DPs interviewed in the focus groups were more comfortable with these challenges than Scott's participants and they were realistic in admitting that they could not solve every issue. Their attitude possibly reflects their significant level of experience and confidence in the role. Indeed Farnham (2009) claimed that a number of AP/DPs in his study reported high levels of satisfaction with their pastoral role precisely because they spent so much time dealing with these issues that they actually got better at dealing with them.

The career AP/DPs also argued that the pastoral role enabled them to demonstrate their leadership skills and support of the school through innovating and developing programmes and structures to support improvement in the guidance structures. The implementation of programmes such as restorative justice, Positive Behaviour for Learning (PB4L), vertical guidance structures, student leadership and mentoring programmes and wider pastoral resources have, according to career AP/DPs, all contributed to reducing stand downs and

suspensions, thereby also reducing their pastoral workload. These programmes and initiatives have also allowed career AP/DPs to develop teachers' skills in classroom management, thereby improving their ability to deliver the curriculum more effectively. This was one area where the pastoral role and the pedagogical role coincided and provided career AP/DPs with a strong sense of self-worth allowing these AP/DPs to gain satisfaction from viewing themselves as having contributed to the success of students in their schools.

There is little doubt that career AP/DPs in this study gained high levels of satisfaction from managing the student pastoral care system. In their rating of the work factors involving interactions with students (see Table 36, p. 153) even managing student behavioural issues were rated slightly positively at 0.48. Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009) had similar findings with AP/DPs in their studies reporting high levels of success and satisfaction from dealing with student pastoral issues. Graham and Smith (1999) argued that their AP/DPs gained real pleasure from fostering young people, addressing values and supporting students to behave. Those AP/DPs gained immense satisfaction from the fact that they were able to influence young people who came to trust them.

Given all of these findings perhaps Hackman and Oldham (1980) were correct in suggesting that work factors indirectly influence job desirability and satisfaction levels by their direct influence on the psychological responses of AP/DPs to the role. This would suggest a strong interrelationship between specific work factors and subjective attributes as according to Hackman and Oldham (1980) both support individuals in attaining psychological fulfilment from the role. There was indeed compelling evidence in this study that the relationships and influence that AP/DPs have on students in their schools increased the psychological appeal of

the position and this was influenced by both the subjective attributes and work factors typical of the role.

Linked to this were the critical contact attributes or relational factors; career AP/DPs commented on how the relationships that grow from interacting with students were an enjoyable and valued aspect of the AP/DP role. Having a role that allowed them to have a long term professional relationship with students (of up to five years) gave them the opportunity to connect with many students to the point that these students were comfortable to continue coming to them and seeking advice and support. The fact that the students placed so much trust in them provided a feel good factor that was both satisfying and motivating and at the same time provided a sense of social fulfilment.

These career AP/DPs do, however, live in the real world. They noted many challenges that make this role such a difficult and demanding one. A number were frustrated by their lack of ability to find solutions for students who had been damaged by wider societal issues such a poverty, deprivation and abuse. The lack of specialist skills available to schools and the inability to be able to encourage the full support of agencies outside of the school to provide wrap round services tested their problem solving ability to the limit. Coupled with this, was the on-going breakdown of the family structure in modern society resulting in many single parents struggling to cope with the stress of raising a child given some lacked basic parenting skills. These almost insurmountable issues landed back in the lap of the AP/DP. It was these issues that career AP/DPs struggled with the most as they felt impotent and unable to support both the students and the staff in the way that might lead to solutions.

However, the overall impression from career AP/DPs comments was that the pastoral role was a very positive part of their work. As one summed up, "it's the pastoral role that keeps us in the job". There is little doubt that this small group of career AP/DPs was very comfortable with the role and the demands that it placed on them. This strong connection to the role is all well and good but the discussion has not articulated yet the impact that such a strong role has on their other leadership responsibilities so the next section examines how the AP/DPs in this study perceive their ability to contribute as a pedagogical leader and identifies the challenges they face with respect to this.

Making a Difference to Teaching and Learning?

The survey findings presented in Chapter 5 highlighted that there was little difference between career AP/DPs and principal aspirants regarding time spent in the three broad areas of paperwork and compliance, interacting and supporting the needs of students and supporting teachers and their teaching practice. Both groups reported that on average they spent approximately one third of their time on tasks associated with paperwork and compliance, just under a half of their time supporting and interacting with students and approximately a quarter of their time supporting teachers and improving teaching and learning in their school. In comparison, Farnham's (2009) study of 15 AP/DPs in Auckland City found that tasks associated with leadership of learning accounted for only one tenth of their key responsibilities and the focus on so many other roles only added to the difficulties in trying to impact directly on teaching and learning in their schools.

The data in this study with regard to the tasks or areas that occupy the AP/DPs time were consistent with other New Zealand studies of AP/DPs, including Cardno (2003), Douglas (2007), Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009), continuing to suggest that the role of the New

Zealand AP/DP was heavily biased towards administration and student support, which tasks occupied over three quarters of AP/DPs time. This finding challenges the continuing call from leading academics such as Robinson et al. (2009) for educational leaders to place more emphasis on tasks connected to pedagogical leadership. Pedagogical leadership, according to MacNeil et al. (2004), can be viewed as a particular style of leadership that motivates staff to be actively involved in dialogue and collaborative action in order to improve teaching and learning. Pedagogical leaders encourage dialogue with others and promote the improvement of teaching and learning through such strategies as a commitment to a shared vision and mission regarding student learning, allowing the application of expert knowledge about student learning at all levels in the organisation and sharing that knowledge with others thereby encouraging and empowering teachers to find their own solutions to student learning difficulties in their classrooms. Pedagogical leaders also focus their leadership abilities on improving teaching and learning rather than administrative practice (MacNeil et al., 2004). This is a significant challenge for AP/DPs in this study (and New Zealand AP/DPs as a group given the findings of Cardno (2003), Douglas (2007), Scott (2008) and Farnham (2009) as finding the time, space and ability to be a pedagogical leader was not helped by the structure of the AP/DP role which has been more concerned with administrative and management tasks that help run the school effectively. As Mertz (2000) pointed out, these roles do not necessarily develop the AP/DPs leadership capacities.

On the other hand, the fact that career AP/DPs in this study spent on average just under one quarter of their time on leading learning in their schools, was positive given the findings of previous studies. International studies by Marshall and Hooley (2006) and Harris, Muijs, and Crawford (2003) have argued that the array of tasks that AP/DPs are involved in actually

distances them from curriculum and instruction, so it is significant that many New Zealand AP/DPs in this study indicated that they do find time to be pedagogical leaders.

A different point emerged when analysing the work factors associated with supporting students (see Table 36, p. 153) and comparing them with the work factors associated with supporting teachers (see Table 39, p. 163). All AP/DPs in the survey rated work factors associated with supporting teachers in their practice at a consistently and considerably higher level than work factors associated with supporting students. As indicated in the previous section, work factors are closely linked to subjective attributes with both providing individuals with the opportunity to enjoy psychological fulfilment (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). The data in this study suggest that while career AP/DPs enjoy their pastoral role, supporting teachers and their practice was seen by participants as providing stronger psychological rewards and, consequently higher levels of satisfaction. Indeed, work factors associated with supporting teachers and their practice were rated by survey respondents as twice as positive as the next highest rating group of work factors involving interactions with students.

However, this was also the area that career AP/DPs identified as where they spent the least amount of time. While this was an area of tension for many of the AP/DPs, this finding supports Cranston's (2007), where Auckland AP/DPs noted high levels of job satisfaction when their designated role allowed them to have significant leadership input to teaching and learning in their schools. Comments from respondents in this study such as "management and compliance tasks leave little time for constructive leadership" indicated the frustration that many felt in not being able to spend more of their time on leadership for learning. These frustrations were identified also by Cranston et al (2004) and later on Cranston (2007) who

reported that his AP/DPs spent the least amount of their time on what can be termed pedagogical leadership tasks. They expressed a desire to spend more of their time on tasks that have a direct impact on leadership of learning indicating a source of possible frustration. Given that Cardno (2003) also identified this same frustration in her study of AP/DPs in New Zealand little seems to have changed during the last decade.

However, AP/DPs, including the career AP/DPs interviewed in this study, continue to identify those leadership tasks associated with supporting teaching and learning as being desirable and providing high levels of professional satisfaction. AP/DPs found great satisfaction in being involved in projects where they felt they had contributed something significant to improving teaching and learning. This was also identified by AP/DPs in the study by Graham and Smith (1999) who spoke of the pride they felt in contributing something meaningful regarding their leadership in the school. Their views provide another example of a strong psychological response to an important work factor in the study.

There is no getting away from the fact that the respondents in this study were very well aware that their involvement in pedagogical leadership tasks was somewhat limited and certainly more limited than they would have liked. Time in this role was measured in hours per week rather than the days that they would have liked to have spent in it. As a result there was sense of resignation and realism in their response that this was just the way it was and that any time in the pedagogical role was a bonus.

Most of the career AP/DPs perceived that they had very little direct influence in the pedagogical aspects of leadership. They viewed the HOD position as the key pedagogical leadership influence (rather than the principal or senior leadership team). In the words of one

"the HOD was the engine room" of school efforts to improve teaching and learning and their role was to support HODs. They talked about acting as mentors in supporting them to improve both the curriculum and teaching and learning practice. Interestingly, in mentoring HODs it could be argued that AP/DPs were carrying out an important pedagogical leadership role in promoting dialogue and discussion about teaching and learning and empowering the HODs to apply their expert knowledge to improve teaching and learning in their departments. This is also an example of leadership for learning (Hallinger, 2011) where school leaders and staff work together to promote teaching and learning.

The discussion above concerning the mentoring of HODs is just one example where there appeared to a sense of confusion with regard to teaching and learning in the focus group interviews, with career AP/DPs constantly talking about their indirect influence on the leadership of learning in their schools. Possibly this was not unexpected given that the majority of their work, such as pastoral care and managing the running of the school, was about creating the conditions for teaching and learning to take place (Farnham, 2008). Nevertheless, many of the career AP/DPs then went on to describe leadership activities that they did undertake in ways that could be interpreted as specific and direct pedagogical leadership roles. These roles included mentoring teaching staff, facilitating professional development and running provisionally registered teachers' programmes. It was apparent that they did not actually perceive their input as particularly significant yet the pedagogical roles that they were involved in are very important contributions to improving and supporting the practice of teachers. For example, in promoting their involvement in facilitating professional development they talked of the joy of seeing staff engaging in the sessions and then going away and using some of the techniques that were discussed. They saw their role as supporting and empowering staff to take control of the solutions to improve teaching and learning and

"encouraging each other toward answers for instructional problems" (Marks & Printy, 2003, p. 374). It is clear that these career AP/DPs do contribute to pedagogical leadership in their schools even if it is more limited than what they would like or their contribution is greater than they even realise.

Participants in the interviews also noted that when staff were seen to benefit from the pedagogical leadership work that AP/DPs were involved in, this lifted their own energy and motivation levels. It was this aspect of school leadership that fired their imaginations and despite any frustration regarding the limited time they had to contribute it was important to them that AP/DPs had the skills to contribute to leadership of learning.

A number of the career AP/DPs in the focus group interviews considered that any person appointed to the AP/DP role needed professional credibility and having expert teaching skills was an important requirement. The question is why given that AP/DPs only appear to have limited time for this role. Possibly, the answer is that they recognise themselves as an important educational leader in their schools even if they have been socialised to the role and the way it operates (Mertz, 2000) with its focus on the management and administrative areas emphasising maintaining organisational stability. However, it was obvious that career AP/DPs in the study did have a strong love of teaching and learning and one of their regrets in moving from the HOD to the AP/DP role was losing classroom teaching time. Even though their AP/DP role had an extensive focus on management and pastoral care they considered themselves first and foremost teachers. Thus, this study provides another New Zealand example of AP/DPs calling for a wider leadership of learning role. While they enjoy the pastoral role and actually see this as an important leadership role they would love to have more time to contribute more directly and consistently to teaching and learning in their

schools. Indeed, current academic opinion would view AP/DPs as needing to have a strong role alongside principals in promoting the pedagogical development of all teaching professionals (Hallinger, 2011; Robinson et al., 2008). The dilemmas for AP/DPs is that their administrative and management role works against their involvement in leadership practices that are educational, pedagogical and learning centred.

Given these facts, AP/DPs need to be supported in enabling them to make a more concerted contribution in leading teaching and learning. There have been many suggestions regarding restructuring the AP/DP role so that it addresses the conflict between management and pedagogical leadership (Cranston, 2007; Farnham, 2009; Scott, 2008). Despite this, only limited progress has been made here. It appears that many schools have responded to the administration and compliance role by creating teams to support AP/DPs thereby reducing the load. This may seem to be a very elegant solution and perhaps there are strategies in the pastoral field such as employing full time deans with specialised skills that could be implemented that might also reduce workload opening up increased time to for AP/DPs to involve themselves in a larger leadership role of teaching and learning.

The next part of the discussion examines a professional dilemma raised by career AP/DPs who had identified their dislike of having to deal with complaints against teachers. This issue had also been included in the survey in stage one of the study where a number of work factors had been identified under the umbrella of problems and professional dilemmas. The findings will be covered in the next part of the discussion.

Professional Dilemmas

A small number of work factors focusing on potential professional dilemmas (see Table 37, p. 158) were included in the first phase of the study in questions that asked respondents to rate how conflict in the AP/DP role impacted on their levels of satisfaction. Surprisingly, questionnaire respondents were very positive with regard to their role in communicating with parents regarding students' issues. However, this was certainly not the case when dealing with staff concerns. Dealing with complaints against teachers impacted negatively on their levels of satisfaction with both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants rating it at similar levels.

The problems and professional dilemmas work factors (see Table 37, p. 158) highlighted the difficulties that AP/DPs, and career AP/DPs in particular, had in dealing with professional issues surrounding their colleagues. Farnham (2009) had a similar response from AP/DPs in his study who reported the frustration and dissatisfaction associated with the parts of their role associated with staff. Cranston (2007) and Scott (2008) identified the effects of poor teaching in the classroom as causing dissatisfaction for AP/DPs who invariably had to deal with the issues and problems that resulted from that poor professional practice. Those studies also found that in dealing with these issues the relationships between AP/DPs and their teaching colleagues were tested and strained. In some cases those participants claimed that this resulted in them being treated with suspicion by staff in their school.

Participants in the focus group interviews in this study acknowledged dealing with staff complaints as a role that they did not want as it was so testing of their relationships and social connections with staff. In some cases they had to overcome their feelings of loyalty and connection with staff who were friends. This was an area of considerable emotional stress as

career AP/DPs had to walk a fine line in upholding professional standards while trying to maintain the relationships that they held so dear. Ultimately, dealing with staff complaints impacted negatively on their highly valued personal connections with staff reducing their sense of social fulfilment and connection and driving down their levels of job satisfaction

In moving forward on complaints against staff the concept of natural justice was at the forefront of their thoughts. The reality, however, was that career AP/DPs felt they ended up being harder on their colleagues as they endeavoured to act with integrity and be fair to all parties. Their comments suggested that they try desperately to play the middle ground, however, they acknowledged that someone in the process will always end up aggrieved. Career AP/DPs felt "like the meat in the sandwich" and it was an uncomfortable and unpleasant feeling.

In the end, career AP/DPs saw the complaints process as extremely political and relationally divisive and, consequently, this was a role that they were rather happy to hand to the principal when it became difficult and complex. Their relationships with colleagues were very important to them and in the complaints process there was little in the way of a positive psychological or social reward from carrying out this duty. However, their sense of duty to the interests of students and parents and the importance of natural justice ensured that they carried out the process to the best of their ability.

Barriers and Constraints to Leadership and Careers

This next part of this chapter discusses a range of concerns that had impacted on the ability of career AP/DPs to be effective school leaders.

Almost one fifth of the respondent AP/DPs noted personnel issues within the leadership team as an impediment to carrying out an effective leadership role in their school. These AP/DPs identified poor team dynamics, not being given full responsibility for a task, principal interference and micro managing as impacting negatively on their role. They wanted more autonomy and more open and constructive communication within the leadership team so that they were not working in the dark. Cranston, Tromans and Reugebrink (2004) have argued that being part of an effective senior management team led to high levels of job satisfaction for AP/DPs. It would appear that for a number of AP/DPs in this study poor team dynamics were not only constraining their ability to be effective leaders but also impacting on their ability to gain full satisfaction from their professional role.

The views expressed by these AP/DPs highlights how important interpersonal relationships and team dynamics were in providing the conditions for AP/DPs to thrive. This aspect came through strongly in the discussion in the focus interviews. By and large, those career AP/DPs in the focus interviews were very complimentary about their teams indicating that strong team cultures characterised by trust, loyalty and empathy are an important element in ensuring that AP/DPs thrive in their role. It is obvious that not all AP/DPs in the survey felt that this was the case in their schools with comments such as "my current principal seems reluctant to have new ideas introduced unless they are from him" and "there is no willingness by the principal to admit we need help to function effectively as a team" highlighting less positive feelings and, as a result, they reported diminished levels of satisfaction and motivation. These criticisms highlight how the leadership style of the principal and/or leadership colleagues can have a detrimental effect on others in the team reducing the psychological and social rewards of individuals in the team.

On a different matter, respondents to the questionnaire were asked to rate their chance of being appointed to a principalship should they apply. This question was asked in order to investigate whether the career typology of an AP/DP was determined by their lack of confidence regarding gaining a principal's position or whether other factors were at play. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory was considered here. Simply put if one does not expect to gain a principal's position there is much less motivation or desire to seek such a job. Only those who find the position highly desirable are likely to actively pursue attaining the position.

In the Pounder and Merrill (2001) study which analysed the influence job attributes had on potential candidate's attraction to principalship the respondents' view of their probability of receiving a job offer was the strongest single predictor of job attraction. It was certainly worth investigating why career AP/DPs were not interested in principalship to see if expectancy theory did play a part in their decision firstly to apply for an AP/DPs position and to then subsequently decide not to pursue a principalship. In the end the results were rather inconclusive and shed only limited understanding on the issue.

Career AP/DPs were on average not as confident as principal aspirants regarding their belief in their ability to successfully gain a principals position. Almost two thirds of the career AP/DPs in this study rated their chances of successfully applying for a principal's position as poor or fair only. In contrast, just under two thirds of principal aspirants rated their prospects as good, high or very high.

Age and relative experience were the two biggest factors behind respondents' negative perceptions of their chances of being appointed to a principalship should they apply. The

majority of the career AP/DPs who provided written feedback to this question suggested that their age would count against them and that they were now too old to be seriously considered for a principal's position. Age being seen as a barrier had been a common theme in other studies. Douglas (2007) for instance found that between the ages of 36-45 at least half of the AP/DPs in her study were considering principalship. Between the ages of 46 and 54 that figure dropped to about 40% and after 55 years of age the percentage dropped to only 14%. This pattern supports Tauskey and Dubin (1965) claim that with increasing age an individual's career anchorage perspective moved from an upward focus career orientation towards a downward focus on career starting points which is a description that fits with career AP/DPs career typology.

A number of principal aspirants, on the other hand, talked of their lack of experience in the role indicating that they were relatively new to their AP/DP position and this would count against them. In her study of newly appointed AP/DPs in New Zealand, Scott (2008) found that participants were very aware of their lack of experience and their need to spend time in the position before considering further promotion. However, while the principal aspirants in this current study indicated that career progression to a principalship was just a matter of time, many career AP/DPs had ruled out further progression due to advancing age. These two groups seem to be at opposite ends of a time continuum with principal aspirants being on average at least 6 years younger.

The findings did little here to clearly demonstrate that expectancy theory was a major factor in the decisions of career AP/DPs. However, the fact that so many career AP/DPs were significantly less confident than aspiring principals regarding their chances of gaining a principals position and that many needed the encouragement of significant others in order to

apply for their AP/DP positions did lend some support to the theory that career AP/DPs were not as confident as principal aspirants regarding their professional capabilities.

Summary

The findings in this section have helped to answer the research questions posed at the beginning of this section on page 221. Career AP/DPs are most attracted to the role by the psychological rewards experienced as a result of subjective attributes such as the ability to make a difference in education, the opportunity to improve teaching and learning and the ability to experience the rewards of leading in a school. They hold the pastoral role very dearly and enjoy their relationships with colleagues, staff, students and parents and this identifies career AP/DPs as highly relational. While enjoying some of the management and administrative roles (and certainly more so than principal aspirants) career AP/DPs are frustrated that they do not have the time nor the structures to support them to make a more significant contribution to teaching and learning. They view their role in supporting teaching and learning as highly desirable.

Conclusion

In order to summarise the discussion that has taken place in this Chapter some of the important characteristics of both career AP/DPs and principal aspirants are outlined in Figure 16 (see p. 245) and this provides a visual summary of some of the important differences in each group. In comparison to principal aspirants, career AP/DPs move more slowly through their careers and are more evenly spread across the range of school decile and roll ranges. They have lower levels of participation in national leadership preparatory programmes and are less likely to engage in tertiary leadership study. Career AP/DPs also enjoy workplace stability where a work/life balance appears important whereas principal aspirants are more

likely to pursue rapid promotion and are more motivated by career progression. Principal aspirants are more confident in their ability to take ultimate responsibility for school leadership while career AP/DPs are more comfortable being second to the principal while still enjoying having a strong leadership role. Principal aspirants are slightly more motivated by the subjective attributes of the role while career AP/DPs appear a little more relationally oriented enjoying the critical contact attributes that are typical of the role.

Linked to these characteristics were a number of important issues and findings which have been covered in the discussion of the key themes identified in the study. First, career AP/DPs in the main do not follow any particular career plan and their journey in education is more a result of random events or the encouragement of their colleagues than any deliberate decision on their part. Second, career AP/DPs have not been adequately supported regarding professional preparation for the AP/DP role and their professional growth has been the result of 'on the job training' with limited support, apart from that provided by leadership colleagues. Third, career AP/DPs report being extremely busy and 'time poor' and their involvement in longer in-depth professional programmes has been limited by their desire to try and maintain a semblance of work/life balance and to protect personal relationships. Fourth, career AP/DPs enjoy their involvement in supporting students in the pastoral role but want more time to make a more significant contribution to teaching and learning in their schools. Fifth, career AP/DPs are very motivated in wanting to make a difference in their schools and those subjective job attributes and work factors that promote psychological rewards are highly valued. Sixth, career AP/DPs argue that their leadership team is the most important professional motivator they have, highlighting relationships in their leadership team and team culture as significant sources of satisfaction for them. Finally, overarching all these findings is the important part that principals play in providing the conditions to allow
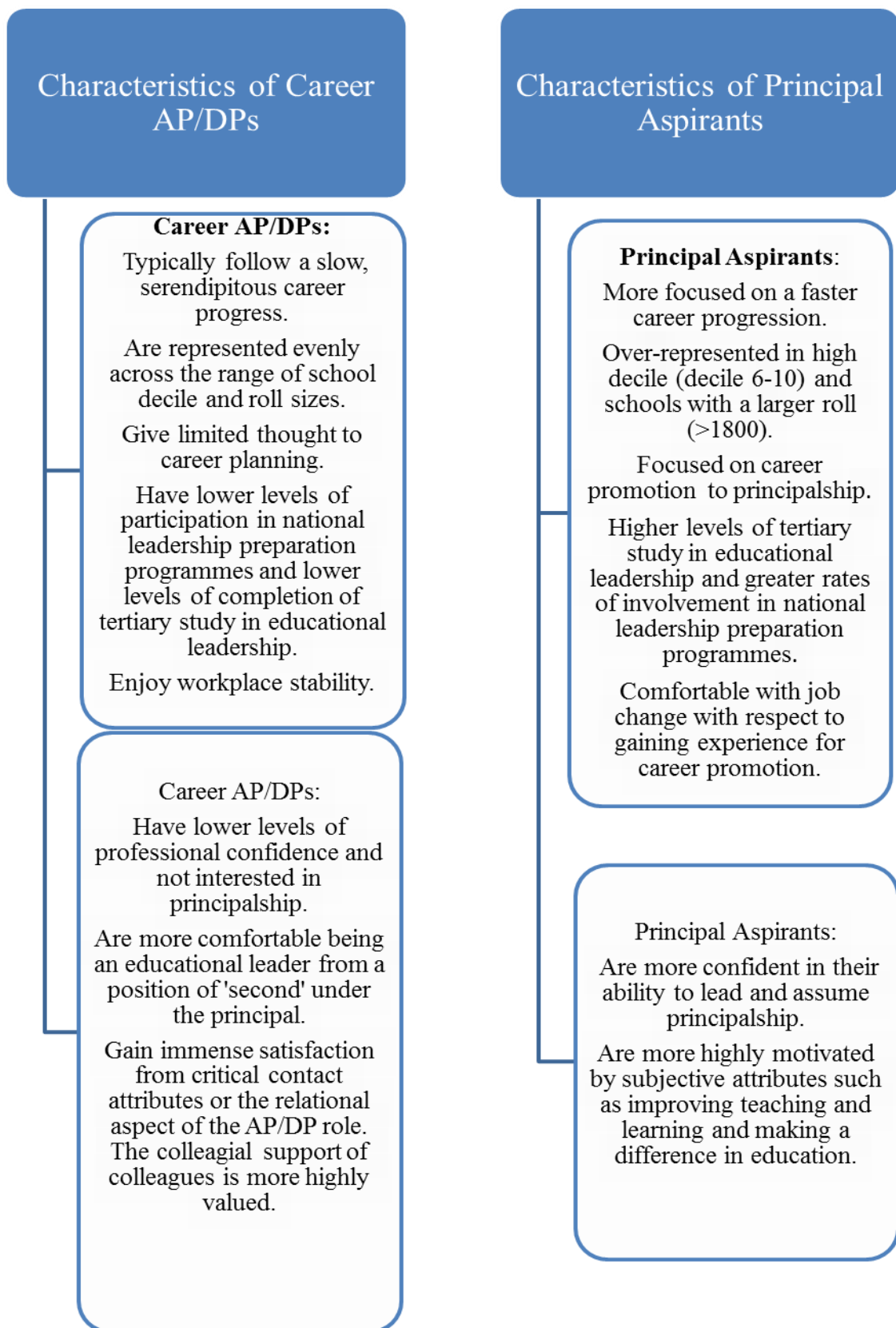
Characteristics of Career AP/DPs

Characteristics of Principal Aspirants

Career AP/DPs:

Typically follow a slow, serendipitous career progress.

Are represented evenly across the range of school decile and roll sizes.

Give limited thought to career planning.

Have lower levels of participation in national leadership preparation programmes and lower levels of completion of tertiary study in educational leadership.

Enjoy workplace stability.

Career AP/DPs:

Have lower levels of professional confidence and not interested in principalship.

Are more comfortable being an educational leader from a position of 'second' under the principal.

Gain immense satisfaction from critical contact attributes or the relational aspect of the AP/DP role. The colleagial support of colleagues is more highly valued.

Principal Aspirants:

More focused on a faster career progression.

Over-represented in high decile (decile 6-10) and schools with a larger roll (>1800).

Focused on career promotion to principalship.

Higher levels of tertiary study in educational leadership and greater rates of involvement in national leadership preparation programmes.

Comfortable with job change with respect to gaining experience for career promotion.

Principal Aspirants:

Are more confident in their ability to lead and assume principalship.

Are more highly motivated by subjective attributes such as improving teaching and learning and making a difference in education.

Figure 16. Contrasting Characteristics of Career AP/DPs and Principal Aspirants

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career AP/DPs to grow, develop and contribute enabling them to enjoy fully the

psychological rewards that this leadership role provides.

Chapter Eight:

Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The conclusion chapter should provide the researcher with the opportunity to interpret results, evaluate any shortcomings, draw valid conclusions and where required make recommendations for further research (Beach, Becker, & Kennedy, 2006). The intention of this chapter is to follow these suggestions in structuring this final chapter.

The findings from this research and any subsequent conclusions that will be drawn from them are not intended to be generalised to the population of career AP/DPs in New Zealand. When the study was started it was hoped that the findings could be generalised, but unfortunately the difficulty in getting a representative group of career AP/DPs to participate in the focus interviews worked against this goal. Therefore, any conclusions are specific to the sample population in this study. Despite this, these conclusions do provide important information pertaining to the identity and professional issues for career AP/DPs as well as potential areas for further research with respect to this group.

This study's findings provide an initial glimpse into the professional lives of career AP/DPs in the New Zealand secondary school system that casts some light on how they perceive and experience their work and gain satisfaction from the role. The study does not claim to be the definitive word on the research problem but rather work that contributes some initial knowledge and understanding about a largely unrecognised group of educational leaders in our schools.

The key findings in relation to the research questions formulated and presented in Chapter One, and outlined in the conclusion to chapter seven are now presented along with their implications. Some recommendations are then suggested, followed by some potential areas of further research. It is hoped that together these might provide some guidance for studies that may build on this work in the future; suggestions for how career AP/DPs could be better supported in their leadership role; and suggestions for improving the structure of the job to allow a wider leadership for learning role.

Key Findings and Implications

Most significantly, this exploratory study has enabled the identity of career AP/DPs to be revealed and it has identified some of the challenges that a group of career AP/DPs who participated in the study have faced. These can be summarised as follows.

1. **A lack of control over career progression**

   Very few career AP/DPs expressed a deliberate desire to pursue an AP/DP position as an end point career goal. Findings in both research phases highlight their career progression as random, serendipitous and individual. The voice of career AP/DPs in the focus interviews identified that many lacked professional confidence and relied on significant colleagues or gilt edged opportunities to provide the necessary encouragement to consider further career progression. The findings also suggested that many career AP/DPs seek stability rather than change. If they enjoyed a role then they were more likely to 'sit' in a position and enter a period of maintenance or stability (Kancher & Unrub, 1988) where a work/life balance was highly valued.

Their career journeys are characterised by responding to often unplanned and random career promotion opportunities rather than a deliberate strategy of focusing on upward career progression. The implications of these findings are that many career AP/DPs have had extended stays in a number of positions in their education career which has possibly inhibited their career progression.

2. **Insufficient or inadequate professional preparation for the AP/DP role**

Many of the career AP/DPs in the study reported being relatively unprepared for the demands of the AP/DP role and having to initially fly by the seat of their pants. This was described as an anxious and difficult time and the findings suggest it is the result of a lack of attention to the professional needs of these individuals by both schools and the education system itself.

Without the support of a formalised induction programme, formal mentoring support, systems of feedback on performance and in-depth leadership training, 'on the job' training took on even greater importance for these career AP/DPs. While on the job training has been recognised as the most effective, useful and practical method of supporting professional growth (Cranston et al, 2007; Graham & Smith, 1999; Scott, 2008) it is also the school of hard knocks and in isolation is not a particularly sympathetic way of growing educational leaders.

These findings suggest that there needs to be greater attention paid by both individual schools and the education system itself to supporting the transition of new AP/DPs into the role. Without this support too many inexperienced AP/DPs are being subjected to high

levels of stress and anxiety and control of their development as educational leaders is handed over to random experiences in the job and unsupported self-reflection processes.

3. **Work overload is a barrier to in-depth professional learning**

One of the most consistent themes that came up in the findings is that career AP/DPs are time poor with their role being described as frenetic, reactive and unpredictable. The AP/DP role is dominated by pastoral, managerial and administrative tasks which have to be responded to immediately and career AP/DPs reflect a similar view to a number of other New Zealand studies of the role in that there are never enough hours in the day. According to participants in this study in order to meet the expectations of the role, career AP/DPs work long hours and this is an on-going challenge in their attempts to find an appropriate work/life balance.

These findings indicate that a lack of time and work overload acts as a barrier for many career AP/DPs in committing to and completing longer in-depth professional learning programmes. It appears that the personal sacrifices needed to find the time to commit to such programmes are too high for many career AP/DPs. The implications are that if this continues then many AP/DPs will never fully realise their professional potential and will be unable to fully participate and develop their skills in those educational leadership roles that require a high level of theoretical understanding.

4. **Career AP/DPs have a narrow leadership of learning role**

While career AP/DPs in the study did express a surprising level of satisfaction with their administrative and pastoral role there is no doubt that the emphasis in the role on these tasks results in AP/DPs having limited impact in a pedagogical leadership role in their

schools. The career AP/DPs who were interviewed also appeared somewhat confused regarding the pedagogical leadership role often referring to their indirect influence. The reality is that their involvement in facilitating programmes such as professional development programmes for staff and provisionally registered teachers, mentoring HODs and developing teaching and learning initiatives could be considered as having a direct influence on improving teaching and learning.

However, the findings suggest that the specialist nature of the administration and management roles that many undertake in their schools narrows the opportunity to contribute in leading learning in their schools potentially negatively impacting on the professional growth of AP/DPs. The implications of this are that schools need to continue to develop strategies to enable elements of the administration and pastoral role to be divested or shared with others. One suggestion is to develop support teams for AP/DPs in order to provide them with the opportunity to have a more significant role in leading learning. Career AP/DPs in this study have argued that they consider AP/DPs to be expert teachers and they would enjoy a stronger role as leaders of learning in their schools. Clearly this will not happen unless schools continue to look at the ways that both the AP/DPs role and wider leadership practices are structured and conceptualised.

5. **The psychological rewards of the role provide huge satisfaction**

The findings in this study support the proposition put forward by Pounder and Merrill (2001) that individuals are attracted to a role that fulfils their psychological needs. Whether it is working with students in their pastoral role or teachers in the pedagogical role, being able to personally make a difference and contribute to school development was highly satisfying and motivating. It is important to note, however, that it is those roles that allow them to support teachers and contribute to leading developments in teaching and

learning that were the most satisfying and enabled career AP/DPs to express their love of teaching and learning.

These findings support the discussion in the previous point where schools are asked to consider how they could re-structure and re-conceptualise the role in order to provide greater emphasis on leadership of learning. The findings in this study point to the psychological rewards being greatest when AP/DPs are working in a role where they are leading teaching and learning and this needs to be carefully understood by schools in evaluating the needs of AP/DPs in their schools.

6. **The importance of relationships and a high functioning leadership team**

Career AP/DPs in this study have argued that interpersonal relationships are one of the most significant elements in their role that provide increased levels of satisfaction. It appears that having positive and affirming relationships heighten the psychological rewards that result when connecting with students and colleagues. It is, however, the interpersonal relationships within their leadership teams that provide career AP/DPs with the most satisfaction. A strong team culture where career AP/DPs feel trusted, supported and empowered to contribute to school development provides a sense of belonging and a safe emotional and professional environment in which to develop their professional skills.

These finding highlight how important a high functioning leadership team is if career AP/DPs are to fully develop their leadership potential. A supportive leadership team can help shield AP/DPs from "the stress, loneliness and high administrative workload associated with the role" (Palmer, 1997, p. 160). The implications are that principals need to fully understand how important relationships within the leadership team are to career

AP/DPs and endeavour to develop strategies that ensure that AP/DPs are provided with the necessary social, emotional and professional support.

7. The role of the principal in supporting career AP/DPs

The discussion in the previous six points of this conclusion chapter identifies how important the role of the principal is in ensuring that career AP/DPs are supported in their careers. While the findings have highlighted that the education system should and could provide more support in terms of a formalised induction programme, mentoring or formalised systems of feedback on performance, the principal has an important part in making sure that career AP/DPs receive better systems of support than they currently receive and that this should be routine practice.

The principal also has the necessary power and the influence to develop the structures and systems needed to re-conceptualise the AP/DP role to provide a meaningful pedagogical leadership role. The findings in the study have identified that the involvement of AP/DPs in supporting their colleagues in leading teaching and learning provide some of the highest psychological rewards in the role. Therefore, it would seem sensible to develop and reconceptualise the role so that AP/DPs are given a greater opportunity to be leaders of learning, enhancing their skills and providing a role that would lead to higher levels of job satisfaction.

Finally, as discussed in point six of this chapter the influence of the principal is crucial in developing the conditions to ensure a high trust leadership team that promotes team synergies and enables not just individual growth, but also potentially more productive, innovative solutions, strategies and initiatives for the school. The implications are that the

principal must recognise all of these issues and respond to them constructively if career AP/DPs are to experience job satisfaction to the fullest, thereby supporting more effectively the on-going development and improvement of their schools.

Significance and Limitations of the Study

This research addresses a need for a more comprehensive understanding of the issues and challenges facing those individuals classified in this study as career AP/DPs. While there had been some international and local research focusing on the role of the AP/DP there is limited research that includes the voice of the AP/DP and even less that focuses on the personal and professional perspectives that career AP/DPs have in regard to their educational role in the 21st century. In my search of the literature, I could not find any study of career AP/DPs (as identified and defined in my research) that focused on their role. Consequently, there is limited understanding of those career AP/DPs who serve in the role and what tasks and attributes of the position motivate career AP/DPs in their professional lives. As a result the professional needs and growth strategies required to support these individuals have not really been considered.

The research study has attempted to contribute to building a body of knowledge that is not duplicated elsewhere. It is an important area of study in that a full appreciation of the role and, those who carry out the role, is essential if career AP/DPs are to be acknowledged as a crucial part of the leadership landscape in an evolving and complicated educational setting. By articulating the perspectives of career AP/DPs, their experiences and aspirations in regard to the role and those aspects of the role that lead to high levels of job satisfaction, the study hopefully contributes some new understandings to this area of leadership research. In doing so, it has aimed to also influence the formation of policies supporting career AP/DPs

participation and professional growth in strategies and practices for enhancing leadership of learning.

The study methods are also somewhat unique in combining both career anchorage perspective and job choice theory in order to develop insights into the reasoning behind the career choices of career AP/DPs, as well as an understanding of their experiences and perspectives. Job choice theory has normally been applied to studies focusing on the individual's perceptions of the desirability and attractiveness of a future job role. In this study job choice theory has been applied in order to understand the desirability and satisfaction levels gained by continuing to serve within a role that they currently hold. As a result, the study has challenged the assumption that the AP/DP position is a transitory stage on the way to principalship. Career AP/DPs are very much anchored in, and satisfied with their role as a legitimate end point career.

The study has also challenged schools to take the opportunity to evaluate the work that AP/DPs do in their role. Despite criticism that individuals in the AP/DP role are swamped by administration and management tasks little has changed in the last two decades. This study suggests that AP/DPs want to have a stronger involvement in pedagogical leadership tasks than is currently the situation. It challenges school leaders to further reconceptualise the AP/DP role to create a more significant role for AP/DPs in leading teaching and learning. In these ways the study adds to the literature suggesting that the AP/DP role needs to be evaluated with regard to its current focus.

There are, however, some limitations with regard to the study that need to be outlined for those reading and evaluating its findings. This study was a New Zealand bound study of

AP/DPs in the secondary education system and the findings are not intended to apply across the primary education sector. The study is also time bound over the period 2010 through to 2014 and if the study is to be replicated in the future there may well be different findings given that new initiatives and support programmes which impact on the work of AP/DPs are being rolled out across the country (e.g., Positive Behaviour for Learning, Restorative Practice, leadership preparation courses).

One of the major limitations in the study came out of the difficulties in recruiting career AP/DPs to participate in the focus group interviews. In the end, a much smaller number of career AP/DPs were able to be interviewed than was intended and this did not provide the range of views that was hoped for. The demographic profile of the career AP/DPs who participated in the interviews was also significantly different to the group of career AP/DPs who completed the survey. Participants in the focus interviews were male dominated (with only three females taking part) and significantly older (on average females were 1.5 years older and males 4 years older than career AP/DPs in the survey) and this opened up the possibility that the findings were not necessarily representative of the views of the sample group as a whole.

Recommendations

These recommendations are based on the key findings that have emerged from this research study. They are separated into two areas, recommendations for practice and recommendations for further research.

Recommendations for practice

1. That school's consider offering HODs and AP/DPs early and sustained career counselling to better enable individuals to take control of their career management

and progression. Given that so many career AP/DPs had stayed for extended periods in both the HOD and AP/DPs positions it is possible that with this type of support, they may have acted differently in the career decisions that they have made.

2. That organisations which represent the interests of secondary AP/DPs lobby the Ministry of Education in order to develop a programme of support for newly appointed AP/DPs. Too many career AP/DPs report a lack of support in transitioning to the position. It appears that there is a clear need for a programme of support that is equivalent to the current First Time Principals Programme even if it is regionally based. The focus on professional growth and support coupled with the inclusion of key elements such as mentoring and professional feedback on performance should provide a much smoother transition phase for AP/DPs while helping to reduce their levels of anxiety and stress.

3. That principals undertake training and development to strengthen their ability to mentor and develop the leadership skills of their AP/DP colleagues. It has been suggested that many principals currently lack the knowledge, expertise and confidence to take control in this important area. However, given how many career AP/DPs in this study view the relationship with the principal as important, and the impact of the principal on their professional lives it is clear that the principal has a significant part to play in developing their professional competencies.

4. That schools and senior leadership teams give further consideration to how they might further reconceptualise the AP/DP role to create a more significant role for AP/DPs in leading learning. Some of the strategies identified in this study such as the creation of teams to divest the administration load could be further developed with a focus on the pastoral role. Farnham (2008) argues that many pastoral roles could be reallocated to counsellors, specialist support staff with dean responsibilities and other teachers.

These strategies could help leverage the necessary time to allow AP/DPs a more prominent role in leading learning and teaching in their schools.

Recommendations for further research

1. To investigate the possible correlation between the schools' decile rating and the career typology of the AP/DP.

2. To investigate the effectiveness of utilising the AP/DP in a pastoral role and the possible impact on the stability of the organisation in moving the AP/DP into a more significant role in leading the improvement of teaching and learning.

3. Investigate the impact of the Aspiring Principals' Programme in preparing the AP/DP for the realities of the role.

Final Words

It is apparent from the findings in this study that career AP/DPs are passionate educational leaders driven by a desire to contribute to school improvement and make a positive difference in their schools.

The title of the study was 'Career Assistant and Deputy Principals: Asleep at the Wheel or Motivated Drivers in Education?' Clearly, the study findings have highlighted this group of career AP/DPs as motivated and capable education leaders who were fully committed to making a positive difference in their schools. They were definitely not asleep at the wheel and remain focused on ensuring that they serve their school community with energy and vigour. Career AP/DPs may not be interested in principalship but their feedback has also highlighted that they have definitely not 'retired' on the job.

For career AP/DPs, there is a sense that their leadership team are family, a group of individuals who trust and look after each other as they go about their job of developing strategy to bring about growth and development in their schools. There is a strong impression of career AP/DPs standing together with their leadership colleagues as they set out to serve and protect their school community. This focus on teamwork and serving others provides the psychological rewards that maintain the high levels of satisfaction that career AP/DPs in this study claim to experience.

In conclusion, this research has demonstrated that the AP/DP position can, and does provide individuals in education with a legitimate and satisfying educational leadership role that is a challenging, rewarding and worthwhile career option that is an alternative to principalship.

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Massey University

Te Kunenga ki Pūrehuroa

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Career AP/DPs: Asleep at the wheel or motivated drivers in education

An Invitation to Contribute to a Study of Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Information Sheet for Participants

Researcher: Mr Kevin Shore
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Research Supervisors: Dr. Marian Court   Professor. Margaret Walshaw

Kevin Shore is currently the Principal at Cullinane College and served as an AP/DP from 1995 to 2010. He is currently enrolled in the EdD programme at Massey University and is focusing his study on issues of educational leadership.

Nau mai, haere mai. You are warmly invited to contribute to this study of those individuals who serve as assistant/deputy principals in our secondary schools in New Zealand. This study was initiated due to the apparent lack of attention paid in the academic literature to the unique professional life of the AP/DP and their contribution to the educational effectiveness in the schools in which they serve.

The purpose of this study is to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the perspectives and professional needs of AP/DPs and, in particular, those individuals who consider themselves career AP/DPs. The study will explore perceptions of AP/DPs about the nature of their current role including its professional challenges and satisfactions, what kinds of support they receive in undertaking this role and their perceptions of the leadership outcomes that result from their influence on the schools in which they serve.

How can you help? A crucial component of the study is to collect the necessary demographic data, career history, future career intentions and personal perspectives on this leadership position in order to raise awareness of the professional needs of this group. I am issuing you with an invitation to participate in this study as your feedback using the survey questionnaire is vital if the position is to receive the recognition and support that it deserves.

A stratified, representative sample of 200 AP/DPs has been selected from information supplied by the National Association of Deputy and Assistant Principals (NASDAP) and these individuals will receive this research participation invitation, Information Sheet and Survey Questionnaire. The AP/DPs chosen in this stratified sample will receive this Information Sheet and a Survey Questionnaire by email from the research administrator. The AP/DPs from the researcher's own town plus those who are executive members of NASDAP will be excluded from the study.

The study will not name the schools or individuals that take part in the survey questionnaire. In order to ensure confidentiality, the researcher has put in place the following strategies:

- A research administrator, who has signed a research confidentiality agreement, will send out an invitation sheet by email to potential respondents with an attached survey questionnaire.
- Individuals who decide to participate in the study will return the questionnaire to the research administrator. The questionnaire will be given an identification code by the research administrator upon receipt of the questionnaire. As a consequence, the information supplied to the researcher will be anonymous. The research administrator will secure the names of participants and their codes.
- Completion and return of the questionnaire implies consent. You have the right to decline to answer any particular questions.
- You have the right to:
  - Refuse to answer any particular question and to withdraw from the study at any time.
  - Ask any further questions regarding the study that occur during your participation.
  - Expect that all information provided will be completely confidential and that it will not be possible for you to be identified in any reports that are prepared for the study.
  - Be given access to a summary of the findings of the study when it is concluded.
- It is intended that a group of AP/DPs will be selected for a follow up focus interview (group interview). Those respondents that agree to be interviewed will not be anonymous to the researcher but an assurance can be given that all identifying material will be removed from both the transcripts and any reports from the study.
- The survey questionnaires and any data collected will be securely stored for up to five years and then destroyed

All participants are asked to complete the 20 minute survey questionnaire that is attached.

A number of participants will be asked to participate in a follow up focus interview. Please indicate on the survey questionnaire whether you would be willing to be interviewed for that part of this study.

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
The Experiences and Aspirations of Our Senior School Leaders

APPENDIX B

Four Digit Identifier: _____

Please complete this survey by ticking the appropriate boxes or by writing in the spaces provided. Thank you.

WHO AM I?

1. **Gender**   Male ☐   Female ☐

2. **Age**   25-29 ☐   30-35 ☐   36-40 ☐   41-45 ☐   46-50 ☐

    51-55 ☐   56-60 ☐   60+ ☐

3. **Ethnicity**   NZ European/Pakeha ☐   Maori ☐   Pacific Island ☐

    Asian ☐   Other ☐

4. **Highest Qualification**   Teaching Dip ☐   Degree ☐   Postgrad Diploma ☐

    Masters Degree ☐   Doctorate ☐

If still working towards a qualification – please give details:

_____

_____

_____

MY CAREER PATH

5. **Years as an Basic Scale Teacher**   Less than 4 ☐   4-9 ☐   10-15 ☐   16+ ☐

6. **Years in Middle Management Roles**   Nil ☐   1-3 ☐   4-9 ☐   10-15 ☐   16+ ☐

7. **Years in the AP/DP Role**   1-3 ☐   4-6 ☐   7-9 ☐   10-15 ☐   16+ ☐

8. **Total years of secondary education**   0-5 ☐   6-10 ☐   11-15 ☐   15-20 ☐   21+ ☐

    experience

9. **No. of AP/DP/Associate Principal**   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5 + ☐

positions held in your career

10. **Main teaching subjects** _____

_____

_____

11. **What factors influenced you to apply for your first AP/DP position?**

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

MY CURRENT SCHOOL CONTEXT

12. **Current Designation**   Assistant Principal ☐   Deputy Principal ☐
Associate Principal☐

13. **No. of Students in School**   Less than 300 ☐300-600 ☐601-900 ☐901-1200 ☐
1201-1500 ☐   1501-1800 ☐   1801-2100 ☐ 2101+
☐

14. **Decile Rating of School**   1 ☐   2 ☐   3 ☐   4 ☐   5 ☐   6 ☐   7 ☐   8 ☐   9 ☐   10 ☐

15. **Location of School**   Rural ☐   Area ☐   Urban ☐   Large Metropolitan ☐

16. **School Type**   Co-ed ☐   Boys ☐   Girls ☐ State ☐   Private ☐   Integrated

(mark all that are appropriate)   ☐   Yrs 7-13 ☐   Yrs 9-13 ☐

17. **Current Teaching Hours**   0 ☐   1-4 ☐   5-8 ☐   9-12 ☐   12 + ☐
(per week)

18. **Current Timetable**   5 period day ☐   6 period day ☐   7 period day ☐

19. **In an average week I**   <45   ☐ 46-50   ☐51-55   ☐56-60   ☐ 61-65   ☐ 70+
would work the following
hours in completing my job.

MY PROFESSIONAL LEARNING

20. **What leadership and management professional development have you undertaken in your career as an AP/DP that is focused on your specific role as an AP/DP/Associate Principal?** (please tick all those that apply)

☐ Formal mentoring by a school associate including the principal

☐ Formal mentoring by an out of school facilitator

☐ Informal mentoring by a colleague/s

☐ Local/regional AP/DP association programmes including conferences and meetings.

☐ National AP/DP conferences

☐ Local or regional in-service courses

☐ National in-service programmes

☐ On the job experience

☐ Tertiary study in leadership and management

(please specify): _____

☐ Other (please comment)

_____

_____

_____

☐ None

21. **How would you, in the main, rate your level of satisfaction with the professional development you have received in your role as an AP/DP/Associate Principal?**

Very High   High   Good   Poor   Very poor   Variable

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

_____

22. How would you rate your level of satisfaction with the opportunity and support you have received to undertake professional development in your role as an AP/DP/Associate Principal?

☐ Very High   High   Good   Poor   Very Poor

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

_____

23. Please comment if there have been any professional learning opportunities you would have liked to have participated in but did not have the support or means to undertake.

Comment:

_____

_____

____

24. If you have answered question 23 what support (or resources) would you have needed in order to participate?

Comment:

_____

MY CURRENT PROFESSIONAL ROLE

25. **How many permanent management units do you currently receive as remuneration for your role?**

PR3 or 4   PR5 or 6   PR7 or 8   ☐   PR9 or 10   ☐   PR 11+

26. **What percentage of your time each week would you spend on tasks involving compliance and paperwork? (eg. Correspondence, replying to emails and teacher queries, policies, reports, publications, health and safety, marketing, testimonials, emergency procedures etc)**

0-20%   21-40%   41-60%   ☐ 61-80%   ☐ >80%

27. **What percentage of your time each week would you spend on tasks involving interactions with, and the support of students? (eg. Teaching, student discipline, attendance, assemblies, grounds duty, co-curricular activities, relief, timetable and student subject changes, assessment and reporting, lost property etc)**

0-20%   21-40%   41-60%   ☐ 61-80%   ☐ >80%

28. **What percentage of your time would you spend supporting teachers and their practice in the classroom? (eg. facilitating professional development for staff, supervising and evaluating teachers, curriculum development, coordination and**

involvement in learning and teaching initiatives, promotion of evidence based practice, mentoring of staff, supporting provisionally registered teachers, etc.)

 0-20%   21-40%   41-60%   ☐ 61-80%   ☐ >80%

29. **Please comment on the input you have had in negotiating the roles and task responsibilities that you undertake as part of your leadership role.**

No input at all   Some aspects are negotiated   ☐ Reviewed and negotiated yearly

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

30. **Are there any constraints on your ability to carry out your leadership tasks and responsibilities to your full satisfaction?**

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

MY CAREER ASPIRATIONS IN EDUCATION

31. **Using the following categories please select the category which you believe currently best describes your situation** (please tick the box for your selected category and tick **only one** option)**:**

☐ I am actively seeking a principal's position.

☐ I have not yet applied for principalship but I intend to do so in the future.

☐ I have applied for principal positions in the past but am unsure if I will do so in the future.

☐ I have applied for principal positions in the past but do not intend to do so in the future.

☐ I have never applied for principalship and do not envisage doing so in the future.

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

32. **Irrespective of your answer to the above question, if you did apply for a principal's position today how would you rate your chances of being offered that position?**

Very High ☐   High ☐   Good ☐   Fair ☐   Poor ☐

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

JOB ATTRIBUTES & WORK FACTORS THAT DESCRIBE THE AP/DP POSITION

In the following section of the questionnaire please rate the impact of the following attributes, work factors and school context items on your level of satisfaction towards the AP/DP role.

1. **Attributes are defined as typical characteristics, qualities and opportunities inherent in the AP/DP role that individuals would measure in determining their satisfaction and motivation towards that position.**

2. **Work Factors are defined as the professional roles and challenges facing an AP/DP in completing their duties.**

3. **School Context Items are those aspects that are particular to the circumstance and environment of a school that individuals might evaluate in determining their levels of satisfaction in the AP/DP role.**

In completing this section please be aware that in using the scale **-2** indicates a strong negative influence, **0** no influence and **+2** a strong positive influence on your level of satisfaction in the AP/DP role). Choose the appropriate scale choice that best fits your answer for **each** question.

(You may use any scale choice more than once but only one choice per question).

Role Attributes of the AP/DP Position

	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
33. **The salary & remuneration of the position**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. **Further opportunities for career advancement as a result of working in the role**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. **Opportunity to lead the improvement of teaching & learning**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. **The experience of a wider leadership role in the school**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

37. **The collegial support of your senior**

    management colleagues   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

38. **The opportunity to be involved with**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

    a professional association

39. **Developing relationships between the school**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

    and the wider community

40. **The opportunity to experience personal &**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

    professional growth

41. **The opportunity to influence others**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

42. **Increased opportunities for attending**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

    conferences & professional learning

43. **The availability of holidays**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

44. **Flexible working hours and conditions**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

45. **The desire to make a difference in education**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

46. **The opportunity to innovate & contribute**   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

    to school development and change

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

<u>Work Factors that Impact on the AP/DP Position</u>

47. **Working an extended work day/hours** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

48. **Managing the day to day running of the school** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

49. **Facilitating the change management process** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

50. **Active involvement with the school community** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

   (eg. PTA, Whanua Group, BOTs))

51. **Negotiating and communicating with parents** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

52. **Balancing the demands of the position with** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

   family responsibilities

53. **Oversight of the timetable and student** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

   subject options

54. **Managing teacher relief** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

55. **Managing student behavioural issues** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

56. **Dealing with staff who do not comply with** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

   policies and directives

57. **Managing student pastoral care** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

58. **Teaching classes within the normal timetable** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

	-2	-1	0	+1	+2

59. **Facilitating/supporting learning initiatives in the school** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

60. **Undertaking MOE, student and staffing returns** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

61. **Dealing with complaints against teacher's** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

62. **Undertaking NZQA liaison and monitoring quality management systems** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

63. **Supporting provisionally registered teachers** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

64. **Facilitating National Curriculum developments** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

65. **Finding solutions to ethical dilemmas** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

66. **Completing general correspondence** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

67. **Facilitating professional development and promoting good teaching practice** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

68. **Carrying out teacher observation, evaluation & mentoring** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

69. **Ensuring student safety including oversight of the student use of buses and vehicles** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

70. **Management of grounds duty and litter** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

71 **Analysing, evaluating and discussing student achievement data with staff** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

72. **Involvement in the co-curricular and extra-curricular life of the school** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

73. **Oversight and facilitation of assemblies and student gatherings** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

74. **Supporting the review of policies and** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

and developing school procedures

75. **Active participation in strategic partnerships** ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ 287 ☐

   with outside providers

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

	-2	-1	0	+1	+2
School Context Items					
76. **The reputation of the school**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
77. **The decile rating of the school**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
78. **The enrolment size of school**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
79 **The School type (eg boys, girls, coed,**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
integrated, state, private)					
80. **The geographical location of the school**	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please comment if you wish:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

FINAL THOUGHTS

81. **Do you have any other thoughts you would like to share about your experiences as an Assistant/Deputy Principal in the secondary education system?**

Comment:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

82. Following on from the survey a small number of focus group interviews will be conducted regarding your experiences as an AP?DP. Please indicate if you would be **available to participate in** a focus group interview:

Yes   ☐

No   ☐

Thank you for taking the time to participate in this survey.

Massey University

Te Kunenga ki Pürehuroa

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Career AP/DPs: Asleep at the wheel or motivated drivers in education.

ADMINISTRATOR'S CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

Researcher: Mr Kevin Shore
                         Email: kshore@cullinane.school.nz

I …………………………………………………………………………………………..

(Full Name)

agree to keep confidential all information concerning the project

……………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………

………………… (Project Title)

I will not retain or copy any information involving the project.

Signature: _____   **Date**: _____

Massey University
Te Kunenga ki Pūrehuroa

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Career AP/DPs: Asleep at the wheel or motivated drivers in education

TRANSCRIBERS CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

Researcher: Mr Kevin Shore
                                       Email: kshore@cullinane.school.nz

I …………………………………………………………………………………..

(Full Name)

agree to transcribe the recordings 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.

Signed: _____   **Date**: _____

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Career AP/DPs: Asleep at the wheel or motivated drivers in education.

AUTHORITY FOR THE RELEASE OF TRANSCRIPTS

Researcher: Mr Kevin Shore
                                      Email: kshore@cullinane.school.nz

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

I agree that the edited transcript and extracts from this may be used in reports and publications arising from the research.

Signature: …………………………………   **Date: ……………….**

Full name – printed

………………………………………………………………………………….

APPENDIX F
Focus Group Interview Questions Guide

1. Welcome, overview of the topic and ground rules.

    Right, thanks for agreeing to be part of the interview. The interview has been done in order to follow up on areas that came to light in the first phase of the study (survey questionnaire). Your views may or may not end up being included in the study, however all participants can be assured that any comments they may make which are included in the study will be anonymous and participants and their school will not be able to be identified. The study is focused on career AP/DP's in order to profile them as a group and to then identify ways of supporting their professional learning and development and professional and career aspirations. The study also attempts to identify what particular aspects of the role provide high levels of job satisfaction and what are the particular challenges engaging in the leadership for learning role in a secondary school in New Zealand. I have five or six broad areas of questioning and in each of these areas will ask a few specific questions that were highlighted as points for clarification from the survey questionnaire which was phase one of the study. If you do not wish to answer any particular question please say so, it is entirely up to you.

2. Would you please introduce yourself giving your current role and school. This will also help the transcriber in terms of profiling voices etc.

3. **I am really interested in some aspects of your career history and I would like to ask a couple of questions about the transition from HOD to AP/DP.**
    - ➢ Please think back to your time as an HOD. What were the aspects of that role you enjoyed?
    - ➢ At what point did you make the decision to be an AP/DP and what were the reasons behind your decision?
    - ➢ How do you feel about the decision now?
    - ➢ What aspects of the role have encouraged you to remain in the AP/DP role?
    - ➢ What are the reasons behind your decision not to pursue a principalship? (Look for insights to explore).

4. **The survey suggests that for career AP/DPs the support of others has been crucial in encouraging them in their journey to senior leadership.**
    - ➢ Who were these significant others and what did they do to encourage you to apply for your first AP/DP position?
    - ➢ How have your principal/principals and senior management colleagues supported you in your role as an AP/DP?
    - ➢ In what ways have your senior management colleagues/principal impacted on your levels of job satisfaction? Do you feel strongly connected to your leadership teams?

5 **The next questions investigate how well you consider you have been supported in developing the leadership skills needed as an AP/DP?**

- ➢ How prepared for your first AP/DP position did you feel on your first day in the role?
- ➢ What professional development opportunities do you believe would have supported you in developing your leadership role?
- ➢ What aspects or obstacles have held you back from participating in professional development opportunities?
- ➢ How important do you feel it is to undertake tertiary study in educational leadership? – (could ask a question on mentoring if it does not come up.)

6 **I am really interested in your opinions regarding how your responsibilities impact on your ability to carry out leadership in terms of teaching and learning in your school?**

- ➢ To what extent do you get satisfaction from the compliance (paperwork, QA) and pastoral aspects of your job? This has historically been an area of frustration and dissatisfaction for many.
- ➢ What aspects of the pastoral role have changed over the last ten years for AP/DPs and have these led to improvements in managing this role?
- ➢ What aspects of your leadership role in supporting teaching and learning (pedagogical and curriculum leadership) do you find most satisfying?
- ➢ What, if anything, would you like to see changed if you had the opportunity to restructure your position?

7 **Reflecting upon your time in the role as an AP/DP please describe what aspects of the role have given you the most satisfaction?**

- ➢ Why do you believe your role in supporting and working with teachers in your school provides AP/DPs with so much satisfaction?
- ➢ What is it about working with teacher colleagues regarding complaints about their practice that AP/DPs find so challenging?
- ➢ In what ways principals been a positive influence in your professional lives as an AP/DP?
- ➢ How important is the reputation of the school regarding your levels of satisfaction? (career AP/DPs generally in lower decile schools and on less management units)

8 Closing Questions (if time allows)

- ➢ What would encourage you to consider applying for another AP/DP role if an opportunity came up?
- ➢ Is there any hot topic that did not come up that you would like to cover?

Massey University

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Career AP/DPs: Asleep at the wheel or motivated driver in education.

FOCUS INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET

Researcher: Mr Kevin Shore   Research Supervisors: Dr. Marian Court
                          Email: kshore@cullinane.school.nz   Professor Margaret
          Walshaw

Kevin Shore is the current Principal at Cullinane College and served as an AP/DP from 1995 to 2010. He is currently enrolled in the EdD programme at Massey University and is focusing his study on issues of educational leadership.

Nau mai, haere mai. You are warmly invited to contribute to this study of those individuals who serve as assistant/deputy principals in our secondary schools in New Zealand. This study was initiated due to the apparent lack of attention paid in the academic literature to the unique professional life of the AP/DP and their contribution to the educational effectiveness in the schools in which they serve.

The purpose of this study is to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the perspectives and professional needs of AP/DPs and, in particular, those individuals who consider themselves career AP/DPs. The study will explore perceptions of AP/DPs about the nature of their current role including its professional challenges and satisfactions, what kinds of support they receive in undertaking this role and their perceptions of the leadership outcomes that result from their influence on the schools in which they serve.

How can you help? You were involved in phase one of this study in completing a survey questionnaire. You indicated in your completed survey questionnaire that you are willing to participate in the second phase of the study involving a focus interview. Hence, I am contacting you to invite you to participate in this aspect of the study.

What is a focus group interview?
The focus interview is a group interview. It is felt that this encourages a greater depth of conversation as it is easier to get at what people actually think in a social context where the participants hear the views of others and consider their own views accordingly. Each focus interview (and there will be four separate groups in different geographical locations) will have between 4 to 8 AP/DPs (identified through the survey questionnaire as career AP/DPs). The focus group interview will start with broad questions which become increasingly more specific as the interview progresses.

What will you, as a participant, have to do?
You will be asked to respond to questions concerning your role as an AP/DP in both your current and previous schools. Your responses will be recorded on tape, provided you give your consent to this. These will be transcribed by a research assistant who has signed a confidentiality agreement.

The interview will take approximately one hour (refreshments will be supplied to keep energy levels up). Once a draft report has been completed you will be asked to check it for accuracy and acceptability.

What can the participants expect from the researchers?
If you take part in this phase of the study, you have a right to:
- ➢ Refuse to answer any particular question, and to withdraw from the study at any time.
- ➢ Ask any further questions about the study that occur to you during your participation.
- ➢ Provide information on the understanding that it is completely confidential to the researcher. All information collected is coded for anonymity, and it will not be possible to identify you in any reports that are prepared for the study.
- ➢ View the accuracy of the transcription of the interview and request any changes to statements that might be attributed to you.
- ➢ Ask for the audio tape to be turned off at any time during the interview.
- ➢ Request a subsequent individual interview with the researcher should you wish to make further comment regarding points raised in the focus interview.
- ➢ Be given a summary of the findings from the study when it is concluded.

If you have any questions about the study or the focus group interview then please contact me using the contact details provided in this information sheet.

"This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern A, Application 10/26. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Professor Julie Boddy, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Southern A telephone 06 350 5799 x 2541, email humanethicssoutha@massey.ac.nz<mailto: humanethicssoutha@massey.ac.nz>"

APPENDIX H

Te Kunenga ki Pūrehuroa

Assistant/Deputy Principalship
Career AP/DPs: Asleep at the wheel or motivated driver in education.

FOCUS Group Participant Consent Form

Researcher: Mr Kevin Shore
                                        Email: kshore@cullinane.school.nz

I have read the Information Sheet and have had 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 not to disclose anything discussed in the Focus Group.

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

Signature: …………………………………………   Date: …………………

Full Name ……………………………………………………………………….