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THE LEADERSHIP ROLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS DEPARTMENT HEADS AT TWO GOVERNMENT SCHOOLS IN BELIZE

by

Ethel Mae Arzu Hernandez

A dissertation submitted to the Department of Leadership, School Counseling, and Sports Management in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Educational Leadership

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH FLORIDA

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND HUMAN SERVICES

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DEDICATION

To my God, my light, my provider, my source of strength, and support: thank you for your divine interventions and for keeping me in your amazing Grace. I dedicate this work to my son, Robert Stedman Hernandez, Jr., whose love kept my feet firmly on the ground. I also dedicate this work to my parents, Mildred and Pablo Arzu. You taught me the value of hard work and the importance of education, and you loved, encouraged, and supported me all the way through.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize. Seven participants participated in the study and data regarding their perceptions of their leadership roles were collected through open-ended semi-structured interviews. Relevant sections from Belizean education documents were purposefully selected based on their relevance to the study. Documents were used to enrich the interview data.

Three data analysis strategies—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998)—were used in the study. Discussion of the analysis was based on the following three themes: (a) build instructional capacity, (b) increase learning opportunities for students, and (c) provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education. The themes are perspectives from which to view and understand the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize.

Three major conclusions resulted from this study. One, secondary school department heads at the two government schools in Belize are school leaders whose multifaceted role includes myriad duties, responsibilities, and obligations. Two, department heads are street-level bureaucrats who implement and enforce policies and regulations through their classroom routines and the decisions they make. Three, policymakers, school management, and department heads need to invest in sustained professional training and development activities that are specifically designed for department heads. Implications for policy and practice include the need to establish minimum professional selection criteria for the role of department heads, expand the capacity of teacher training institutions, and foster a culture that supports and nurtures shared instructional leadership and learning among department heads.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Multiple accountability sources have made the principal's role increasingly complex as the nature of society, political expectations, and schools have changed (Valentine & Prater, 2011). Considering the varied and complex nature of the principal's role, instructional leadership cannot be the sole responsibility of one person. In fact, it is unrealistic to expect any school principal to know everything about leading complex organizations like schools (Hook, 2006; Spillane, 2006). The large size of many secondary schools and the variety of programs they offer are simply too overwhelming for the time available to principals even if they have the necessary skills.

Valentine and Prater (2011) postulated that transformational forms of leadership encourage secondary school principals to seek competent teachers who can become teacher leaders. Although this seems encouraging, sharing decisions and developing instructional leadership roles in others create ambiguity about authority and accountability (Schmidt, 2000). Nonetheless, within the most effective schools, instructional leadership arguably extends beyond the principal and administrative team. Gupton's (2003) work corroborated this reality. Gupton recommended that principals and teachers work as partners to provide instructional leadership to the school. The principal needs others to assist with the responsibility of instructional leadership (Hoy & Hoy, 2006). Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) concurred and asserted that teachers have important roles to play as instructional leaders in schools.

Although the research literature described school principals as instructional leader (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Blase & Blase, 2004; Hallinger, 2005; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Mangin, 2007;

Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Sergiovanni, 1984; Zepeda, 2003), Marks and Printy (2003) contended that instructional leadership occurs with teachers who are competent, professional, and empowered. Guthrie and Schuermann (2010), Little (2000), and Marsh (2000) agreed and confirmed that teachers who are knowledgeable, have expertise, and exercise collaborative leadership shared that instructional leadership role. Heads of departments also fit that description.

In Belize, the *Education Amendment Rules* (ER), a policy document, governs roles and responsibilities for teachers. The ER requires department heads to provide educational leadership to the school in the areas of pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment, as well as fulfill the following requirements:

a) Plan, implement, and review the department's curriculum within the framework of new academic policies and practices relating to student's assessment, textbooks, and other materials, conduct clinical supervision of teachers in their respective departments including teaching, student assessment, and classroom management practices.

b) Liaise with the principal and vice–principals(s) and teachers on matters and non-matters relating to the introduction of new academic policies and practices relating to student assessment, textbooks and other materials or teaching practices in the school or institution.

c) With respect to the department and school, identify staff development needs and coordinate staff development activities.

d) Assist the principal and vice principal(s) in organizing the participation of students in inter- and intra-school events and activities, which contribute to the overall development of the students.

e) Teach, as may be required. (Ministry of Education, 2012a, pp. 41-42)

The list of responsibilities assigned to department heads in Belize suggests that their leadership is significant in influencing instructional leadership and curricular support. Therefore, the leadership that high school department heads provide could be critical to teachers' well-being, quality of teaching and learning, and student achievement (Kuhlemeier & van den Bergh, 2000). Thus, to produce substantive information for policymakers, it is imperative to document, illuminate, and understand the leadership practices of secondary school department heads in Belize. Policymakers could use the information to contribute to the enhancement of the educational process and the improvement of the Belizean education system.

A search for empirical studies on school leadership in Belize resulted in no studies that specifically addressed the roles of secondary school department heads. Therefore, the findings from this study could lead to a better understanding of how department heads fulfill their leadership roles in Belize. The findings could also contribute to the discussion on school effectiveness and school improvement by describing the roles of secondary school department heads, particularly when there is interest in the quality of instruction that occurs at the secondary school level. Given the current climate for high school reform in Belize and the Ministry of Education's interest in improving leadership at all levels of the Belizean education system, the timing is favorable for examining the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize.

Country Background

Belize, a former British colony, is bordered to the north by Mexico, the east by the Caribbean Sea, and south and west by Guatemala. Belize is the only English-speaking country in Central America. Although English is the official language, it is not the native language of the students. In fact, a report by the Ministry of Education (2012b) indicated that fewer than one in every 25 Belizeans have English as their mother tongue. Yet, English is the language of instruction in all educational institutions in Belize.

The Belize education system embraces a church-state partnership. Under this partnership, the Government of Belize, through the Ministry of Education (MOE), develops policies, curricula, and standards, administers national examinations; trains teachers; and pays 100% of teachers' salaries, except in government aided high schools and junior colleges. On the other hand, churches supervise the general administration and management of schools that they own (Crossley, 2001). This system of education dates back to 1931 when denominational churches such as Anglicans, Roman Catholics, Methodists, and Baptists financed education in what was then the colony of British Honduras (Hitchen, 2000). The British reluctance and neglect to invest in education allowed churches to maintain larger control of the education system when compared to the rest of the British Caribbean. The Ministry of Education report (2012b) stated that while the church-state partnership was an effective way of cost sharing, it lacked accountability and proper monitoring of school performance. This lack of accountability has thwarted genuine effort to improve the quality of education in Belize.

Belize is a member of the Commonwealth Caribbean. Within the Commonwealth Caribbean, secondary schools follow the British model of secondary education. Most Caribbean countries have a five-year model of secondary education, that is, from Grade 8 to Grade 11. For

example, in Dominica, the secondary school system has two levels—a junior and a senior division (Jules & Panneflek, 2000). The junior division is for students who are between 12 and 14 years old and enroll in Form 1 to Form 3. The second cycle, the senior division, provides for students who are 14 years and older and who enroll in Form 4 to Form 5. Belize developed differently. Secondary education in Belize is composed of a four-year system (Form 1 to Form 4), which is the equivalent of Grade 9 to Grade 12 in the United States.

Belize has 51 secondary schools, of which 15 are fully government funded, 25 are government aided, and 11 are private or specially assisted (Ministry of Education, 2008). In 2008, the Ministry of Education indicated that among 1,272 secondary school teachers in Belize, 378, which represented 29.7% of the total teacher population, were trained. The total secondary school student population was 17,615 and represented 84.7% of primary school graduates who transitioned to high school. However, repetition and dropout rates are high. As a result, enrollment remains low. Belize's high school enrollment rate is the lowest in Central America and the Caribbean (Ministry of Education, 2008).

Throughout the Caribbean, students complete the British "Ordinary" and "Advanced" level of General Certificate of Education Examination (GCE). However, the British examinations have been replaced with the Caribbean Secondary Examination Certificate (CSEC; Hickling-Hudson, 2004). According to Hickling-Hudson (2004), CSEC and its different approaches to assessment are now more relevant to the Caribbean context than they were years ago. The syllabi produced by the Caribbean Examination Council (CXC) for Caribbean students determine the secondary school curriculum. Thus, after four years of high school in Belize, or five years in other Caribbean countries, students take the test for CSEC. Taking the CSEC examination is not mandatory. Hickling-Hudson explained that the examination fees for each

subject are very costly so that not all students can afford them. Additionally, examination standards are high and protocols are laborious. As a result, only very experienced teachers who teach at the CSEC level and those in schools that have resources provided for those examinations can adequately prepare students (Hickling-Hudson, 2004).

Statement of the Problem

Extant research on the leadership role of secondary school department heads in the British and United States literature showed that leadership provided by department heads is important for the enhancing the curriculum and for improving teaching quality and learning (Brown & Rutherford, 1998; Dinham, 2005, 2007; Poultney, 2007; Sergiovanni, 1984; Wettersten, 1992). However, other research indicated that department heads often lack adequate professional development to execute their roles effectively (Adey, 2000; Brown, Boyle, & Boyle, 2002; Harris, Busher, & Wise, 2011; Weller, 2001). Furthermore, research showed ambiguity in the duties and responsibilities of department heads (Gold, 1998; Mayers & Zepeda, 2002; Mercer & Ri, 2006; Schmidt, 2000; Wise, 2001). For example, Zepeda and Kruskamp (2007) and Schmidt (2000) observed a difference between how middle managers perceived their actual responsibilities and what they wished those responsibilities were. Similarly, Collier, Dinham, Brennan, Deece, and Mulford (2002) found a huge discrepancy between the realities of the position and the department heads' expectations. Additionally, Collier et al. discovered that department heads desired to redefine and clarify their roles.

In secondary schools in Belize, department heads provide leadership to schools in the areas of pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment (Ministry of Education, 2012a). Yet, significant differences exist in the ways department heads provide leadership within the same school and among the same subjects in different schools. Considering the importance of department heads' leadership to positively influence the quality of instruction that occurs at the secondary school level, it was important to examine and understand the leadership roles of the department

heads. Understanding department heads' perceptions of their leadership role and acquiring insight into how they understand their role are critical to the process of planning sustained and continuous professional development designed to familiarize department heads with the full scope of their role.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize, using qualitative methods to collect and analyze data regarding the roles of department heads. The results of the present study contribute to the discussion of school effectiveness and school improvement by describing the roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. These results were especially timely because at the time of the present study, the Belizean education system was being fundamentally reformed.

Research Questions

This research study addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize?
2. How do secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize perceive and describe their role as instructional leaders?

Definition of Terms

Commonwealth Caribbean countries*:* Colonized British Commonwealth independent countries and territories. These are Caribbean countries and territories with strong cultural and historical connections to slavery, European colonization, and the plantation system.

Formal role*:* Refers to the expectations that others hold for the behavior of individuals who occupy legitimate position. Statute or ordinance governs the expectations for the behavior of individuals in those positions (Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010).

Government-aided School*:* A school in receipt of a grant in aid from the government of Belize (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Government schools*:* Schools owned by the government and maintained wholly by general revenue (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Heads of departments*:* Teacher-leaders whose department has one or more related discipline and no less than five teachers. Department heads provide educational leadership in the areas of pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment in their specific academic areas (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Informal role: An unofficial role whereby the expectations for behaviors of individuals who occupy the position are not governed by statute or ordinance (Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010).

Instructional leadership*:* The coordination and supervision of curriculum and instruction (Sergiovanni, 1984).

Junior college: Post-secondary institutions in Belize of which a program of study leads to an associate degree.

Secondary schools/high schools: Schools recognized by the Ministry of Education and Youth in Belize as providing education and training suited to the ages, abilities, and aptitudes of students between the ages of 12 and 18 (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Role theory*:* The relationship between organizational context and leadership behavior (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004), which revolves around a triad of concepts including role, social position, and expectation (Biddle, 1986).

Vocational-technical education*:* Pre-vocational and vocational programs for the development of technical, vocational, and entrepreneurial skills at the secondary level that

may include subjects such as woodwork, metalwork, technical drawing, and clothing and textiles (Ministry of Education, 2003).

Significance of the Study

The present study examined the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize and is significant for several reasons. First, although limited to Belizean secondary schools, the results of study provide valuable information to facilitate improvement of instruction throughout the Belizean education system. Second, the results of the study contribute to the discussion on school effectiveness and school improvement by describing the roles of secondary school department heads. Third, the results of the study augment the literature on school leadership in Belize. Fourth, the study contributes to a knowledge base for future studies on the secondary school department heads in Belize. Fifth, the study provides valuable information on how department heads provide leadership within their subject areas. Lastly, the study provides valuable information for practice, policy development and implementation, professional training and development, and a system of support for department heads.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made for the purpose of this study:

1. Heads of departments are cognizant of their duties and responsibilities as mandated by the education rules set forth in the *Handbook of Policy and Procedures for Schools Services*.
2. Department heads are forthright in responding to the semi-structured open-ended interviews.
3. Department heads assume leadership roles, and their perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors are representative of the behaviors they exhibit.
4. Partisan politics in Belize influence the ways that department heads define and perform their roles.

Summary and Organization of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize. The study is organized into five chapters, and each chapter concludes with a brief summary. Chapter 1 discussed the introduction and background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, definition of terms, significance of the study, and assumptions of the study. Chapter 2 includes a review of related literature and an explanation of the theoretical framework that guided the study. Chapter 3 describes the research methodology and includes a description of the study setting, the sampling strategy, participants' profile, development of the interview protocol, and data collection and management procedures. The chapter also addresses credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the study, as well as the organization, management, and analysis of the data, the researcher as a tool, ethical considerations, and finally delimitations and limitations of the study. Chapter 4 provides a detailed description of the data analysis process and a discussion of the results. Chapter 5 summarizes the study and details several conclusions. The chapter also presents implications for policy and practice and offers recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize. This chapter provides a brief overview of secondary education in Belize and continues with a discussion of the department heads' leadership role, teacher leadership, professional development, and the importance of instructional supervision. Additionally, the theoretical framework that guided the study is discussed. This chapter ends with a brief summary.

Secondary Education in Belize

A World Bank report (2005) describes secondary education as the highway between primary schooling, tertiary education, and the labor market. Thus, for more than 150 years, Commonwealth Caribbean countries have organized secondary education on the premise that it extends beyond the primary level (Miller, 2009). The rationale is that secondary education creates more opportunities for those whose informed citizenry is crucial to a country's social and economic growth. Miller explained that despite this recognition, the education strategy in the Commonwealth Caribbean has given less attention to secondary education than primary education. The World Bank Report reveals that after a period of historical neglect, secondary education has become a worldwide focus of policy debate and analysis.

Providing young people with quality secondary education is one of the best investments a country can make (Sultana, 2010) because secondary education provides the abilities and life skills that young people need in order to become contributing and productive members of society (World Bank, 2005). Thus, an affordable high school should be within the reach of every Belizean child. A report by the Ministry of Education (MOE; 2012b) proposed that high schools in Belize should have a teaching force whereby certified and competent teachers are the norm,

and not the exception. Furthermore, each child should have qualified teachers who use high-quality curricula, appropriate teaching methods and materials, and multiple forms of assessments to deliver and evaluate instruction in the Belizean classrooms.

Similar to other Caribbean countries such as Jamaica and Dominica (Jules & Panneflek, 2000), Belize's MOE has embarked on a nationwide secondary education reform under the following theme: "Education Finance Reform: It's Fair. It's Time" (Ministry of Education, 2010). The ministry's goal is to improve access, equity, quality, and efficiency at the secondary level. The MOE reform initiative implies that the ministry recognizes that primary school education is insufficient to overcome the poverty and ills of the Belizean society. The reform initiative also suggests that the ministry acknowledges that Belize's economic growth and development could be significantly undermined if education is below standards, and that social justice demands that those students who have been served the least by the education system need more assistance. However, King (2009) warned individuals not to undertake reform and refinement for the sake of change, but instead to have explicit indications of the expected outcomes. King's warning suggests that the MOE must make a critical analysis of the bases upon which it expands secondary education.

In August 2000, Belize's MOE introduced new legislation that required all elementary and secondary school teachers to have a license to teach. Still, many high school teachers do not have the qualifications to teach the subject areas assigned (Thompson, 2008), and a substantial number still do not possess the necessary professional qualifications (Ministry of Education, 2012b). This lack of qualification poses a significant threat to the quality of instruction that occurs at the high school level.

A World Bank report (2005) indicated that many countries have a shortage of qualified secondary school teachers. Belize is no exception. The MOE (2012b) revealed that the Belizean education system had too many unqualified teachers and that fewer than one in three secondary school teachers were trained. This shortage may be caused by the education strategy in the Commonwealth Caribbean where secondary education has received less attention than primary education (Miller, 2009). In fact, the last major project in Belize that emphasized teacher education was the Belize Primary Education Development Project (Thompson, 2008), which was funded by The World Bank from 1992-1999 under the theme "Improving Quality in the Provision of Education for All in Belize."

The norm in Belize whereby junior college graduates enter the teaching profession and teach for several years prior to obtaining the necessary teacher qualifications could also be a contributing factor to the chronic shortage of trained teachers. Undoubtedly, those teachers gained experience and knowledge about instructional practices and classroom management strategies that work and do not work. Although that may be true, lack of professional training, support, and a comprehensive framework for developing competent teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2010) could lead to misconceptions about instruction (Eggen & Kauchak, 2010; Nelson & Sassi, 2000; Thompson, 2008). The research literature suggested that teachers need support as well as purposeful continuous professional development to increase their competencies, knowledge, and skills to help all students learn (Bak & Onn, 2010; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Kwang, 2001; Hochberg, & Desimone, 2010; Robinson & Timperley, 2007). In Belize, the MOE is cognizant of this need and has acknowledged the importance of professional training and development in order to improve school leaders' competencies.

Leadership Role of the Department Head

Although a wealth of literature on the role of the school principals as instructional leaders was found (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Blase & Blase, 2000; Hallinger, 2003, 2005; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; McEwan, 2003; Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Sergiovanni, 1984; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Weber, 1989), literature on the role of secondary school department heads as instructional leaders was sparse. Highlighted in the British and United States literature were studies on the roles and views of secondary schools department heads (Adey, 2000; Bennett, Woods, Wise, & Newton, 2007; Brown et al., 2002; Brown & Rutherford, 1998; Collier et al., 2002; Dinham, 2007; Flectcher-Campbell, 2003; Harris et al., 2011; Jarvis, 2008; Poultney, 2007; Schmidt, 2000; Weller, 2001; Wise, 2001). In the available research on school leadership in Belize, no empirical studies on the leadership roles of secondary school department heads was found. What was found were studies on other aspects of school leadership, for example, *Instructional Leadership in Belizean Elementary Schools* (Babb, 2012), *Instructional Leadership and Student Achievement in Belizean Secondary Schools* (Cayetano, 2011), and *School Leadership in Belize: The Interrelationships of Context, Cognitive Frames, and Leader Characteristics* (Hodge, 2003).

In Belize, secondary school department heads provide leadership to schools in the areas of pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment (Ministry of Education, 2012a). As stipulated in the *Education Amendment Rules*, department heads in Belize monitor student assessment, teachers' classroom management practices, and conduct clinical supervision of teachers in their departments. Yet, a report by the MOE (2012b) revealed that training in school leadership is not offered in Belize. This is perhaps one of the reasons why policymakers in the MOE asserted that leadership at all levels of the education system is weak and is reflected more heavily at the

school level. Cognizant of the role that effective leaders play in driving school improvement efforts, policymakers in the MOE have embarked on several initiatives to improve the quality and governance of education in Belize. One of those initiatives, *The Quality Child Friendly School Initiative* (QCFSI), as described in the MOE report (2012b), targets school leadership. The aim of the initiative is to strengthen school leadership and management for school effectiveness by increasing autonomy, responsibility, and accountability at the school levels.

In most secondary schools, academic vice-principals, department heads, or teachers share instructional leadership. For example, Wettersten (1992) found that the chairs in his study shared responsibilities of instructional leadership such as developing, reviewing, and improving curriculum and instruction within their academic discipline. Wettersten's results were consistent with the role of instructional leader as described by Weber (1989). Furthermore, Wettersten discovered that principals and administrators delegated responsibilities for instructional leadership to their chairs. Wettersten observed that chairs had autonomy to make decisions about curriculum, instruction, and departmental issues. Like Glickman (1981), Wettersten (1992) concluded that the school principal was not the instructional leader but the coordinator of teachers as instructional leaders instead.

Research on the role of secondary school department heads has illustrated that department heads occupy key linking positions between principals and classroom teachers (Dinham, 2005; Mayers & Zepeda, 2002; Sergiovanni, 1984). Additionally, research has shown that department heads shared instructional leadership with school administrators (Collier et al., 2002; Flectcher-Campbell, 2003; Little, 2000; Lomos, Hofman, & Bosker, 2011) and played a significant role in instructional leadership and curricular support (Bak & Onn, 2010; Dinham, 2007; Harris et al., 2011; Wise, 2011). For example, Collier et al. (2002) found that department heads collaborated

with others and described themselves as experienced curriculum or subject specialists. Collier et al. also discovered that department heads were influential in affecting educational matters within and outside the boundaries of their departments. However, Poultney (2007) reported that the concept of subject leadership was questionable and debatable, and De Lima (2008) observed that the attention given to the department heads' position to affect educational change could be exaggerated. Nevertheless, De Lima affirmed that departmental leadership remained a critical feature of departmental culture. Scholars found that departmental leadership was influential in promoting student achievement and teachers' professional growth (Dinham, 2007; Harris et al., 2011; Kuhlemeier & van den Bergh, 2000). Ghamrawi (2010) agreed and contended that by creating departmental cultures, subject leaders build a sense of collegiality, as well as a collective sense of responsibility for students' learning. However, Blegen and Kennedy (2000) advised that if schools were to provide the kind of culture necessary for student and adult success, schools needed to explore avenues that support and nurture teacher leadership

Teacher Leadership

Frost and Durrant (2003) and Hook (2006) described teacher leadership as a response to the need for an increase in school leadership, school effectiveness, and school improvement. However, the goal and definition of teacher leadership vary and often lead to confusion (Muijs & Harris, 2003). Perhaps, a common understanding of teacher leadership is yet to be developed because teacher leaders have a diverse set of responsibilities that are contextual (Danielson, 2006; Donaldson, 2004; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Searby & Shaddix, 2008). Despite the lack of a clear definition for teacher leadership, multiple views about teacher leaders and teacher leadership are documented in the research literature.

Research on teacher leadership has suggested that teacher leaders are knowledgeable about teaching and learning and work toward the continuous improvement of instruction and increased student achievement (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Barth, 2001; Birky, Shelton, & Headley, 2006; Danielson, 2006; Donaldson, 2004; Emira, 2010; Frost & Durrant, 2003; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Hook, 2006; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstron, 2004; Lieberman & Miller, 2004; Little, 2000; Marks & Printy, 2003; Searby & Shaddix, 2008; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). For example, Little (2000) observed that teacher leaders promote colleagiality, support risk-taking and experimentation, participate in whole school decision-making, advice and assist teachers, as well as observe teachers' classroom practices. Emira (2010) pointed out that teacher leaders supervise teachers, mentor novices, and collaborate with colleagues. Additionally, research on teacher leadership indicated that teacher leadership was about courage, risk taking, perseverance, enthusiasm, and trust (Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; Ghamrawi, 2010; Grant, 2006). Teacher leadership was also about strengthening classroom practices, encouraging teacher ownership in the change process, and engaging in collegiality for mutual learning (Day & Harris, 2003; Hook, 2006; Little, 2000). Helterbran (2008) noted that when teacher leaders modeled collegiality and learning, they increased and strengthened their repertoire of knowledge, inspired confidence in teachers, and provided a rich opportunity to build and nurture trustworthy relationships with colleagues.

Teacher leaders' capability to model learning and collegiality influences their ability to lead and impacts the quality of relationships in schools (Anderson, 2004; Barth, 2001; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Muijs & Harris, 2003; Witcher, 2001). Similar to these authors, Donaldson (2004) acknowledged that teacher leaders are capable of developing, nurturing, and strengthening fruitful relationships among their peers. This is probably why 58.8% of the

respondents in Wise's (2001) study reported that middle managers' leadership was more important than senior managers. Similarly, all participants in Ghamrawi's (2010) study stated that the subject leadership role was more important than senior leadership. In studies conducted by Wise (2001) and Ghamrawi (2010), two possible reasons for the importance of teacher leaders were suggested. First, teacher leaders concentrated on teaching and learning, not organizational issues. Second, teacher leaders were excellent and experienced teachers who were respected by their colleague. Of course, years of experience and excellence in teaching contribute to instructional expertise and competency, which are both critical factors for teacher leadership. As explained by Angelle and DeHart (2011) and York-Barr and Duke (2004), expertise and competency enhance credibility among peers, which often lead to the creation of a professional working environment.

Teacher leaders assist others and in the process experience professional growth, which occurs because of their interaction and engagement in leadership activities (Barth, 2001; Glickman, Gordon, & Gordon, 2011). However, teacher leaders' professional growth cannot come to fruition unless a positive relationship among teacher leaders, peers, and the school principal exist. Furthermore, teacher leaders' professional growth is dependent on a school culture where cooperation, encouragement, recognition, respect, success, trust, and empowerment are the norms (Danielson, 2004; Muijs & Harris, 2007). Hence, the effectiveness of teacher leadership largely depends on shared norms and values. Although shared norms and values contribute to teacher leaders' professional growth and development, they also create obstacles that inhibit the effectiveness of teacher leadership.

Barriers to Teacher Leadership

Little (2000) pointed out that schools improve their performances by retaining skillful and capable teachers. However, improvement and retention occur when schools promote teacher leadership and invest in the development of strong and competent teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Little, 2000). Still, barriers exist which hinder the support and effectiveness of teacher leaders (Helterbran, 2008; Wynne, 2001). Helterbran (2008) and Wynne (2001) explained that overcoming those barriers is crucial in encouraging, sustaining, and supporting teacher leaders.

Barriers that hinder the effectiveness of teacher leaders vary. According to Helterbran (2008) and Wynne (2001), those barriers include school schedules, lack of principals' support, the level of collaboration and interaction among colleagues, as well as unrelated instructional behaviors. Time, which may inhibit teachers from taking initiatives to lead, hierarchal structures, and peers' resistance also hinder the development of teacher leaders (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; Hook, 2006; Little, 2000; McEwan, 2003; Wynne, 2001). Helterbran (2008) and York-Barr and Duke (2004) reported that collegiality may also impede the development of teacher leaders because some teachers are intimidated by the expertise and behaviors of their peers. As a result, York-Barr and Duke proposed that collegial norm did not necessarily extend to teacher leaders.

Acheson and Gall (2010) observed that when peers are in formal leadership positions, trust becomes an issue, and teachers feel abandoned. As a result, teachers resist their peers' leadership. Trust matters. Therefore, developing trustworthy relationships must be embedded in the school culture. Where there was a lack of trust, principals often felt threatened by teachers' autonomy and leadership roles and were unwilling to renounce authority over many important

decisions for which they have traditionally been responsible (Barth, 2001; Birky et al., 2006). The research literature addresses the impact that trustworthiness and collegiality have on school improvement and change (Bennett et al., 2007; Gupton, 2003; Helterbran, 2008; York- Barr & Duke, 2004). Child-Bowens, Moller, and Scribner (2000) and Gupton (2003) reiterated the importance of nurturing collegial relationships. Gupton explained that because organization processes are more complex than ever before, administrators and teachers must work collaboratively as colleagues for leadership to be effective. As a result, Gupton advised administrators and teachers to combine their repertoire of skills, knowledge, and experiences for the success of the organization. Childs-Bowen et al. emphasized that school success abounds when principals and teachers work collaboratively.

Principals' Support for Teacher Leadership

Several studies have described the school principal as the cornerstone in creating and fostering an environment in which teacher leadership can be cultivated (Blase & Blase, 2004; Danielson, 2006; Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; Parker & Leithwood, 2000; Searby & Shaddix, 2008). In 2004, Blase and Blase found that principals acknowledged the nature of collaborative networking among educators. Accordingly, collaborative networking was essential for successful teaching and learning. Blase and Blase observed that principals modeled a philosophy of teamwork, used departmental structures, provided planning time, and encouraged teachers to observe each other's instructional performance. Based on effective school principals' practices, Blase and Blase concluded that principals promoted school wide collaboration to support professional growth and development and to acknowledge that teachers were a source of knowledge.

In 2000, Parker and Leithwood studied five schools that exhibited varying degrees of teacher leadership. Like Blase and Blase (2004), Parker and Leithwood found that building and nurturing a collaborative relationship among teachers was very essential to principals who were effective. Parker and Leithwood also discovered that principals displayed excellent communication skills, enthusiasm, as well as a keen sense of appreciation for teachers. The principals' behaviors suggested that principals supported teacher leadership because they regarded teacher leadership as a fundamental aspect and purpose of schools (Barth, 2001).

School principals play a strategic role in promoting effective teacher leadership (Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2004; Little, 2000; Mayers & Zepeda, 2002). For example, scholars have found that school principals encourage risk taking, support teachers even when the situation diverged from the norm, foster a culture of collaboration among teachers, as well as create an environment that support shared vision (Barth, 2001; Danielson, 2006; Donaldson, 2004; Grant, 2006). Senge (2006) recommended that organizations create a shared vision because a shared vision provides the focus that organizations need, fosters risk taking, and creates a common identity. Senge's recommendation is applicable to schools because schools are learning organizations. Frost and Durrant (2003), Glickman et al. (2011), and Little (2000) further recommended that to promote effective teacher leadership in today's complex school environment, increased teacher participation in decision-making and opportunities for teachers to lead school improvement efforts will be required

Even with plans and expectations in place to promote effective teacher leadership, no guarantee exists for teacher leadership to flourish. This is not to imply that teachers are incapable of becoming effective leaders (Muijs & Harris, 2007). The literature shows that leadership can be learned (Northouse, 2013) through specific forms of professional development

aimed at equipping teachers to lead effectively (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Brown et al., 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Helterbran, 2008; Robinson, 2010). Furthermore, leadership skills and abilities can be strengthened and improved if teachers have positive role models and receive feedback about their work (Eggen & Kauchak, 2010; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Wilen, Ishler, Hutchison, Kindsvatter, 2004).

Existing literature shows that school principals are the greatest influence and support for teacher leadership, and the reverse is also true (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Birky et al., 2006; Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; Mangin, 2007; Scribner & Bradley-Levine, 2010). In their study, Birky et al. discovered that teachers were inspired to fulfill leadership roles because their adminstrator trusted and supported them. On the other hand, others were discouraged from participating in leadership activities because support from adminstration was lacking. In view of this, Barth (2001) advised principals to be confident in their ability to lead so they could encourage and support teacher leadership. Studies have shown that when leadership includes teachers and when principals support teacher leadership, genuine and sustain changes occur (Child-Bowens et al., 2000; Grant, 2006). Grant emphasized that sustained changes produce a collaborative culture in which sound teaching and learning develop.

In 1992, Wettersten studied a group of high school department chairs and found that principals gave them autonomy with which to make decisions in their departments about curriculum, instruction, and department issues. Perhaps teachers who participated in decision-making about school reform, including curriculum issues, assessment, and instruction had a strong sense of empowerment (Glickman et al., 2011). This was probably one of the reasons why 85% of the respondents in Weller's (2001) study wanted to be more involved in the decision-making process. Glickman et al. (2011) affirmed that instructional improvement occurs when

teachers participate in decision-making especially about issues that affect what transpires inside their classroom. In this manner, teachers become committed, feel a sense of ownership, and more than likely follow through with decisions. Leithwood et al. (2004) attested that teachers earned the support and loyalty of their colleagues, increased self-efficacy, felt empowered, as well as improved their capacities, skills, and competencies when they participated in the decision-making process

Professional Development Needs of Department Heads

In Belize, department heads, like every other teacher, must accumulate a minimum of 124 hours of professional development sessions over a period of five years in order to maintain their teaching license (Ministry of Education, 2012a). I observed that those sessions occurred annually during the summer or various times throughout the school year. Sessions were not designed specifically to improve the leadership roles of department heads. Instead, professional development sessions targeted the general teaching population in Belize. The sessions were more content related and designed to increase knowledge and improve teachers' instructional practices in the specific subject matter at their level of instruction.

In 2012, Bradley conducted a study in Belize to determine the impact of professional development on teachers' knowledge of literacy content. Bradley reported that no documented evidence exists that substantiates whether or how professional development influenced the quality of instruction in Belizean classrooms. Still, a report by the MOE (2012b) described training and high quality professional development as critical elements in improving school leaders' skills, knowledge, and competencies in the Belizean classrooms.

Empirical research conducted by British and American scholars suggested that heads of departments are responsible and accountable for the quality of teaching and learning in their

departments (Adey, 2000; Brown & Rutherford, 1998; Dinham, 2007; Poultney, 2007; Sergiovanni, 1984; Wettersten, 1992). Thus, the need for adequate training for department heads is irrefutable. In 2000, Adey found that of 112 middle managers surveyed, 57.4% indicated they received no training to prepare or equip them for their role. Similarly, more than 70% of the respondents in the Weller (2001) study had no formal training prior to being appointed department head. Another 65% learned on the job or did as their predecessors did, while a few learned from graduate course work in leadership, staff development, and supervision. Because departmental leadership is critical for the improvement of instruction (Dinham, 2005; Earley & Flectcher-Campbell,1989; Kuhlemeier & van den Bergh, 2000; Poultney, 2007), department heads need ample opportunities for sustained training and high quality professional development (Desimone, Smith, & Ueno, 2006; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Klein & Riordan, 2009; Koellner, Jacobs, & Borko, 2011; Muijs & Harris, 2007; Sultana, 2010). Bak and Onn (2010) agreed and advised school leaders to use professional development as a vehicle to enhance the competencies of department heads.

Studies have revealed that professional development is essential for the success of school improvement and student learning (Bak & Onn, 2010; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Klein & Riordan, 2009; Payne & Wolfson, 2000; Rhodes & Brundrett, 2009). As a result, policymakers and administrators utilize professional development to improve teaching quality (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Desimone et al., 2006; Glickman et al., 2011). According Bak and Onn (2010), professional development enriches department heads' capabilities and competencies of the teaching and learning process. Desimone et al. (2006) as well as Klein and Riordan (2009), reported that professional development increases department heads' competencies in pedagogy and subject matter content. In view of this, Darling-Hammond

(2010) recommended that professional development be a fundamental part of teachers' professional life, as opposed to the traditional "flavor of the month" workshop (p. 228). Darling-Hammond's recommendation is important and applicable to schools in Belize because what teachers learn through professional development should be aligned with the school's curriculum. Subsequently, the quality of teaching and learning in schools could improve.

Research on successful professional development shows prominence on issues such as involvement, long-term planning, problem solving meetings, release time, experimentation and risk taking, and administrative support (Glickman et al., 2011). Payne and Wolfson (2000) encouraged principals to provide time, resources and support for department heads' professional growth and to remove barriers that inhibit professional development. Additionally, Payne and Wolfson advised principals and department heads to participate in professional development activities as colleagues so they could benefit from learning together. In this manner, the principal serves as a role model for continuous learning while simultaneously communicating enthusiasm and interest in department heads' professional development.

Importance of Instructional Supervision

Many approaches and description for supervision exist (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blase & Blase, 2004; Glickman et al., 2011; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2007; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2003). Yet, the need to improve the quality of teaching and learning through supervision cannot be over emphasized. According to Acheson and Gall (2010), Glickman et al. (2011), and Gupton (2003), supervision is the glue that holds the school together and the vehicle for improving instruction. Supervision is also a roadmap that provides schools with the opportunity to build strong teaching and learning systems to increase students' academic success (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Rhodes & Brundrett, 2009; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Moswela

(2010), Wanzare (2011) and Zepeda (2003) described supervision as a strategy for improving instruction and for promoting growth, development, collaboration, and commitment to build capacity in teachers. Yet, many teachers do not find supervision helpful. Some teachers react defensively to supervision and exhibit some form of resistance (Acheson & Gall, 2010). Acheson and Gall (2010) and Wanzare (2011) explained that the negativity towards supervision was the results of many factors including supervisor's incompetence, role conflict, time constraints, teachers' attitude, and lack of feedback.

In Britain and Hong Kong respectively, Adey (2000) and Tam (2010) discovered that department heads acknowledged their accountability and responsibility for the quality of teaching and learning, as well as for monitoring teachers' and students' work. However, other studies in the Eastern and Western context revealed that many department heads were unprepared to cope with the monitoring aspect of their role and to take the necessary action to address problems or controversies (Adey, 2000; Ghamrawi, 2010; Jarvis, 2008; Turner,1996; Wanzare, 2011; Wise, 2001; Zepeda & Kruskamp, 2007). Teachers must grow professionally. As a result, teachers need timely, concrete feedback on their classroom teaching and management practices in order to hone and strengthen their skills and further their professional growth (Gupton, 2003). In Belize, department heads conduct clinical supervision of teachers in their department (Ministry of Education, 2012a). Clinical supervision, if done properly, improves the quality of teaching and contributes to teachers' professional growth through planning, observation, and feedback (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Glickman et al., 2011; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Wanzare, 2011; Zepeda, 2003).

The clinical supervision cycle has three stages—the planning stage, observation stage, and feedback conference. During the planning stage, supervisors establish a rapport with

teachers. Supervisors communicate with teachers and encourage them to share whatever concerns they feel need to be addressed. Together they clarify instructional objectives, discuss instructional alignment, collaborate on observational techniques, and make plans to observe a lesson (Acheson & Gall, 2010). Next, supervisors observe a lesson in a non-judgmental fashion. During the observation, supervisors record data about teachers' instructional practices on an observational technique such as verbal flow chart, anecdotal record, or seat chart. The last stage of clinical supervision is the feedback conference. During this stage, supervisors encourage teachers to analyze and make sense of the data from the observational technique, and together they arrive at a decision about how to move forward. Clinical supervision requires effort and dedication, but improves instruction when the focus is on teachers' issues instead of administrators' concern and when the goal is to improve teachers' instructional practices (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blase & Blase, 2004; Glickman et al., 2011; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Because supervision practices contribute to teachers' professional growth, subject leaders must find time to conduct supervision. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) contended that teachers must be willing to learn the clinical supervision process, even if it is by trial and error.

Supervision is the cornerstone for driving school improvement efforts and contributes to improvement in teacher quality and students' learning (Blase & Blase, 2004; Ghamrawi, 2010; Glickman et al., 2011; Gupton, 2003; Moswela, 2010; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Wanzare, 2011; Zepeda, 2003). Therefore, supervision should not be limited to the role of the school principal and but shared with designated supervisors (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blase & Blase, 2004). In their studies, Siskin (1991) and Turner (1996) suggested that department heads were in an ideal position to facilitate improvement in teacher quality and students' learning. The logic, according to Siskin and Turner, was that department heads had the instructional expertise to

conduct supervision. Furthermore, department heads were in daily contact with teachers, were perceptive about school issues and improvement, and were familiar with the school instructional program (Buckner & McDowelle, 2000; Witcher, 2001). However, the studies of Bennet et al. (2007), Jarvis (2008), Wise (2001), and Zepeda and Kruskamp (2007) contradicted Siskin and Turner's logic.

In a study of high school department chairs' perspectives on instructional supervision, Zepeda and Kruskamp (2007) found that chairs cited barriers such as lack of time, role conflict, and ambiguity relative to providing instructional supervision. The meaning of instructional supervision for the chairs, according to Zepeda and Kruskamp, was intuitive and reflected differentiated approaches. Zepeda and Kruskamp concluded that the department chairs were not prepared to conduct instructional supervision, lacked instruction to fulfill their supervisory role, and had to design their own roles because the principal support was not forthcoming. The results of Jarvis (2008) and Wise's (2001) study of high school department chairs were consistent with Zepeda and Kruskamp's study. According to the studies, department chairs acknowledged the need to monitor colleagues' work. However, the constraints of instructional supervision, which included shortage of time, lack of emphasis, and lack of direction by the principal, hindered them. In his study on understanding of middle leadership in secondary schools, Bennett et al. (2007) reported that subject leaders were against the idea of monitoring teachers' instructional practices.

Different individuals could be responsible for conducting instructional supervision including school principals, department chairs, curriculum directors, and lead teachers (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blase & Blase, 2004; Zepeda, 2003). However, the individuals must be sensitive to the teachers they supervise (Weber, 1989). Glickman et al. (2011) described this sensitivity as

possessing knowledge, interpersonal, and technical skills. Glickman et al. explained that direct assistance, professional development, and curriculum development were supervision components that directly affected instructional improvement. According to Glickman et al., the integration of those components united school goals and teachers' needs and provided for the improvement of learning.

Theoretical Framework

The leadership theories that framed this study were instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and leader-role theory. Theories can help scholars understand and make predictions about leadership practices in all types of organizations, including secondary schools in Belize.

Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership is important for reforming and improving schools; yet, there is no clear definition of what it actually means (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Weber, 1989; Wettersten, 1992). Instructional leadership has different meanings to different people, and researchers have approached the topic from various perspectives. For some individuals, instructional leadership is based on the assumption that principals and teachers must work collaboratively to improve instruction (Hoy & Hoy, 2006). For others, instructional leadership involves a variety of activities including monitoring and providing feedback on teaching and learning, promoting a positive school climate, and communicating shared goals (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Hallinger, 2003, 2005). According to Ovando and Ramirez (2007), instructional leadership includes specific actions and behaviors aimed at assisting teachers to improve instruction. Glickman (2002) postulated that instructional leadership improves teaching and learning and includes behaviors such as listening, encouraging,

and clarifying. Instructional leadership, as defined by Sergiovanni (1984), is the coordination, supervision, and evaluation of curriculum and instruction. Those perspectives illustrate that instructional leadership is about improving teaching and learning in schools.

The research literature described the school principal as the instructional leader (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Blase & Blase, 2004; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; McEwan, 2003; Sergiovanni, 1984; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Weber, 1989). Nevertheless, as the need to improve leadership and school effectiveness increases, it becomes questionable whether principals alone can fulfill all the leadership requirements and demands for effective schooling (Hallinger, 2003; Hook, 2006; Printy & Marks, 2006; Spillane, 2006). Glickman (1981), Guthrie and Schuermann (2010), Little (2000), Marks and Printy (2003), Marsh (2000), and Wettersten (1992) proposed that principals should encourage teachers to assume instructional leadership functions. Guthrie and Schuermann, Marsh, as well as Little explained that teachers, who are knowledgeable, have expertise, and can exercise collaborative leadership, could share instructional leadership with the principal. Heads of departments fit the description of those authors.

This present study is based on the principle of shared instructional leadership, which involves the active collaboration between principals and teachers on matters relating to curriculum, instruction and assessment (Marks & Printy, 2003). Like Guthrie and Schuermann (2010), Marks and Printy (2003) affirmed that shared instructional leadership occurs with teachers who are skillful, capable, competent, and empowered. Although shared instructional leadership requires a major organizational change (Bradford & Cohen, 1998), it is not a new concept because many schools have embraced shared inquiry and decision-making (Blase & Blase, 2004). Bradford and Cohen (1998) explained that shared instructional leadership requires

the use of governance structures and organization processes that allow teachers and administrators to participate in decision-making and to share accountability for student learning, staff development, curricular development, and instructional supervision. By engaging in shared instructional leadership and decision-making, principals create opportunities for teachers to become leaders and decision makers as well (Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Danielson, 2006; Donaldson, 2004; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Pearce & Conger, 2003).

Sergiovanni (1984) designed one of the earliest models of instructional leadership that described five essential leadership elements considered significant in sustaining effective instructional leadership—the technical, human, education, symbolic, and cultural elements. The technical aspect of Sergiovanni's instructional leadership model includes variables such as planning, time management, knowledge of leadership theories and organizational development. The human element contains interpersonal aspects such as the ability to communicate and motivate the school population. The educational element includes teaching, learning, assessing, and implementing the curricula. Sergiovanni's symbolic and cultural elements reflect the instructional leader's ability to be the symbol of what is culturally meaningful and has value to schools. Sergiovanni's five elements are significant to school leadership because they directly affect the school context and culture. According to McEwan (2003), the theory of school leadership incorporated the educational, symbolic, and cultural elements of Sergiovanni's model because they were relevant to schools' context.

The general goal of instructional leadership is to improve classroom instruction and increase students' learning (Glickman et al., 2011; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Weber, 1989). For this reason, instructional leaders are expected to possess a comprehensive knowledge of pedagogy (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Glanz, 2006;

Hallinger, 2003; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007), demonstrate personal vision for academic excellence (Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Marks & Printy, 2003; Weber, 1989), and demonstrate expertise in assessment and classroom management practices (Hallinger, 2005; Little, 2000). Table 1 presents five essential elements and functions of Weber's instructional leadership model that is based on his review of the related literature. Those elements are defining the school's mission, managing curriculum and instruction, promoting a positive learning climate, observing and improving instruction, and assessing the instructional program.

Table 1.

Weber Instructional Leadership Model

Elements	Functions
Defining the School's Mission	Instructional leader collaborates with stakeholders to develop a common goal for the school.
Managing Curriculum and Instruction	Instructional leader monitors instructional practices and provides resources and support to teachers that lead to instructional improvement.
Promoting a Positive Learning Climate	Instructional leader sets high expectations for learning and promotes an instructional climate that is conducive to learning.
Observing and Improving Instruction	Instructional leader uses classroom observation and professional development to improve teachers' instructional practices.
Assessing the Instructional Program	The instructional leader contributes to the planning, administering, and assessment of the school instructional program.

Note: Summarized from Weber (1989)

Weber's (1989) instructional leadership model highlights the need for instructional leadership. Weber concluded that regardless of the organizational and hierarchal structure of the school, instructional leadership must be practiced. Weber emphasized that teachers need a

competent and empowered individual who is an instructional leader and an advocate for improving the quality of teaching and learning. According to Weber, that individual does not need to be the school principal because instructional leadership is not limited to the formal position of the school principal. However, researchers agreed that the instructional leader must collaborate with teachers and demonstrate a comprehensive knowledge and an understanding of factors that affect teaching and learning (Glickman, 2002; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Ovando & Ramirez, 2005; Weber, 1989).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is a process whereby leaders morally and ethically transform followers and motivate them to exceed beyond what they would ordinarily do (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bass, 2000; Northouse, 2013; Sagnak, 2010; Sosik, Potosky, & Jung, 2002). Transformational leaders create an environment or an atmosphere in which followers feel inspired, confident, and empowered to achieve goals for the improvement of the organization (Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Marks & Printy, 2003). Transformational leadership includes four dimensions—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration— that are commonly referred to as the 4Is of transformational leadership (Bass, 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, & Sutton, 2011; Marks & Printy, 2003; Northouse, 2013; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012).

According to Bass and Avolio (1990) and Northouse (2013), transformational leaders exert idealized influence and display attributes and behaviors that result in a trustworthy relationship with followers. Those leaders often consider the need of others over their own. Followers identify and connect with them to the extent that they want to emulate the transformational leader’s behavior (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Sagnak, 2010).

In expressing inspirational motivation, leaders behave in a manner that challenges, inspires, and motivates those around them (Bass, 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Moss & Ritossa, 2007). Bass and Avolio concluded that leaders' behaviors serve as catalysts that inspire followers to maximize their fullest potential. Those leaders work collaboratively with followers, communicate clear expectations, and demonstrate a strong commitment to working towards shared vision and common goals (Bass et al., 2003; Northouse, 2013; Moss & Ritossa, 2007; Sosik et al., 2002)

Transformational leaders demonstrate intellectual stimulation and challenge followers to be innovative and creative. These leaders encourage followers to think outside the box and experiment with potentially better or new approaches to challenge old situations (Bass, 2000; Hoffman et al., 2011; Moss & Ritossa, 2007). Furthermore, transformational leaders respect individual differences and opinions. As explained by Bass and Avolio (1990), transformational leaders embrace and use conflict as an avenue for problem solving and organizational growth.

Transformational leaders who practice individual consideration are cognizant of followers' individual need for achievement and growth. As a result, transformational leaders create learning opportunities that contribute to followers' individual development. Further, Bass and Avolio (1990), Bass et al., (2003), and Northouse (2013) asserted that transformational leaders foster a supportive climate that contributes to followers' growth and development as leaders.

McEwan's (2003) *Seven Steps to Effective Instructional Leadership* illustrated the application of the 4Is of transformational leadership to instructional leadership. McEwan's seven steps are:

- Establish, implement, and achieve academic standards;

- Be an instructional resource for your staff;
- Create a school culture and climate conducive to learning;
- Communicate the vision and mission of your school;
- Set high expectations for your staff and yourself;
- Develop teacher leaders; and
- Develop and maintain positive relationship with students, staff, and parents. (p. 15)

A relationship exists between McEwan's (2003) steps to effective instructional leadership and transformational leadership. For example, McEwan's steps of implementing and achieving standards, communicating the vision and mission, and setting high expectations are characteristics of transformational leaders who exhibit inspirational motivation. In exhibiting inspirational motivation, the transformational leaders inspire others to achieve their fullest potential (Antonakis et al., 2003) by communicating clear expectations and demonstrating a strong commitment to working towards a shared vision (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Hoffman et al., 2012; Stewart, 2006). Setting high expectations for staff, as McEwan stated, is an attribute of transformational leaders who exercise intellectual stimulation. Guthrie and Schuermann (2010) and Stewart (2006) found that in exercising intellectual stimulation, transformational leaders motivate and encourage creativity in their followers so that followers could excel beyond their greatest potentials.

When instructional leaders act as an instructional resource for their staff, create a culture and climate that is conducive to learning, and develop teacher leaders, they demonstrate individual consideration. Bass and Avolio (1990) posited that transformational leaders who demonstrate individual consideration, respect individual differences, and create and nurture a learning environment to assist in followers' growth. Finally, instructional leaders who maintain

positive relationships with students, staff, and parents are admired, trusted, and respected. Admiration, trust, and respect are qualities of transformational leaders who exhibit idealized influence (Bass, 2000; Bass et al., 2003; Northouse, 2013). Idealized influence results in the development of trustworthy relationships between leaders and followers.

The above comparison suggests that effective instructional leaders may display transformational qualities. Poultney (2007) described the responsibility of department heads to be transformational leaders. He claimed, “The transformational work of a subject leader ultimately culminates in the ability to bring together a team of professional teachers working within a particular school context” (p. 10).

Role Theory

Role theory revolves around a triad of concepts, including role, social position, and expectations. Shivers-Blackwell (2004) discovered that leaders use role theory to understand how leaders’ perceptions of the organizational setting influenced their leadership behaviors. According to Biddle (1986), role theory addresses the expectations that individuals who occupy social positions have for their own behaviors and the behaviors of others. Thus, Shivers-Blackwell and Biddle asserted that leaders’ behaviors are contextual. Biddle observed that leaders’ social identities and situations determined their behavior. Biddle’s observation implied that the interpretation of roles in organizational context shape as well as influenced leadership behaviors.

Disagreements exist about the definition of role (Biddle, 1986; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Schmidt, 2000). Schmidt (2000) ascertained that “roles are institutional assumptions because they conventionally exist prior to the individuals designated to occupy them even being known” (p. 830). Hence, Schmidt characterized the role of secondary school department heads

as one fraught with ambiguity, conflict, and negativity. According to Schmidt, a lack of role definition and no job description for department heads contributed to role ambiguity and conflict. Thus, Schmidt cautioned that roles become problematic when the purpose is unclear, ill defined, and when expectations are at odds with the reality of the role.

Contrary to Schmidt (2000), Biddle (1986) and Guthrie and Schuermann (2010) affirmed that role refers to the expectations that others have for the behavior of someone in certain positions. Those roles, such as teacher leadership roles, could be formal or informal (Angelle & DeHart, 2011; Birky et al., 2006; Emira, 2010; Lieberman & Miller, 2004; Muijs & Harris, 2003; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Informal roles, expounded Guthrie and Schuermann, have limited imposed expectations by statutes. On the contrary, statutes govern the expected behavior of individuals who occupy formal roles. For example, the *Education (Amendment) Rule* is a legal document and the administrative source that governs the behavior, duties, and responsibilities of secondary school department heads in Belize. Because the behavior and roles of department heads are governed by the legal document, department heads occupy formal position. By virtue of this position and human nature, teachers and school leaders have certain expectations for department heads' behavior. Those expectations occur because roles and boundaries exist by which others expect formal leaders to act.

Expectations influence role formation and are the nucleus around which relationships develop (Biddle, 1986). Expectations affect the nature of relationships, especially when individuals hold expectations for their own behavior as well as those of their peers. The concept of expectations makes the roles of secondary schools department heads vulnerable to covert and overt criticism (Blegen & Kennedy, 2000). Vulnerability occurs because teachers, administrators, students, parents, and other stakeholders in education expect department heads to

conduct themselves in a manner that is representative of their leadership roles. Roles and behaviors vary among department heads and may not necessarily reflect the expectations of others but the formalities of schools (Biddle, 1986) or both the official demands of schools and pressures from outside sources (Shivers-Blackwell, 2004).

Conceptual Framework

Figure 1 graphically illustrates the conceptual model that framed the study. The model reflects the key theories and concepts that guided the study. The conceptual framework shows that instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and leader role theory build, strengthen, as well as illuminate an understanding of leadership roles, principals' support, professional development, and instructional supervision. The leadership theories were used to explain larger leadership practices in the Belizean education system.

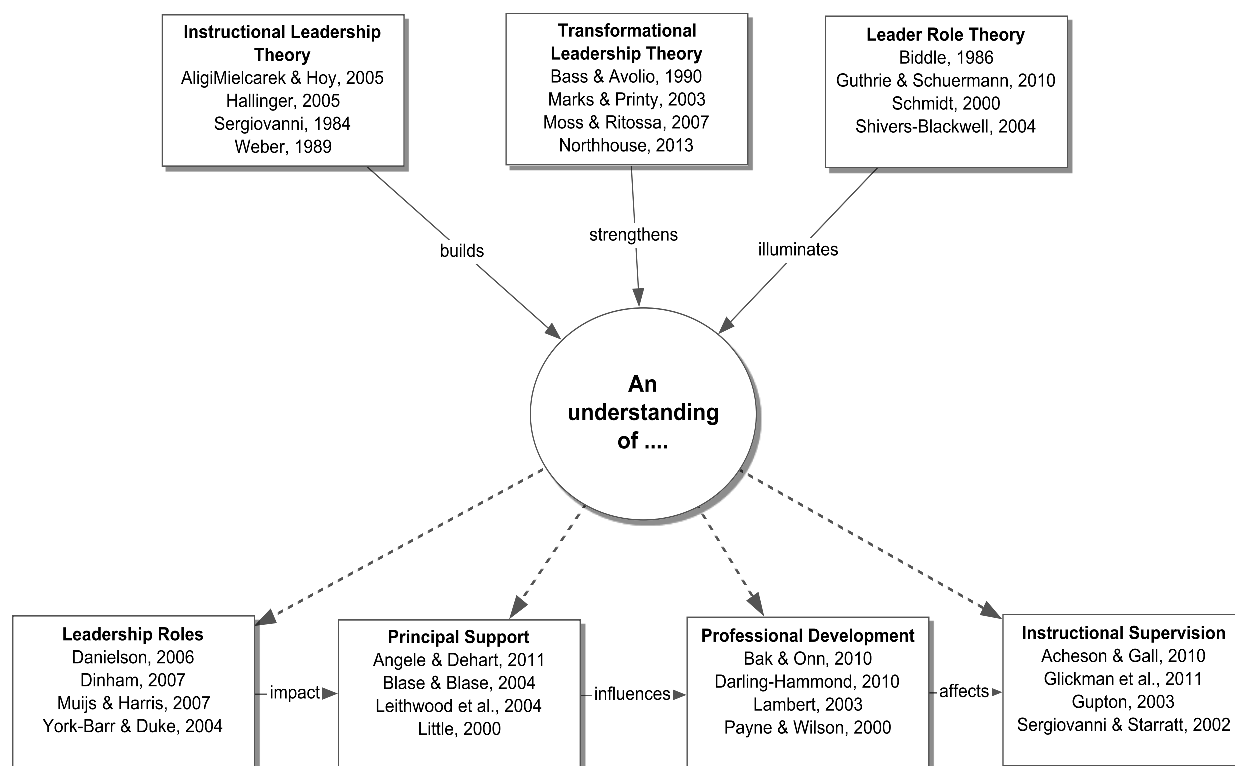

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Summary

Chapter 2 began with a discussion of secondary education in Belize. The chapter reviewed literature on the leadership roles of secondary school department heads and discussed the theoretical framework that guided the study. Furthermore, the discussion in Chapter 2 addressed teacher leadership and explicated the barriers to teacher leadership and principal support for teacher leadership. The chapter continued with a discussion of professional development and the role and importance of instructional supervision in secondary schools. The conceptual framework at the end of the chapter depicts connections between major theories that grounded the study and the leadership components, processes that together structure and frame the duties and responsibilities of department heads

The following chapter provides a description of the research methodology used to examine the leadership role of secondary school department heads in Belize. The chapter includes a description of the study setting, the sampling strategy, participants' profile, development of the interview protocol, and data collection and management procedures. Chapter 3 also addresses credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the study, as well as the organization, management, and analysis of the data, the researcher as a tool, ethical consideration, and finally delimitations and limitations of the study. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize, using qualitative methods to collect and analyze data about the roles of department heads. The results of the study contribute to the discussion on school effectiveness and school improvement by describing the roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. The results were especially time because at the time of the present study, the Belizean education system was being fundamentally reformed.

This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize?
2. How do secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize perceive and describe their role as instructional leaders?

Research Design

Examining the leadership role of secondary school department heads in Belize was an area of knowledge and practice that needed exploration because the leadership provided by the department heads was regarded as significant in influencing instructional leadership and curricular support. Additionally, among the available research on school leadership in Belize, the researcher found no empirical studies on the leadership roles of secondary school department heads. Therefore, an exploratory qualitative design using open-ended semi-structures interviews was used to conduct the study (Creswell, 2009; Marshall & Rossman, 2011) because qualitative methods provide the opportunity to examine and extract meaning from the often complex, messy, and subjective nature of the participants' experiences (Bouchner, 2002). Semi-structured interviews gave participants voice so they could describe their experiences in their own words

and from their perspectives. Using semi-structured interviews captured and illuminated participants' experience of their leadership roles—"how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it, and talk about it with others" (Patton, 2002, p. 104).

Qualitative research is contextual, naturalistic, interpretive, and relies on thick, rich description as a validation procedure (Creswell, 2009; Eisner, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2012; Yin, 2009). Thick, rich, and detailed description illuminated participants' experiences about their leadership roles. Using a qualitative research approach produced data that contributed to the breadth and depth of knowledge (Edwards, 2007) about the experiences and leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize. The data were contextual and illuminative (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012; Huberman & Miles, 2002) and facilitated my interpretation of the participants' experiences.

Description of the Study Setting

The leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize are contextual, and therefore, influenced by the natural setting in which they occur. The setting for the study was two government high schools in Belize, Central America, namely, John Brown High School [pseudonym] and Peter Thomas High School [pseudonym]. Both sites provide a combination of vocational and academic education. John Brown High School has five departments, which are mathematics, science, business, English, and industrial departments. Peter Thomas High School also has five departments— mathematics/ science, English, business, social studies, and technical departments.

Sampling Strategy

Purposive sampling was used to select participants for the study. Purposive sampling involved selecting information-rich cases where a great deal can be learned and understood (Creswell, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002) about the department heads' leadership roles. There are 51 high schools in Belize; however, 15 of the 51 high schools are government schools (Ministry of Education, 2008). John Brown and Peter Thomas High Schools were purposefully selected because of their accessibility to the researcher and because the schools' curricula included academic and vocational-technical education. The vocational aspect was considered important because it suggests that participants had the potential to provide complex and diverse perspectives that could result in a better understanding of the department heads' leadership roles.

Participants' Profiles

Table 2 depicts the educational and experiential data for each participant as well as the schools where they work. Paul had an associate degree, had been the head of Mathematics Department for between eight to ten years, and had five teachers in his department. The interview with Paul occurred at the school's cafeteria and took approximately 60 minutes. At the beginning of the interview, Paul was hesitant to respond to the questions. However, as the interview progressed, he became talkative.

Stacey had a bachelor degree and was responsible for the Business Department. Stacey had served as department head for 10 to 15 years and worked with five teachers in her department. Subjects that made up the Business Department included principles of accounting, principles of business, office administration, and information technology.

Table 2.

Participants' Educational and Experiential Data and the Schools Where They Work

Pseudonyms	Departments	Schools	Yrs. Teaching	Teaching hours out of 40 hr. week	Yrs. as department head	# of teachers in department	Qualifications
Paul	Mathematics	JBHS	20-25	23	5-10	5	Associate Degree
Stacey	Business	JBHS	10-15	19	5-10	5	Bachelor Degree
Robert	Business	PTHS	20-25	20	2-5	6	Associate Degree
Kriston	Mathematics/Science	PTHS	10-15	21	5-10	9	Master Degree
Kaelan	Technical	PTHS	10-15	20	2-5	7	Associate Degree
Sharon	Science	JBHS	20-25	20	10-15	7	Bachelor Degree
Kathrine	Industrial Department	JBHS	20-25	20	10-15	7	Associate Degree

Note. JBHS= John Brown High School; PTHS = Peter Thomas High School

The interview with Stacey lasted approximately 60 minutes; she was relaxed and fluent throughout the interview. Stacey was the only department head with prior leadership experience. She described her preparation when she said, “It's not like there was a manual out there to help me. As we would say, buck and stop. You buck, you learn, and you continue again.”

The interview with Robert occurred in his office and lasted for approximately 40 minutes. At the time of the interview, Robert had just returned from proctoring first semester examinations. Robert was in charge of the Business Department at his school, had an associate degree, and worked with six teachers in his department.

Kriston was in charge of the Mathematics/Science Department, which also included agricultural science. Kriston had served as department head for eight to ten years. He had a

master's degree and worked with nine teachers in his department. The interview with Kriston took approximately 40 minutes and occurred in the vice principal's office. Throughout the interview, Kriston was responsive and responded to each question.

Kaelan oversaw the administration of the Technical Department. The department included subjects such as woodwork, technical drawing, and clothing and textile. Kaelan had an associate degree, worked with seven teachers in his department, and had worked as department head for three to five years. Kaelan was receptive and verbose throughout the interview. The interview took approximately 60 minutes and occurred at one of the public libraries in the district.

Sharon headed the Science Department and held a bachelor's degree. She had served as department head for 10 to 15 years and had seven teachers in her department. Sharon's department included subjects such as biology, chemistry, physics, human and social biology, and integrated science. Sharon displayed a charismatic personality throughout the interview, which took place in a vacant classroom and lasted for approximately 45 minutes.

Kathrine held an associate's degree and headed the Industrial Department. Subjects that made up the Industrial Department included technical drawing, mechanical engineering, clothing and textile, and home economics. Kathrine had served as head of department for 10 to 15 years and worked with seven teachers in the department. Kathrine was the only participant who requested that the conversation not be recorded because she felt uncomfortable with the audio recording. In this case, careful notes were taken. However, she did not talk much and was not forthcoming with her responses. Although I prompted her, she remained reserved with her responses. As a result, I was concerned her brief statements would be insufficient to analyze,

interpret, and allow me to convey her views. The interview with Kathrine occurred in her workshop and took approximately 35 minutes.

Development of the Interview Protocol

I used an interview protocol (Appendix A) to collect data and to guide the interview process (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). The interview protocol included the time, date, and place of the interview and consisted of 14 open-ended questions. Open-ended questions were necessary to gain an understanding of participants' experiences from their perspectives because they permitted exploration, and, therefore, were appropriate to capture participants' thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, and feelings about their roles in their own words (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Yin, 2009).

I developed some questions and adopted others from McCollough (2007) and Alig-Mielcarek and Hoy (2005). McCullough used her interview protocol to collect data from standard coaches about how they viewed their roles and responsibilities as designated teacher leaders. Some questions from McCollough's protocol approximated questions that could be asked to develop an understanding of the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. As a result, I selected those questions and incorporated them into my interview protocol. I did the same with questions from Alig-Mielcarek and Hoy's *Instructional Leadership Inventory* (ILI).

Pilot Testing Procedure

I contacted five high school department heads in Belize via e-mail and asked them to review my interview protocol. I asked department heads to provide input and feedback regarding the extent to which the questions reflected the responsibilities of secondary school department heads in Belize. All five department heads responded and provided meaningful

feedback about the length and clarity of the questions and the degree to which the questions represented the domain of interest. One participant suggested that a question related to incentives received by department heads be included. Another suggested the inclusion of a question related to the impact of extracurricular activities on teachers' ability to complete the Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate. I used the suggestions of both participants because their suggestions were relevant given the context of the study. I also removed five questions that department heads considered inadequate, confusing, or misleading from the protocol. These questions were: (a) How do you feel about working with teachers to interpret assessment data for instructional implications? (b) What do you think are the qualities of an instructional leader? (c) How would you describe the role of an instructional leader? (d) How do responsibilities of your role fit the authority that you are given by administration? (e) Are there any responsibilities you wish you didn't have? Why? Then, I modified the protocol so it reflected the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize.

In order to refine the protocol, I conducted a pilot study of the instrument with four department heads in Belize via telephone interview. Following the pilot interviews, I asked each department head to provide feedback on questions they had difficulty understanding. The department heads stated the questions were good but identified three questions that lacked clarity and suggested that I rephrase the questions. Based on their suggestions, I revised the questions and then validated the interview protocol using the *Instrument Validation Checklist* (Litwin, 1995). The checklist supported my conclusion that questions comprising the protocol were representative of what I wanted to ask the participants.

Data Collection and Management Procedures

In qualitative research, the researcher does not control or manipulate the research context (Gay et al., 2012). Instead, the researcher interacts with the participants through face-to-face communication and gathers data directly from them (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002). Bogdan and Biklen (2003) affirmed, "With semi-structured interviews you are confident of getting comparable data across subjects . . ." (p. 96). Hence, I conducted semi-structured open-ended interviews to give participants voice so that they described their experiences in detail and in their own words from their perspectives. Semi-structured interviews were appropriate in order to explore, interpret, and understand the participants' experiences and the context that shaped the experiences.

I contacted principals via e-mail (Appendix B) and requested their permission to include their schools in the study. Following IRB approval (Appendix C), I invited participants via e-mail (Appendix D) to participate in the study. Then, I travelled to Belize in November 2012 to meet with the participants. I discussed the Informed Consent Form (Appendix E) and the reason for audio recording the interview. I assured participants that their information would be kept confidential and pseudonyms would be used to protect their identities and the identities of their schools. I asked participants to read and sign the consent form and on the day of the interview gave participants a copy for their record. I transcribed participants' responses after each interview. Thereafter, I encrypted the transcripts and stored them and the audio recordings on the University of North Florida's (UNF) secure server.

Sometimes qualitative researchers examine numerous types of documents (Gay et al., 2012; Yin 2009) to triangulate data collection. Documents are valuable sources of information and occur naturally in the research setting (Bowen, 2009; Gay et al., 2012; Huberman & Miles,

2002; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002). Documents examined for this study included school catalogs, the *Belize Education Sector Strategy* (2012), the *Handbook of Policy and Procedures for School Services*, and the *Education (Amendment) Rules*. The documents were used to attain insights about the research context and provided "contextual richness" to the study (Bowen, 2009, p. 36).

Credibility, Transferability, Dependability, and Confirmability

Member checking and triangulation were used to establish warrant and to enhance credibility of the data. Triangulation provided the opportunity to use multiple procedures and sources in order to corroborate the interpretation of data (Azulia & Rankin, 2012; Baxter & Eyles, 1997; Creswell, 2009; Gay et al., 2013; Huberman & Miles, 2002; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2002; Thurmond, 2001; Yin, 2009). Interviews were used to capture participants' thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, and feelings about their leadership roles as secondary school department heads. Relevant sections of school catalogs and policy documents were purposefully sampled to enrich the interview data and to facilitate understanding of the phenomenon under study. Three data analysis strategies—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998)—were used as a means of analytical triangulation. Azulia and Rankin (2012), Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007), and Thurmond (2001) described analytic triangulation as the use of two or more analytic strategies to fully understand the phenomenon being studied.

The misinterpretation of meanings that respondents convey through interviews threatens qualitative validity (Baxter & Eyles, 1997). As a result, member checking was used to assess accuracy of the transcriptions. Copies of the interview transcripts were e-mailed to the

participants to review what they had told me during the interview. After two days, I reminded participants via text message that the transcripts were e-mailed for their review. One participant took seven days to respond but said the transcript was consistent with what he told me during the interview. On my return to Jacksonville, participants were reminded via text message that the transcripts were e-mailed for their review. Because I received no response from the others, I began analyzing the data.

Thick, rich, and detailed description was used to provide a clear and an accurate picture of the research methods and procedures used in the study. Thick, rich, and detailed description enhanced transferability of findings and made the research process transparent, thereby increasing the likelihood that the results of the study are warranted. Many Caribbean countries and other developing countries have education systems that are similar to Belize's. With thick, rich, detailed description, readers could determine whether their situation and experiences parallel those of secondary school department heads in Belize.

Dependability and confirmability were also used to evaluate the credibility of the study. Dependability is defined as the stability and consistency of data interpretation (Baxter & Eyles, 1997; Gay et al., 2013) while confirmability is described as a way to interpret whether findings can be confirmed by another individual or study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). In considering dependability and confirmability, I documented my assumptions and provided a detailed description of the research context. I also used multiple sources of data collection and analysis strategies as a means of triangulation. Additionally, I practiced reflexivity through memoing. Reflexivity was crucial during the research study because, as a researcher, I knew that I brought my subjectivity, personality, and predispositions to the qualitative research process (Milner,

2007; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Sipe, 2004). The following excerpt from a memo developed during the early stage of analysis provides such an example:

> Upon listening to how Stacey described collaboration meeting as a whole school approach for planning or addressing departmental issues, I was confronted by own reality. Stacey's school instituted a policy and had structures in place whereby the last class period on the last Monday of every month was early release time. Departments would use that period specifically for meetings. This was interesting to me because my school management was adamant about ensuring that class time be used for instructional purposes only. All meetings had to take place when classes were over; there was no such thing as early release time and I did not know of any school with that practice. Because of this, I found that I could not stop myself from probing. I asked many probing questions and Stacey responded freely and openly. When I reflected on my behavior, I understood that my self-interest was the guiding force behind the probing; I wanted to learn more about the structures the school had in place for collaboration meetings. This interest was more from my position as a high school principal, and not necessarily the researcher. I guess it was a case of where the self and the researcher fused. Having discovered my own subjectivity in this manner, I decided that in subsequent interviews I would actively seek out my own subjectivity during the process and not after the fact. However, I could not remain detached from my participants because it would be impossible to do so. As Peshkin (1998) said, "subjectivity is inevitable." Therefore, I will be mindful to practice more self-awareness as a way of sharpening the self as the instrument of data collection. [December 8, 2012]

This example shows that I was reflexive about my personal behavior. Being reflexive is valuable because my perspective as the researcher contributes and influences the research context. However, being preoccupied with my own self-interest could bias the research findings.

Organization, Management, and Analysis of Data

Data analysis was an ongoing process that began during the data collection phase of the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Following each interview, I transcribed the data and read transcripts several times in order to make sense of the data and develop a holistic understanding of participants' perspectives. I initially planned to organize, manage, and code the data using NVivo®. However, after the first transcription I felt the need to

manage the data using Microsoft Word®. My personal preferences and style include being able to see and manipulate hard copies of the transcripts to make sense of the analytic process. Examples of transcribed data from two interviews are in Appendix F.

Following transcription, I used Microsoft Word® to organize the data according to my two research questions. Thereafter, I printed and stapled each transcript for easy access and then read and coded each data set separately. I regarded the data from each research question as a data set. I looked for key phrases and significant statements that spoke of the how participants viewed their leadership roles. I also looked for regularities and patterns in words, phrases, and ways of thinking (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998) while simultaneously color-coding the data by circling, underlining, and highlighting significant statements and patterns.

Three data analysis strategies were used in the study—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998). Content analysis was used to analyze school catalogs, the *Belize Education Sector Strategy* (2012), the *Handbook of Policy and Procedures for School Services,* and the *Education (Amendment) Rules*. Patton (2002) explained that content analysis refers to data reduction to identify consistencies and meanings in the data. Inductive analysis involves moving from the particular to the general. Hatch (2002) described inductive analysis as searching for patterns of meaning in the data to identify and experience general statements about the phenomena being studied. Eisner (1998) described educational criticism as exploring and disclosing the qualities that are integral to experiences, situations, or phenomena. Educational criticism has four elements—description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematic. A more detailed description of all three qualitative data analysis strategies is provided in Chapter 4.

The Researcher as a Tool

During the study, I was the instrument of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. This role enabled personal contact with participants during the study. Although I was unfamiliar with the participants, I knew the principals of the high schools where the study was conducted. The principals and I were members of the Belize Association for Principals of Secondary Schools (BAPSS) and the Association for Principals for Government Secondary Schools (APGSS).

As a high school principal, I am knowledgeable of the responsibilities assigned to secondary school department heads as stipulated in the *Handbook of Policies and Procedures for School Services.* Nonetheless, I recognized that differences exist in the ways departments operate within the same school and among the same subjects in different schools. I was cognizant that my level of connoisseurship (Eisner, 1998) could influence the nature of participants' responses. For example, even after probing, the participants could have been reluctant to elaborate on their responses because of their perceptions that I was acquainted with their responsibilities; or, the reverse could have been true. Participants could have also been unwilling or hesitant to share information they considered risky to a high school principal.

As a high school principal, I worked directly with department heads but only at my school. Therefore, my interest in the ways other secondary school department heads in Belize exercised their leadership roles wove the self and research study together. Thus, the fluidity of my position as a high school principal and a researcher made me conscious of my positionality (Kanuha, 2000; Milner, 2007). My role as researcher helped to develop rapport with participants and my position as high school principal and familiarity with the Belizean education context

gave me a better understanding of the participants' experiences. By positioning the self as a connoisseur and a critic, I was able to use prior knowledge to construct probing questions, be sensitive to changes in participants' responses and behaviors, and realistically interpret and describe participants' experiences (St. Louis & Barton, 2002).

Ethical Considerations

I followed academic protocol to maintain ethical standards for the study. I requested permission (Appendix B) to conduct the study from the two high school principals via e-mail. Following my committee's approval, I submitted my proposal to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of North Florida (UNF) for approval. After IRB's approval (Appendix C), I invited participants via e-mail (Appendix D) to participate in the study and then travelled to Belize to interview them. Prior to conducting the interview, I met participants in person at their convenience, explained the informed consent form (Appendix E), and answered questions they had regarding the study. I informed participants that during the interview they could decline to answer questions with which they were uncomfortable and that they would have the opportunity to make changes or clarify the transcript, withdraw responses to questions, and withdraw from the study at any time should they wish to without penalty or loss. Furthermore, I assured participants that their information would be kept confidential and pseudonyms would be used to protect their identity and their schools' identity. I asked participants to read and sign the consent form, and on the day of the interview gave them a copy for their records. After conducting interviews, I transcribed, encrypted, and stored the data on UNF's secure server. The audio recordings were also encrypted and stored on UNF's secure server.

Delimitations and Limitations

This study was delimited to those factors that were relevant to the study such as the number of accessible high schools, composition of each department, the leadership role of the participants, years of experience, and professional qualification of each participant.

This present study was site specific and limited to documenting the voices of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize. An added limitation to the study was my role as a principal in Belize, which may have been inhibiting to some participants. The present study was based on the idea that the reality of any situation can only be experienced by participants in their context and the meaning they give their experiences could be fully understood only by them (Patton, 2002). As a result, the study did not produce generalizable knowledge; although the findings are not generalizable, they are transferable (Donmoyer, 2000; Eisner, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011, Patton, 2002). For example, many Caribbean countries and other developing countries have education systems similar to Belize. Therefore, with thick, rich, detailed description, readers could determine the usefulness of the findings for their settings as well as determine whether their situation and experience parallel those of secondary school department heads in Belize.

From the researcher's perspectives, a tendency exists in Belize to involve partisan politics in education, especially at government schools. Because of this political influence, participants could have been reluctant to participate in a recorded interview. Therefore, I reassured them that their information would be kept confidential and pseudonyms would be used to protect their identity and the identity of their schools. Participants were also reassured that during the interview they could decline to answer questions with which they were uncomfortable, have the opportunity to review their transcripts, withdraw responses to questions, make changes or clarify

the transcript, and withdraw from the study at any time should they wish to so without penalty or loss.

Summary

This chapter discussed the qualitative methods used to conduct the study. Semi-structured open-ended interviews were used to give participants' voices so they could describe their experiences in their own words and from their own perspectives. Relevant documents including school catalogs, the *Belize Education Sector Strategy* (2012), the *Handbook of Policy and Procedures for School Services,* and the *Education (Amendment) Rules* were collected and analyzed to enhance the interview data. Three data analysis strategies—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998)—were used as a means of analytical triangulation. The chapter also discussed the setting of the study, the sampling strategy, and participants' profiles, development of the interview protocol, and data collection and management procedures. In addition, the chapter addressed credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability of the study, as well as the organization, management, and analysis of the data, the researcher as a tool, ethical consideration, and finally delimitations and limitations of the study.

The chapter that follows discusses the analysis of the data and the results of the analysis. The chapter begins with a discussion of the data analysis process and includes an explanation of my experiences before and during data collection, and an explanation of educational connoisseurship (Eisner, 1998), positionality (Kanuha, 2000; Milner, 2007), subjectivity (Peshkin, 1988), and reflexivity (Patton, 2002) during the analysis process. Also included in the chapter is a description of the three data analysis strategies used in

the study—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998). A summary ends the chapter.

CHAPTER 4
DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Chapter 4 presents the analysis of data collected from school and policy documents and from interviews that were conducted during December 6–12, 2012. The study explored the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize, Central America, and addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize?
2. How do secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize perceive and describe their roles as instructional leaders?

To assure confidentiality, pseudonyms were used throughout the study.

The chapter begins with a discussion of the data analysis process and includes a discussion of my experiences before and during data collection and an explanation of educational connoisseurship (Eisner, 1998), positionality (Kanuha, 2000; Milner, 2007), subjectivity (Peshkin, 1988), and reflexivity (Patton, 2002) during data analysis. The chapter also includes a description of the three data analysis strategies used in the study—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998). Based on the data analysis, three themes were developed: (a) build instructional capacity, (b) increase learning opportunities for students, and (c) provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education. The discussion of the analysis is organized around the three themes, which are perspectives from which to view and understand the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at government schools in Belize.

Experiences Before and During Data Collection

The setting for the study was two government high schools in Belize, Central America, and data collection occurred from December 6–12, 2012. For ease of access to participants, data had to be collected prior to December 14, when high schools in Belize officially closed for Christmas vacation. It would have been extremely difficult to collect data when participants were on their Christmas vacations. Christmas vacation in Belize is traditionally family time, and administrators and teachers travel to other cities, districts, and countries during the holidays; I could not intrude.

The first two weeks in December were hectic, as I traveled to participants' schools to arrange convenient times to conduct the interviews. The Christmas season in schools was also busy for department heads. Some were supervising exams, while others were preparing for the beginning of the second semester. Additionally, some were getting ready to distribute first semester report cards, and others were engaged in end-of-semester school activities. Nevertheless, I met with each participant on an individual basis and explained the study, the informed consent form, and the reason for my preference to record the interviews. Participants were assured that their information would be kept confidential and pseudonyms would be used to protect their identities and the identities of their schools.

Initially, 11 participants were invited to participate in the study. Seven of the 11 were interviewed. One department head declined the invitation to participate in the study because she did not like to be interviewed. Another was in the first year as department head and was therefore excluded from the study. A third department head was absent from school during the period of data collection. At one school, two departments had been merged, which meant that school had one less participant. All seven participants

signed the informed consent form. Four participants were from John Brown High School, and three were from Peter Thomas High School. On the day of the interviews, participants were given a copy of the signed consent form for their records. Two interviews were conducted on Thursday, December 6 (Paul and Stacey); two on Monday, December 10 (Kriston and Robert); one on Tuesday, December 11 (Kaelan); and two on Wednesday, December 12 (Kathrine and Sharon). Participants determined the interview times and locations. The schedule gave me time to travel to and from the schools to conduct the interviews. Six interviews were conducted at the participants' schools, and one was conducted at a public library.

While in Belize, transcription immediately followed data collection, and transcripts and audio recordings were encrypted and stored on UNF's secured server. Also in Belize, a copy of each participant's transcript was e-mailed to him or her for review and correction. All seven participants responded that they would review the transcripts when they had the time. One participant took seven days to respond but said the transcript was consistent with what he told me during the interview. On my return to Jacksonville, participants were reminded via text message that the transcripts had been e-mailed for their review. I received no response from the other participants, and I therefore proceeded to analyze the data.

Connoisseurship, Positionality, Subjectivity, and Reflexivity During Data Analysis

The following sections discuss several elements that build credibility and help ensure warrant and transparency in this qualitative study. Among the elements are connoisseurship, positionality, subjectivity, and reflexivity during data analysis. First, my connoisseurship was used as a framework for analyzing the data. Second, in order to attend to and describe my subjectivity, it was important for me to adhere to the principles of positionality, appropriately

position myself in the research, and become mindful of those instances when my status influenced participants' willingness or reluctance to respond during the interviews. Third, reflexivity helped me to be aware of my relationship to the study and the importance of being self-referent while analyzing the data.

Connoisseurship

Eisner described connoisseurship as "a means through which we come to know the complexities, nuances, and subtleties of aspects of the world in which we have a special interest" (p. 68). As a Belizean educator for the past 22 years and a high school principal for 2 years, I have achieved a level of connoisseurship, or art of appreciation, through my experiences and knowledge of relevant literature. Eisner explained that a connoisseur notices or experiences certain qualities inherent to working conditions and is able to relate those experiences within a particular context. My connoisseurship was used to understand and to discern the experiences shared by secondary school department heads in Belize. More importantly, my connoisseurship was used as a framework for recognizing and coding important ideas, statements, and patterns, and for interpreting the data.

Positionality

When I initially met with the participants, a few of them knew me as the principal of one of the high schools in Belize. Those who did not know me were told about my role as a principal. As a principal, I work directly with department heads but only at my school. Therefore, my interest in the ways other secondary school department heads in Belize exercised their leadership roles wove the self and research study together. The fluidity of my position as a high school principal and a researcher in my study made me conscious of my positionality (Kanuha, 2000; Milner, 2007). My role as researcher helped to develop a rapport with

participants and my position as a high school principal and familiarity with the Belizean education context gave me a better understanding of the participants' experiences. By positioning the self as a connoisseur and a critic, I was able to use prior knowledge to construct probing questions, be sensitive to changes in participants' responses and behaviors, and interpret and express participants' experiences (St. Louis & Barton, 2002).

Subjectivity

As a tool, I was aware that I brought my subjectivity to the research process (Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Milner, 2007; Patton, 2002; Peshkin, 1988; Sipe, 2004). As suggested by Peshkin (1988), I managed my subjectivity because I was aware that it could influence how I analyzed and interpreted the data. It was that awareness that made me state my assumptions at the beginning of the study so as not to bias my data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Patton, 2002). Those assumptions were as follows: (a) Heads of departments are cognizant of their duties and responsibilities as mandated by the education rules set forth in the *Handbook of Policy and Procedures for Schools Services;* (b) Department heads are forthright in responding to the semi-structured open-ended interviews; (c) Department heads assume leadership roles, and their perceptions of their instructional leadership behaviors are representative of the behaviors they exhibit; (d) Partisan politics in Belize influence the ways that department heads define and perform their roles.

Keeping memos (memoing) was an additional strategy I used to manage my subjectivity, when I felt that participants' responses evoked it. For example, one participant, Kathrine, shared the following:

> Vocational teachers have a special license, which is valid for only two years until further training. There is no training in Belize for vo-tech teachers. . . . We have lost our annual increment until we further qualify ourselves. How are we going to qualify ourselves when there is no training in Belize? We have to go outside, and if ministry gives us study

> leave it will be without pay. It is very demoralizing. The vocational teachers are concerned but no one wants to take the initiative to address the issue—everyone is afraid. We have written to those in authority asking for an audience to explore our situation, but we haven't gotten a response. [December 8, 2012]

The participant's tone of voice appeared genuine and portrayed great concern for her professional career and the careers of other vocational teachers who were affected by the new legislature. As a result, I became emotional; her sincerity moved me. In that case, I used memoing to document my empathy with participant's concern. Memoing provided the space and place to clarify and manage my subjectivity. The following excerpt from a second memo I wrote provides another example:

> Sounds like social injustice. Licensing is a good thing because teachers have the moral obligation to uplift themselves. However, ministry has to put the proper structures in place for vocational teachers to qualify themselves. Until they do, teachers' livelihoods should not be threatened by a system that does not provide adequately for them. Vocational education already has a negative connotation attached to it in the sense that it is viewed with a sense of academic failure and as a 'last resort' for students. Teachers do not need that type that of stigma attached to their professional lives. I have seen the wonderful hands-on work they do with their kids. Therefore, put the proper structures in place and give them the necessary incentives in order to qualify themselves. Every Belizean child deserves the right to have qualified teachers. [January 6, 2013]

This example demonstrates the use of memoing to express my passion and concern for the professional development and training of vocational teachers. I am passionate about education, and I strongly believe that teachers have the moral obligation to actively seek and participate in professional development because their professionalism or lack thereof affects many lives. However, just as professional development is an individual responsibility, it is likewise a collective responsibility (Bak & Onn, 2010; Desimone et al., 2006; Robinson & Timperley, 2007).

Reflexivity

Patton (2002) described reflexivity as being attentive to self-awareness, political and cultural consciousness, and ownership of one's perspective. Based on the premise that I am a tool for data collection and interpretation, I was aware of the effect of my positionality, voice, and perspective on the research process. This awareness helped me to be reflexive during the study. In demonstrating reflexivity, memoing was used to reflect on my behavior during the data analysis stage.

Memoing served various functions during my research study. Clarke (2005) described memoing as having a conversation with ourselves about our data. Based on Clarke's description, memoing was used to write my challenges, thoughts, and actions with data-collection procedures, coding choices, and frustration with the analysis process. The following excerpt from a memo I wrote during the earlier stages of the analysis is one example:

> I am hesitant on how to proceed with the analysis. I am not exactly certain what I am looking for. Yes, I practiced coding in my advanced qualitative research class. I can recall Dr. Scheirer giving us crayons to practice coding. We coded by size, color, length, etc. You name it—we did it. Most importantly, we spoke of what we did and why. We also recoded or delimited the set of crayons. That was fun, interesting, and easy. As I write, I can visualize the entire process and hear the class discussion going on. However, reading and coding actual data is a different cup of tea. It is repetitive, painstaking, and time consuming. [December 18, 2012]

Because I did not want to perceive that which I wanted to see and label as data (Saldana, 2012), memoing served as an avenue that allowed me to think critically about what I did and why (Mason, 2002). Memoing gave me the opportunity to recognize that my thoughts, actions, and decisions shaped what I saw, coded, and interpreted. In this manner, memoing provided meaning, made my thoughts clearer, served as a code- and category-generating method, and provided insights and clarity about ideas identified in the data (Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003;

Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldana, 2012). The following passage provides a simple example of how I used memoing to provide clarity about the data:

> What is going on here? He said that supervision is an evaluation, but then it's to help, not to hinder or embarrass in no such way [*sic*]. Yes, supervision is to help teachers so that they improve instruction; but he seems to use supervision and evaluation interchangeably. Does his understanding represent the understanding of others? Supervision and evaluation are associated processes, but they are not synonymous. I know supervision is not consistent with summative evaluation, but is it consistent with formative evaluation? Hmm. I guess I will have to reference the literature. I will do that. [December 6, 2013]

This example shows that I used memoing to ask questions of the data to develop an understanding of the participant's perspective. The example also shows that I used memoing to provide clarity about the participant's understanding and usage of supervision and evaluation. Memoing also helped to further clarify my understanding of supervision, summative evaluation, and formative evaluation.

Educational criticism through connoisseurship (Eisner, 1998) provided a structure for perception and facilitated the data analysis process. Understanding my positionality was essential to understanding my subjectivity as a researcher because my subjectivity influenced how I analyzed and interpreted the data. Reflexivity highlighted the importance of questioning and understanding the self.

Data Analysis Strategies

The following section addresses the three data analysis strategies used in the study—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002) and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998).

Content Analysis

Conventional content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) was used to analyze information from school catalogs, the *Belize Education Sector Strategy* (2012), the *Handbook of Policy and*

Procedures for School Services, and the *Education (Amendment) Rules*. Content analysis was also one method used to analyze the interview data. Patton (2002) explained that content analysis referred to data reduction to identify consistencies and meanings in the data. Consistent with Patton's description, document sections were purposefully selected for their relevance to the study. Those sections included teachers' licensing, department heads' job descriptions, secondary education curriculum, and policy objectives pertaining to improving the quality and relevance of education at all levels of the Belizean education system. As suggested by Hsieh and Shannon (2005), the purposeful selections were read thoroughly in order to gain meaning and understanding of the data. Thereafter, I searched for significant words, phrases, and statements in the documents while simultaneously color-coding them by circling, underlining, and highlighting those that captured or reflected key ideas and concepts relative to department heads' roles, perceptions, and descriptions of their leadership roles. I also made marginal notes in the documents. Coded passages were organized into categories and used to enhance data from interviews.

Inductive Analysis

Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis was the second strategy used to analyze the data. Inductive analysis involved moving from the particular to the general. Patton (2002) described the inductive process as discovering patterns, themes, and categories in the data. Hatch (2002) described inductive analysis as searching for patterns of meaning in the data to identify and experience general statements about the phenomena being studied. Hatch described nine steps in his inductive analysis process.

Educational Criticism

Eisner (1998) described educational criticism as exploring and disclosing the qualities that are integral to experiences, situations, or phenomena. Educational criticism has four elements—*description*, *interpretation*, *evaluation*, and *thematic*. Description is at the heart of qualitative research (Wolcott, 1994). Description transports readers into the described setting and allows them to see what occurs as if they were present (Patton, 2002). Interpretation addresses questions of meanings and contexts, brings coherence to themes, and extrapolates lessons learned from the data (Eisner, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Wolcott, 1994). According to Marshall and Rossman (2011) as well as Wolcott (1994), the lessons learned could be connected to personal experience or based on a comparison of findings with data gleaned from the conceptual framework. Eisner explained that schools are social institutions that educate students. As a result, what occurs in schools is important and subject to be appraised—hence, the importance of evaluation. Evaluation provides readers an opportunity to make judgments about the educational value of the research context. Through evaluation, schools know what they are doing well and can decide on a direction to enhance their educational value. Thematic elucidates recurring ideas, statements, and multiple perspectives that occur during the analysis and integrates them with extant theories and literature. Figure 2 depicts the data analysis strategies and their intersections with a concept or process they share. Intersection A identifies pattern identification as a process shared by content analysis and inductive analysis. Intersection B recognizes description as a process shared by content analysis and educational criticism. Intersection C pinpoints meaning making as an element shared by all three analytic processes, and, importantly, as a principal goal of qualitative data analysis.

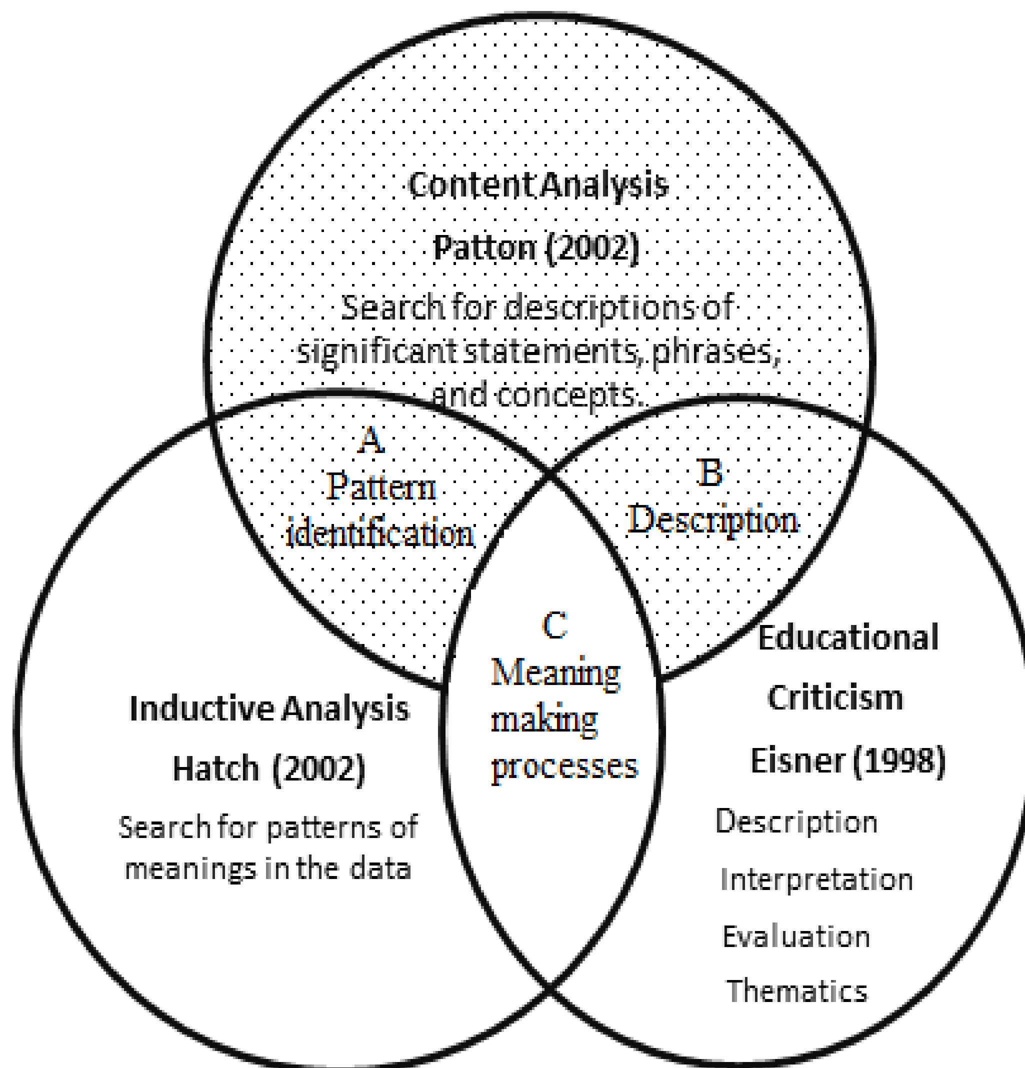

Figure 2. Overview of data analysis strategies.

Coding and Theme Development Using Hatch's (2002) Inductive Analysis

Data analysis was an ongoing process that began during the data collection phase of the study (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis was used as a guide to data analysis. The following steps describe how the data were analyzed, using the in Hatch's (2002) nine steps.

Step 1: Read the Data and Identify Frames of Analysis

I read each data set with a particular frame of analysis in mind. Hatch (2002) explained that the purpose for identifying frames of analysis was to decipher how to examine the data. Consequently, Hatch advised researchers to use frames of analysis that suit their purposes. Based on Hatch's advice and with the purpose of my study and the research questions in mind, I developed frames of analysis out of the data. The purpose of the study was to examine the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize. The research questions were as follows: (a) What are the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize? and (b) How do secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize perceive and describe their roles as instructional leaders? Therefore, as I read the data, I looked for words, phrases, and statements that represented how participants viewed, perceived, and described their leadership roles.

Step 2: Create Domains Based on Semantic Relationships Discovered Within Frames of Analysis

Hatch (2002) observed that domains were at the heart of the inductive process and explained that the purpose for creating domains was to develop a set of categories of meaning (domains) that reflected semantic relationships found in the data. In order to organize data into domains based on semantic relationships discovered within frames of analysis, Hatch (2002) and Spradley (1979) recommended that semantic relationships, as shown in Table 3, be chosen first. Spradley described nine semantic relationships for domain analysis.

Table 3

Spradley's Semantic Relationships

Form	Semantic Relationship
Strict inclusion	Is expressed as *X* is a kind of *Y*
Spatial	Is expressed as *X* is a place in *Y*
Cause-effect	Is expressed as *X* is a result of *Y*
Rationale	Is expressed as *X* is a reason for doing *Y*
Location for action	Is expressed as *X* is a place for doing *Y*
Function	Is expressed as *X* is used for *Y*
Means-end	Is expressed as *X* is a way to do *Y*
Sequence	Is expressed as *X* is a step in *Y*
Attribution	Is expressed as *X* is a characteristic of *Y*

Note: Summarized from Spradley (1979).

As recommended by Hatch (2002) and Spradley (1979), I read the data with a semantic relationship in mind and looked for examples of that relationship in the data. For example, I read the data for the first research question: What are the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize? Using Spradley's means-end semantic relationship, as shown in Table 3, I asked the following two questions: What are examples of means-end in the data? What examples show that *X* is a way to do *Y*? Taking my frames of analysis into account, I read the data with the specific relationship in mind. I looked for key phrases and significant statements that spoke to how participants viewed, perceived, and described their leadership roles. I looked for regularities and patterns in words, phrases, and ways of thinking (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998), while simultaneously color-coding the data by circling, underlining, and highlighting significant statements and patterns. I also made marginal notes on the transcripts. My connoisseurship (Eisner, 1998) influenced the recognition of those

codable moments in the data (Boyatzis, 1998). The color-coded data were defined as including terms that represented how participants viewed, perceived, and described their leadership roles. Spradley explained that all domains have two or more included terms derived from the data or field notes. Some of the color-coded terms for the first research question were strengths, teachers, substitution, and learning. Spradley's explanation suggests that strengths, teachers, substitution, and learning should all be categorized in a domain as included terms.

As I read and discovered an included term that could be associated with a domain, I created a table to show the relationships among the terms in the domain. My connoisseurship, memoing, and data from the research study influenced the domain creation. After I read all the data for the means-end semantic relationship that I began with, I repeated the process for the other relationships listed in Table 3. Some tables included multiple domains for the semantic relationships identified. This process of creating domains based on semantic relationships that were discovered within my frames of analysis was repeated for the other research question. The next stage in Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis was to identify salient domains.

Step 3: Identify Salient Domains, Assign Them a Code, and Put Others Aside

This part of the analysis involved data reduction so that salient domains could be identified. Miles and Huberman (1994) described data reduction as simplifying, discarding, and organizing data so that conclusions could be made. Identifying salient domains included several steps. First, I read all the domain analysis worksheets for the first research question. Then, I reflected on the importance of the data in their domains and used my connoisseurship and frames of analysis to identify salient domains and to eliminate those that did not stand. For example, the domain "fill in the gap" was eliminated because it turned out not to be a domain. The domain

"holding teachers accountable" was eliminated because the included terms were not congruent and relevant enough, and some of the terms fit better in other domains. Some domains were expanded and modified by moving included terms to other domains because those terms were more relevant in those domains. For example, the included term "enhance teachers' capacity" was moved from the domain "holding teachers accountable" to the domain "conducting supervision" because the term was more germane in that domain. Other domains were eliminated because they had only one included term. Hatch (2002) recommended that salient domains be coded to keep track of them. Therefore, I assigned a capital letter to each domain and a Roman numeral to each included term. The next stage of Hatch's inductive analysis was to refine salient domains.

Step 4: Reread Data, Refining Salient Domains and Keeping a Record of Where Relationships Are Found in the Data

As suggested by Hatch (2002), I read the salient domains multiple times, so I could be certain that the data supported the included terms and the existence of the domains. Then, I searched the data to identify where the included terms were located in the data and marked the data by using the codes that I had assigned to the salient domains. On a domain analysis worksheet, I wrote the page number next to the included terms. The next stage of Hatch's inductive analysis was deciding whether enough data existed to support the domains and search for examples that did not fit.

Step 5: Decide if Your Domains Are Supported by the Data and Search Data for Examples That Do Not Fit With or Run Counter to the Relationships in Your Domain

I reread all of the domains to decide if the data supported the existence of the domains. As I read and reflected on the data in their domains, I asked the following questions: (a) Is there

enough data to support the domain? (b) Are the data strong enough to make the case for the domain? and (c) Are there other data that do not fit the domain? Taking my frames of analysis into account, I searched the data with those three questions in mind. As a result, the domains were restructured because new semantic relationships were found. For example, two domains for the first research question were merged because included terms were more congruent and functioned more effectively within the same domain. For the second research question, the domains were altered because in some cases data were insufficient to support the included term.

Next, I read and reflected on the data in their domains to determine if the data supported the domains. Then, I searched the domains, keeping my frames of analysis in mind, as well as the three questions that were previously used in this step to question the data. Because the analysis revealed that terms in the domains were repeated, I felt the task was completed. The analysis also revealed that some terms appeared infrequently. For example, two of the seven participants were vocational teachers. Therefore, included terms such as “craft certificate,” “loss of increment,” and “being demoralized” were limited to one of the two participants. Taking my frames of analysis into account, the terms and the domain were considered important to understanding the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. The next stage of Hatch’s inductive data analysis was to complete an analysis within domains.

Step 6: Complete an Analysis Within Domains

Hatch (2002) described this stage of the analysis as searching for complexity, which means analyzing and expanding domains to search for special relationships. However, Hatch cautioned that some domains would not change much during this step. Although I searched for relationships among domains by rereading the data, the domains remained the same, and nothing changed. The next stage of the analysis was theme development.

Stage 7: Search for Themes Across Domains

Hatch (2002) described the exploration for themes as "searching for patterns that repeat in the data and show linkages among different parts of data" (p. 173). Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) defined theme as a topic that organized repeated ideas. For Boyatzis (1998), theme described aspects of the phenomenon under investigation. Miles and Huberman (1994) wrote that theme pulled together pieces of data, while Eisner (1998) identified themes as repeated messages the researcher discussed.

As recommended by Hatch (2002), I searched across domains and looked for connections among them by asking the following questions: (a) What topic or statement can I make that meaningfully brings the data together? (b) How do these terms fit together? and (c) How are my statements supported by the data? Based on coding, domain analysis, analytic reflection, and my connoisseurship, three themes were developed that pulled the data together and provided a framework for viewing and understanding the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize. Those themes were as follows: (a) build instructional capacity, (b) increase learning opportunities for students, and (c) provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education. The thematic relationships, as illustrated in Tables 4, 5, and 6, framed the discussion of the analysis.

Step 8: Create a Master Outline Expressing Relationships Within and Among Domains

Hatch (2002) explained that expressing relationships was a matter of personal preference. My personal preference for illustrating the relationships in the domain was the use of a table, as shown in Tables 4, 5, and 6.

Table 4

Thematic Relationships Across Domains for the Theme "Build Instructional Capacity"

Included terms	Semantic relationships	Domains	Theme
Maintain check and balance Enhance teachers' capacity Identify weakness Identify strengths Make sure teachers do their best To improve teachers To equip teachers Mentoring	are reasons for	Conducting supervision	Build instructional capacity
Improve teacher performance Improvement of student-teacher relationship Improvement of teaching and learning	are reasons for	Facilitating student-teacher evaluation	
To gain experience To learn from each other To build teacher capacity To assist teachers	are reasons for	Team teaching	
Build teachers' capacity Strengthen teaching strategies Improve classroom management Improve assessment Support teachers Strengthen department	are reasons for	Internal development	
Learn from others experience Build teachers' capacity Improve teaching skills Learn different strategies	are reasons for	Attending workshops	

Note. Table 4 is based on Hatch's (2002) data analysis process. The table shows the thematic relationships across domains. The table also shows that a rationale semantic relationship links the included terms to their respective domains. Rationale is expressed as "*X* is a reason for doing *Y*."

Table 5

Thematic Relationships Across Domains for the Theme "Increase Learning Opportunities for Students"

Included terms	Semantic relationships	Domains	Theme
Improve grades Improve learning experiences Practical vs. theory More hands-on work Strengthen mathematics	are reasons for	Vary teaching approaches	Increase learning opportunities for students
Checking grades Conduct grade analysis Intervention	are ways to	Monitor students' performance	
Cover syllabus Increase passes on CXC Increase students' learning Improve school and students' success	are reasons for	Focusing on the academics vs. extracurricular	
Increase learning Reinforcing concepts Make up for lost time Be at same point in curriculum	are reasons for	Offering extra classes	
Patrol compound Monitor teachers Act as administrator	are ways to	Ensure that teachers do what they should be doing	
Decide on homeroom Decide teaching hours Decide work load Structure department	are kinds of	Decisions about deployment	
Uncooperative behavior Friendship Department guidelines	are kinds of	Challenge with submitting lesson plans	

Note. Table 5 is based on Hatch's (2002) data analysis process. The table shows the thematic relationships across domains. The table also shows multiple domains for the semantic relationships identified. For example, a rationale semantic relationship links some included terms to their respective domains. Rationale is expressed as "*X* is a reason for doing *Y*." A means-end semantic relationship links other included terms to other domains. Means-end is expressed as "*X* is a way to do *Y*." A strict inclusion semantic relationship links other sets of included terms to other domains. Strict inclusion is expressed as "*X* is a kind of *Y*."

Table 6

Thematic Relationships Across Domains for the Theme "Provide Technical and Vocational Teachers Access to Professional Training and Development in Technical and Vocational Education"

Included terms	Semantic relationships	Domains	Theme
Craft certificate Practical certificate Being a trade person Possession of technical skills Lack of pedagogical training	are kinds of	Lower-level qualifications for technical teachers	Provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education
Concern for vocational teachers Loss of annual increment Being demoralized	are results of	Mandate requiring license to teach	

Note. Table 6 is based on Hatch's (2002) data analysis process. The table shows the thematic relationships across domains. The table shows that a strict inclusion semantic relationship links some included terms to the domain. Strict inclusion is expressed as "*X* is a kind of *Y*." A cause-effect semantic relationship links another set of included terms to the domain. Cause-effect is expressed as "*X* is a result of *Y*."

Step 9: Select Data Excerpts to Support the Elements of Your Outline

This part of the analysis involved reading the data within the domains and highlighting places where the excerpts were found. This process facilitated the writing process. Step 9 concluded applying Hatch's (2002) inductive analysis to the data, and Figure 3 shows the approaches to data analysis. The next section of the analysis discusses the themes.

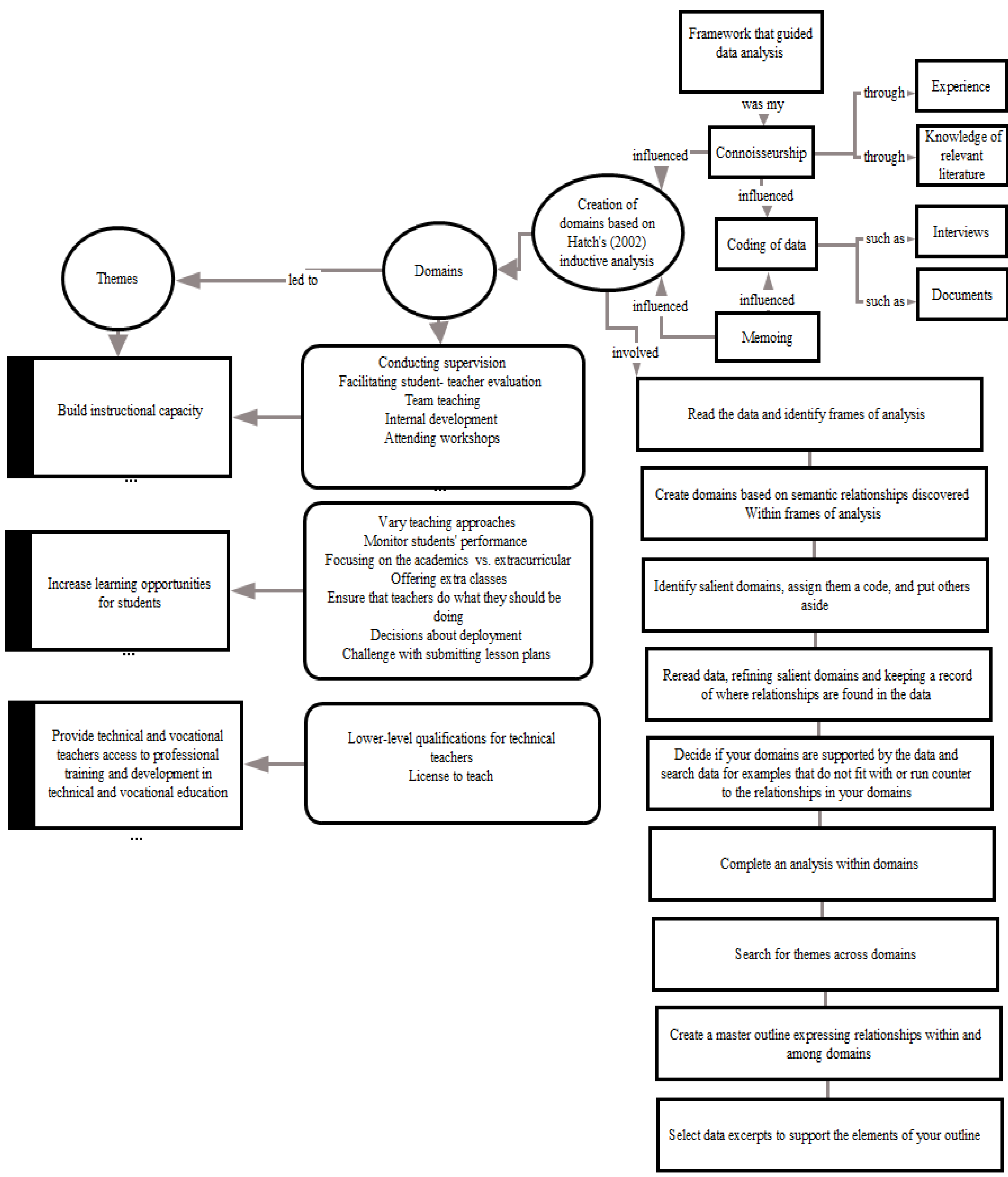

Figure 3. Summary of approaches to data analysis.

Build Instructional Capacity

This section of the chapter is organized around build instructional capacity, the first theme. The theme is a perspective from which to view and understand the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at the two study sites. Eisner's (1998) educational criticism is used to present the participants' experiences. The description phase includes data excerpts that capture participants' voices. The discussion of the analysis then moves to interpretation of the descriptions, evaluation of the data, and, finally to a discussion of thematics.

Description

The participants described their leadership roles as building instructional capacity and acknowledged that building instructional capacity was about creating conditions and supporting those conditions for growth and development. The participants supported teachers' growth and development in various forms, including conducting supervision, facilitating student-teacher evaluation, engaging teachers in team teaching, conducting internal development, and attending workshops for department heads. Based on the participants' perspectives, those supporting conditions built instructional capacity. Day (2001), Fullan (2011), and Leithwood et al. (2008) described capacity building as an investment in the development of an individual or a whole group to accomplish significant improvements. In this regard, building instructional capacity is important for school effectiveness because it supports school improvement efforts and the quality of teaching and learning in schools (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Lambert, 2003; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Robinson, 2010).

Conducting supervision. All seven participants acknowledged and discussed the important role that supervision played in building teachers' instructional capacity. However, two participants described supervision as an evaluation. For example, in discussing supervision, one

participant said, "I tell my teachers that I am not here to criticize how you teach but to make sure that you do your best. That is the purpose of evaluation." Another participant said, "Supervision is an evaluation, but then it's to help, not to hinder or embarrass in no such [*sic*] way." Supervision and evaluation have often been used interchangeably. However, supervision and evaluation are not synonymous. The research literature revealed that supervision focused on promoting growth and development, while evaluation led to a judgment or rating (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Daresh, 2001; Glickman et al., 2010; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2003).

Similar to other participants, Robert agreed that all department heads should conduct clinical supervision. Robert described clinical supervision in the following manner: "One day you only to go check on the teacher sometimes. On a next day, you just check on how they do their introduction or next time how they conclude the class." I asked Robert how he used the information he collected from supervision, and he replied:

> When I meet with them, apart from giving them just a written evaluation, I call them in, and we have a conversation. I tell them this is what you do, this is what you should not do, and how you should do it, or this is the way I suggest that you do it. [December 10, 2012]

Robert's purpose for conducting supervision was to ensure that teachers did their best. The purpose was consistent with one of the goals of clinical supervision, which is to promote effective teaching (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Glickman et al., 2011; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 2002; Wanzare, 2011; Zepeda, 2003). Robert said, "One day you only to go check on the teacher sometimes. On a next day, you just check on how they do their introduction or next time how they conclude the class." Robert's comments showed that he was cognizant of some aspects of the clinical supervision process. Engaging the teacher in a feedback conference following supervision is very important. Acheson and Gall (2010) explained that feedback serves as a

stimulus for the teacher to initiate self-improvement. Self-improvement increases a teacher's capacity to be effective.

Robert used a combination of both clinical supervision and traditional supervision. Robert told the teacher, "This is what you do, this is what you should not do, and how you should do it, or this is the way I suggest that you do it." This art of telling contrasts with what is advocated in clinical supervision. During the feedback conference in clinical supervision, the supervisor encourages the teacher to use observational data to make his or her own inferences about teaching effectiveness, and together both the teacher and supervisor move forward (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Glickman et al., 2011; Zepeda, 2003). If teachers are encouraged to reflect on their practices and use goal setting, supervision can help them grow (Moswela, 2010; Nelson & Sassi, 2000; Wanzare, 2011).

According to one participant, Kriston, "There's a trick to supervision." He shared his experience:

> Like anybody, once you go there, they put their best, and they bring chalk and things like that. Once you are not there, they do their own thing. Well, not actually do their own thing, but they won't bring all their teaching aids, games, and things to make it more interesting. So when we go there, like some of the students tell me, sir this da [*sic*] first time this teacher bring chart to class [*sic*]. I look at the teacher [*turns his head*]. There are people like that. But if we have constant supervision [*pause*], what we start to do in math, since some students struggle a lot, is that we set up a schedule that I go in and assess first period, observe, and then give the teacher feedback. [December 10, 2012]

Recognizing that some students struggled with mathematics and that their learning is particularly important, Kriston exercised judgment and frequently assessed teachers. Nelson and Sassi (2000) found that in observing classrooms, experienced supervisors exercised such judgments and made decisions about what mattered most for instructional improvement. As head of the mathematics department for 8 years Kriston, must have learned the importance of conducting supervision and providing teachers with feedback. Supervision is geared toward improving

instruction (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Daresh, 2001; Glickman et al., 2011; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2003) and as a result builds instructional capacity as well. Arp, Woodard, and Walter (2006), Balan, Manko, and Phillips (2011), and Mulford et al. (2007) advised that providing feedback on the teaching and learning process is crucial for instructional improvement and building school capacity.

Sharon stressed that her primary role as a department head was to improve and equip teachers. She explained her supervisory role in this manner:

> They come qualified as in formally educated, but they may be formally educated but not equip [*sic*]. I guess supervision is me mentoring them to the point that they are equip [*sic*] to do their job more efficiently. . . . Other than that, we always [*pause*] in my department, we always check on each other, bounce ideas off each other. So there's a lot of informal supervision. [December 12, 2012]

Sharon equated supervision with mentoring. This implied that she regarded supervision and mentoring as forms of direct assistance that teachers needed in order to perform efficiently in the classroom. According to Glickman et al. (2011), direct assistance provided through supervision and mentoring originated from multiple sources and was used to help teachers to improve instruction.

Like Sharon, Paul and his mathematics teachers also met informally to "bounce ideas off each other." Bouncing ideas off each other was consistent with informal supervision. Paul shared details regarding his routine:

> In the morning, or let's say midday, during lunchtime, we all sit, and we discuss, and we try as much as possible to assist. It's not like in the old days where they leave you there. No, it's not that way. We sit with them—me and the next teacher. We will sit and explain, and we will share different ideas. This is best done this way, or you should be doing it this way, and we show them why we have it done this way. [December 6, 2012]

Paul's routine represented what Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) labeled *informal supervision*, which involved casual meetings and conversations between supervisors and teachers about their

work. In fact, Sergiovanni and Starratt encouraged schools to include and blend informal supervision into their supervisory practices.

Facilitating student-teacher evaluation. In addition to supervision, participants facilitated student-teacher evaluation. Kaelan stated that he was uncertain whether student-teacher evaluation would materialize for his department. He explained, "We have discussed that at the HOD [Head of Department] level, but the mechanism is a different story, and I think that is where the bottleneck is." "Bottleneck" implied a lack of consensus on how to move forward with the student-teacher evaluation.

Both Kathrine and Stacey stated that their students assessed the performance of teachers in their respective departments. Participants revealed that data were used for improvement purposes only. The student-teacher evaluation was conducted one time each semester. Stacey elaborated on her student-teacher evaluation process:

> If I go into this class today to supervise a teacher, I would leave the class leader with the evaluation form where they grade the teacher. It's like a checklist; they check how they are least effectual, how do they treat others in the class, and then they have certain sections for comments. I collect it as a data. . . . Of course, they do ask if they can see the paper, and I say, "No. For the integrity of your own students, I don't want you to see the paper, but I must say that you have some positive as well as negative. Maybe you can try [to] improve in this area or whatever." It's not for you to go in there and do a witch hunt on any student. I say, "This is to help us." [December 6, 2012]

The *Education (Amendment) Rules* (*ER*) is a policy document for education in Belize that governs teachers' roles and responsibilities. The document stipulates that students should evaluate teachers' performances twice a year. As stated in the *ER* (2012), "Analysis of such assessment shall be for the purpose of school improvement, planning for improving teacher's teaching and learning processes, and student-teacher relations" (p. 113). The purpose of the student-teacher evaluation, as described by Stacey, is consistent with what is stipulated in the

ER. Stacey's school has two semesters, which means that evaluation is conducted twice per academic year.

Robert reported that his principal facilitated student-teacher evaluation, and the evaluation often exposed how students felt about teachers. He explained the process in this way:

> She [the principal] goes from class to class, and then she takes the evaluation form for teachers, and she asks the students to evaluate teachers. So when the evaluation is done, then she talks to the teachers and tells them students are saying this, that, and the other. So there is a conference concerning that on a one-and-one basis with the principal, which I think it is very good because I have been through it, and most of the time students always say that I am too strict. [December 10, 2012]

This excerpt from Robert's interview illustrates that the principal, not the department head, facilitated student-teacher evaluation. The example also reveals that the principal engaged the teacher in a post-evaluation conference.

At Stacey's school, department heads facilitated student-teacher evaluation, while at Robert's school the principal oversaw the process. The difference regarding the evaluation facilitator is contextual. The research literature revealed that evaluation practices could be assumed by any professional, although evaluation was often linked to the school principal (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Daresh, 2001; Glickman et al., 2010; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2003). Of importance, though, was the fact that a one-on-one conference followed the evaluation. The conference reinforced the importance of providing teachers with feedback. As previously stated, providing feedback on the teaching and learning process is crucial for instructional improvement and building school capacity (Arp et al., 2006; Balan et al., 2011; Mulford et al., 2007; Williams, 2009).

Team teaching. In addition to supervising teachers in their respective departments, participants engaged teachers in what was described as "team teaching." Sharon, for example, shared her strategy:

> In the science department, we tend to do a lot of team teaching. Like sometimes the weaker teacher would sit in someone else [*sic*] class; we encourage that. Once teachers come here, a lot of younger ones, they sit in my class. . . . I include [*pause*] I involve them in the lesson. For me, fortunately, here a lot of our staff are also past students. Because I've been here so long, I've taught many of them, so they come like, "Ms., I can come to your class?" So they just come and sit and they learn. [December 12, 2012]

Sharon described team teaching within the Belizean context as the weaker teachers sitting in their peers' classrooms to observe a lesson. The practice of team teaching appeared to be a part of the culture in the science department. This practice is synonymous with what Glickman et al. (2010) described as demonstrating teaching. In discussing best leadership practices for facilitating professional growth and development, Gupton (2003) reiterated the importance of nurturing a culture that supported and encouraged collaboration and teachers' learning. Team teaching in the science department appeared to mirror Gupton's observation.

Paul expressed his concern at not being able to supervise or mentor his teachers as he saw fit:

> My only gripe right now is that when I'm having my class, my math class [*pause*] let's say First Form/Second Form, my teachers are having their class at the same time. It is an injustice because I shouldn't be having my class, so I can go and supervise, or they can come and sit in my class. That's what we try to do, to have them sit in, or I sit in a class. That's the key. I think that with all new teachers, especially first timers, it's a problem. As a HOD, you need to sit with them. [December 6, 2012]

I asked Paul whether he played a role in creating the class schedule. He responded,

> No, that's a part of administration. They are the ones who does [*sic*] the timetable. But we request time so that we can supervise, but it's difficult, and math is demanding; math is demanding. . . . We have new teachers, and so you will find that some teachers are uncomfortable teaching a topic. So that is where I would lend my experience and say, "All right, I will do this for you, and then by doing that" [*pause*] because we don't have any workshops to say, "Well, I'll have Ms. X come in, and I will explain all the lessons to her, so she can understand and then go back and teach it now." It's like, in August, get in the classroom, and that's it. [December 6, 2012]

Paul's concern for requesting time to supervise teachers is important. Scholars have argued that supervision should be geared toward improving instructional capacity (Acheson & Gall, 2010;

Ghamrawi, 2010; Glickman et al., 2011; Gupton, 2003; Moswela, 2010; Wanzare, 2011; Zepeda, 2003). His concern for wanting to share his experiences with novices in his department is well noted. In fact, Gupton (2003) cautioned, "The sooner new teachers . . . are oriented to the culture, and being given the support and guidance they need to deal with their 1st-year problems and thus feel adequate in the classroom, everyone benefits" (p. 82).

Participants acknowledged that within the Belizean context, team teaching, mentoring, and peer observation increase the instructional capacity of schools and teachers. As described in the literature, school instructional capacity includes the staff's knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Donaldson, 2004; Lambert, 2003; Newmann, King, & Youngs, 2000). An increase in instructional capacity indirectly leads to an increase in students' learning, a primary objective of education. The notion of participants helping teachers within the structures of team teaching, mentoring, coaching, and peer observation appeared to be a formalized way of facilitating direct assistance to teachers within the Belizean context.

Internal development. In addition to informing and encouraging teachers to attend yearly workshops, Kaelan admitted he had no responsibilities for professional or internal development. In contrast to Kaelan, all other participants facilitated internal development at their schools. Internal development was described as a school improvement effort and not necessarily a departmental effort. Additionally, internal development was defined as a form of teacher support. In facilitating internal development, participants worked collaboratively as department heads and provided training for the teaching staff in areas such as classroom management, skimming techniques, teaching strategies, use of audiovisual materials, assessment, and classroom discipline.

Participants' experiences while working collaboratively with colleagues reflected collaborative leadership. Hallinger and Heck (2010) found that collaborative leadership positively affected school improvement capacity. This suggested that as participants worked collaboratively while conducting internal development on teaching and classroom management strategies, their instructional capacity could improve and increase. Facilitating internal development was consistent with the roles and responsibilities of department heads stipulated in the ER. The ER further requires department heads to coordinate staff development activities and support teachers in areas of teaching strategies, assessment, and classroom management strategies.

The analysis of the data revealed that some participants had a certain level of autonomy to decide on the topics for internal development. On other occasions, the school principal selected the topics. One participant, Paul, expressed his dissatisfaction with facilitating training that was based on the school principal's decision:

> Once we have new teachers, [the] administrator and HODs are in charge of supervision and training. To me, it's too much work for us. The thing about it is that administration dedicates a lot of responsibilities to the teacher because they don't want to do it. [December 6, 2012]

Various contextual factors could have contributed to Paul's perspective, including workload responsibilities. Nevertheless, the data analysis revealed that in addition to the classes participants teach, they also had a range of other duties and responsibilities. Like principals, department heads were also involved in training, support, management, and monitoring teachers in their respective departments. Additionally, department heads fulfilled mentoring and supervisory roles while supporting their colleagues' development.

For Stacey, internal development focused on the developmental needs of teachers. She explained the procedure used for the determining the topics of interest:

> When they do those government workshops for summer, we would look at what we need help in. We all send in our suggestions, and then the principal would put it together and see what we all have in common. When we come back at our own school, we would have a week that he would get people to come in and talk to us, and then they would send it to ministry, who would also approve it for development hours. So it doesn't have to be through the one that everybody across the country come [*sic*] and meet. We would meet as our own, internal. For example, there was a time we did first aid; another time we did [an] AIDS workshop. We had people come in from [the] labor department. BFLA [Belize Family Life Association] would come in with different things, especially like how we have teenagers, and some of them are sexually active. We do have incidents where certain things would come up, and the child needs to go to the doctor, but you need to inform the parents. So how to deal with certain situations, because at the end of the day you have to protect yourself too. . . . So we have workshop on all of those things that would help us as teachers. [December 6, 2012]

Stacey's example illustrated that department heads were involved in participative decision-making. Leithwood et al. (2004) attested that teachers earned the support and loyalty of their colleagues, increased self-efficacy, felt empowered, as well as improved their capacities, skills, and competencies when they participated in the decision-making process.

Attending workshops. Teachers' workshops are important for secondary school teachers because workshops keep teachers abreast of educational trends, including curricular changes and other changes that affect their instructional and professional practices in the Belizean education system. Based on the workshop content, teachers can adjust their instructional practices to meet the diverse needs of students in Belizean classrooms and to remain current with the requirements for national and external examinations in Belize. Participants expressed that workshops assisted them in fulfilling their duties and responsibilities as department heads. In fact, one participant affirmed that department heads needed more workshops and training, especially in areas such as clinical supervision and record keeping. Considering the importance of professional development in building school capacity (Bak & Onn, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Gordon, 2004; Klein & Riodan, 2009; Koellner et al., 2011; Mulford et al., 2007; Newmann et al., 2000; Sultana, 2010), the participants' affirmation is

noteworthy. Another participant, Robert, recommended that workshops for department heads be more inclusive because department heads from other districts often had no knowledge of the workshops. That lack of awareness placed other department heads at a disadvantage. Robert explained in this manner:

> Right here most of us go to head of department workshops, and there they tell us what are our responsibilities, how we should do what. Actually, they train us how to be a head of department. I think it would be good if there were more workshops for heads of departments actually at the level whereby only government heads would be involved, like the one that was started. But that didn't go anywhere because it was left halfway. There was an initiative for head[s] of departments only for government high schools that was scheduled for [the] 13th of August, but it was not possible because that would have clashed with the normal CPD [Curricular Professional Development]. I went to workshops at ITVET [Institute for Technical and Vocational Education and Training] for HOD, and then one was scheduled for Belmopan, and nothing was done. That was discouraging, when you start something, and you left it halfway, and nothing else is done about it. I think when something is started it should be finished, accomplished. [December 10, 2012]

This excerpt revealed that workshops were conducted for department heads, as well as participants' disappointment about attending workshops that were planned but not conducted. Robert's comments reflected other participants' sentiments. Participants acknowledged that one of the traditional downfalls of workshops was the lack of consistency and follow-up. For example, Kathrine attended a 3-day workshop scheduled for SBA [School Based Assessment] but reported that no follow-up was conducted. Kaelan recalled attending one workshop and said, "It should have been an annual workshop designed for HODs, but that wasn't the case." Stacey also recalled attending one workshop: "It wasn't even for us per se; it was for the ministry to better develop curriculum for primary schools." Based on the participants' descriptions, I concluded that training for department heads in Belize was consistently inconsistent, a situation not limited to the present study. Several studies have documented the lack of consistency in providing adequate training for department heads to execute their roles effectively (Adey, 2000;

Bak & Onn, 2010; Brown et al., 2002; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Harris et al., 2011; Weller, 2001).

Paul shared his opinion about attending government workshops:

> When we go and attend these workshops, in many instances they explain general ideas. Most of the workshops we attend are for first-timers. It pains my heart to go sit down in workshops every year—you must this, you must that. It's just like I explained about teaching math at [a] different level; I think they should have workshop based on the amount ah [*sic*] years teaching, so you can get a better feel. Or, other people teaching for 20 years or 13 years could sit in a classroom and maybe just share experiences. I think that would help a lot because what you experience can help me in the classroom. It all boils down to experience. [December 6, 2012]

Although Paul expressed his frustration about attending annual workshops, he acknowledged that experience was a major factor that needed to be taken into consideration when workshops were planned. Paul shared that teachers learned from each other's professional experiences and that experiences contributed to teachers' professional growth and development.

Participants indicated that professional development was necessary to improve their skills as teacher leaders. As a result, Robert and Kriston suggested that more workshops be offered for department heads. Additionally, Paul expressed that teachers needed "to get a better feel" for workshops. "Get a better feel" for workshops, as expressed by Paul, means that teachers need to feel inspired and motivated to attend the workshops. Lieberman and Wood (2002) found that workshops were often structured with a "one-size-fits-all" mentality and seldom distinguished between novice and experienced teachers. Lieberman and Wood's description could be used to interpret how Paul felt about attending workshops and why he suggested that teachers should be grouped in workshops based on their years of teaching experiences.

Interpretation

Capacity building is defined as an investment in leader development (Day, 2001; Fullan, 2011; Leithwood et al., 2008) because it contributes to significant improvements in teaching and

learning. In this regard, significant improvement is described as a by-product of building leadership capacity (Day & Harris, 2003; Lambert, 2003; Williams, 2009). Investment in leader development and building leadership capacity affect school improvement efforts because capacity building enhances and increases teachers' potential while indirectly influencing students' learning (Darling-Hammond, 2004; Gordon, 2004; Lomos et al., 2011; Wilen et al., 2004). For example, results bases on an analysis of the data verified that participants engaged in direct assistance within the frameworks of supervision, mentoring, and team teaching. According to scholars, those practices enabled instructional improvement through capacity building (Arp et al., 2006; Balan et al., 2011; Mulford et al., 2007). Results from the analysis also indicated that participants were involved in and facilitated professional development sessions. The research literature illustrated that professional development addressed areas of school capacity such as teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Bak & Onn, 2010; Gordon, 2004; Klein & Riordan, 2009; Koellner et al., 2011; Newmann et al., 2000).

The *Education (Amendment) Rules* described department heads as teacher leaders with responsibility to assist in clinical supervision, identify staff development needs, coordinate staff development, and provide appropriate support for teachers. Based on the data analysis, participants fulfilled those responsibilities. Participants described supervision as fulfilling various needs including promoting teaching, enhancing teachers' capacity, and mentoring teachers to the extent that they were equipped to do their job. Supervision is not synonymous with evaluation; they are associated processes but serve different purposes (Zepeda, 2003). At its best, supervision is concerned with promoting growth and development, while evaluation leads to a judgment or rating (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Daresh, 2001; Glickman et al., 2010; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2003). Some participants used supervision

and evaluation interchangeably, which is understandable because both can occur within similar paradigms. As one participant said, "Supervision is an evaluation, but then it's to help, not to hinder or embarrass in no such way [*sic*]." According to Glickman et al. (2010) and Zepeda (2003), supervision is consistent with formative evaluation but not summative evaluation. Both supervision and formative evaluation focus on improving instruction and promoting teacher development and growth. On the other hand, summative evaluation serves mainly promotion, retention, and personnel decision-making purposes (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Daresh, 2001; Glickman et al., 2010; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda, 2003).

Professional development is sometimes embedded in the school's culture and leads to sustained changes over time (Garet et al., 2001; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Mulford et al., 2007). According to Newmann et al. (2000), professional development should focus on various aspects of school capacity, especially because schools are particularistic. Balan et al. (2011) and Darling-Hammond (2010) found that what has been described as professional development, such as one-day workshops or "flavor-of-the-month" workshops, were often ineffective because they lacked continuation. The data analysis suggested that participants connected to Balan et al. and Darling-Hammond's descriptions.

In discussing school leadership and management for school effectiveness, the Ministry of Education (2012b) asserted that training and high-quality professional development were critical elements for school leaders. The logic was that principals should influence school improvement efforts because they have the skills, knowledge, and disposition to support teachers while indirectly influencing students' learning. Newmann et al. (2000) advised that professional development be "sustained and continuous, rather than short-term and episodic" (p. 259).

Evaluation

There have been numerous efforts at making Belize's education system more effective and efficient (Bennett, 2008). This effort is not unique to Belize, as other education systems around the world have also taken measures to improve. However, the education strategy in the Commonwealth Caribbean, of which Belize is a part, has given less attention to secondary education than primary education (Miller, 2009). In fact, the last major project that emphasized teacher education is the Belize Primary Education Development Project (Thompson, 2008), which was funded by The World Bank from 1992–1999 under the theme "Improving Quality in the Provision of Education for All in Belize." Over the last few years, Belize's Ministry of Education (MOE) has been collaborating with education stakeholders to devise plans or strategies to transform Belize's education system. In conjunction with external consultants and key stakeholders in the Belizean education system, the MOE developed and published the Belize Education Sector Strategy (2012). Undoubtedly, this report was part of a broader strategy to diagnose and address shortcomings in the Belizean education sector. One policy objective that the report addressed was the improvement of the quality and relevance of education at all levels of the Belizean education system. Embedded in the policy objective are two critical areas that influence capacity building—the improvement of school leadership and management and the improvement of teachers' effectiveness in supporting student achievement at all levels.

Data analysis revealed that participants were influential in providing leadership at the two government schools in this study. The analysis further indicated that participants performed a mentoring and supervisory role in colleagues' professional development. Internal development, staff development, and workshops were considered professional development. Koellner et al. (2011), Lambert (2003), Newmann et al. (2000), and Spillane and Seashore Louis (2002)

explained that professional development influence school capacity. Therefore, whether or not it was a departmental effort or a whole school effort, the topics for professional development affected teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions. As Bennett (2008) explained, the competencies of the teaching staff at the secondary school level affected the quality of education in Belizean classrooms. This was perhaps why one participant stated, "We look at what we need help in." Another said, "All HOD [Heads of Departments], . . . we do different presentations with them [teachers]. . . . We teach everything from classroom management, skimming techniques, teaching strategies, how to use audiovisual." Furthermore, another reported, "We heads of department sometimes need to do presentations, for example, on assessment and discipline."

As the participants described their leadership roles, it was apparent that conducting supervision was a crucial part of their responsibilities to build instructional capacity. This definition and purpose of supervision was consistent with participants' descriptions. For example, Kaelan said, "Supervision is certainly to enhance the teacher capacity as a teacher and to enhance the ability to carry out the content." For Kriston, "Supervision is to improve, always for improvement, giving positive feedback on how the teachers could improve weak areas." And according to Stacey, "Supervision is mentoring them to the point that they are equipped to do their job more efficiently." In line with the concept of mentoring, a report by the MOE (2012b) suggested that support such as mentoring by successful peers could be used as a strategy for building capacity and establishing consistency across Belizean schools.

Thematics

Participants articulated the importance of supervising teachers to promote teaching, to equip them to do their jobs more efficiently, and to enhance instructional capacity. The notion of

participants collaborating with teachers in the processes of team teaching, mentoring, coaching, and peer observation in the Belizean context was a formal way of facilitating direct assistance to teachers. Direct assistance improves instructional practices (Glickman et al., 2010), which indirectly improves schools' instructional capacity.

The need to have teachers observe their peers was of particular concern to one participant, who cited conflict with teaching schedules. Teaching schedules were one example of structural barriers that hindered the effectiveness of teacher leadership. Also important for participants was the need to engage teachers in reflective dialogue about their teaching practices, even if such conversation transpired in an informal environment. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) encouraged the practice of this informal supervision method.

Increasing the instructional capacity of schools is a prerequisite for increasing learning and leadership development (Arp et al., 2006; Day, 2001; Gordon, 2004; Newmann et al., 2000). Consequently, Fullan (2011) connected capacity building to deliberate efforts of attracting talented people and then assisting them to continually develop individually and collectively on the job. Fullan's notion of capacity building can be linked to the transformational leader who displays individual consideration. The data analysis of the present study indicated that participants were transformational leaders who exercised individual consideration because they were cognizant of teacher's individual need for growth and development. In exercising individual consideration, participants supervised, coached, mentored, and provided other forms of direct assistance to teachers, which equipped them to do their jobs more efficiently, enhanced instructional capacity, and contributed to their individual development. Bass and Avolio (1990), Bass et al. (2003), and Northouse (2013) asserted that transformational leaders who practiced

individual consideration foster a supportive climate that contributes to followers' growth and development as leaders.

The data analysis revealed that participants acknowledged the importance of professional development as an avenue that provided teachers with the opportunity to build instructional capacity. The data analysis further indicated that participants collaborated with their respective school principals to facilitate professional development for the teaching staff in areas such as classroom management practices, teaching strategies, use of audiovisual materials, and assessment practices. A spirit of collaboration between participants and their respective school principals reinforced the concept that leadership is not the sole responsibility of one person. Scholars agreed that leadership is shared among competent individuals at the school level (Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Printy & Marks, 2006; Spillane, 2006; Weber, 1989). According to the MOE report (2012b), schools in Belize in which leadership has been established can be "benchmarked" and used as models to assist others.

Increase Learning Opportunities for Students

This section of the chapter is organized around the theme—increase learning opportunities for students. The theme is a perspective from which to view and understand the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize. Eisner's (1998) educational criticism is used to present the participants' experiences. The description phase includes data excerpts that capture participants' voices. The discussion of the analysis then moves to interpretation of the descriptions, evaluation of the data, and, finally, to a discussion of thematics.

Description

Instructional leadership *has* different *meanings* to different people, and researchers have approached the topic from various perspectives. However, one *agreed upon* major goal of instructional leadership is to increase students' learning (Glickman et al., 2011; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Weber, 1989). Instructional leadership is based on the assumption that principals and teachers must work collaboratively to improve instruction (Hallinger, 2005; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Jones, 2012; Louis et al., 2010; Weber, 1989). Instructional leadership also includes behaviors such as communicating shared goals, listening, encouraging, clarifying concepts and principles, and pedagogical and instructional practices (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Glickman, 2002). In this study, participants were engaged in instructional leadership because they were involved in planning, monitoring, coordinating, and improving teaching and learning. Based on participants' perceptions, their instructional leadership role was to increase learning opportunities for students. Practices that participants employed to increase learning opportunities for students included varying teaching approaches, monitoring students' performance, focusing on academics and not extracurricular activities, offering extra classes, ensuring that teachers did what they were mandated to do, and making decisions about teachers' deployment. However, while increasing learning opportunities for students, some participants faced the challenge of teachers' uncooperative behavior regarding lesson plan submission.

Vary teaching approaches. Some participants spoke about instructional approaches that teachers used to deliver instruction. For example, Paul and Kriston voiced their concerns about the strategies teachers used when teaching mathematics. According to Paul, "It's not necessarily

the topics or the materials taught, but how it was taught and the sequence used by teachers" that was troubling. Paul further explained his concern:

> Schools would say, "Oh, this material is for First Form [Grade 9]; this material is for Second Form [Grade 10]." I think that's wrong. What I express to teachers all over is that all topics should be taught at all levels—, it [*sic*] just the degree of difficulty. . . . People who use textbook[s] would say chapter one, chapter two. You can't have math done that way. Math shouldn't be taught that way. [December 6, 2012]

Paul did not believe that mathematical topics or concepts should be categorized based on forms or grade levels. Instead, he believed that all topics or concepts should be taught across all grade levels, except that as students advanced to higher forms or grades, the degree of difficulty increased.

Kriston, on the other hand, acknowledged that the low scores students received on mathematics exams were disappointing. Nonetheless, he believed that each child could learn mathematics, but teachers had to use mathematical approaches that would make learning interesting. He explained in this manner:

> Sometimes the students are really slow, and you have to go back. I tell them I used to teach math too, but I usually go back. If I am teaching at Second Form [Grade 10], and they don't remember integers, then I need to go back and reinforce. I reinforce the concept. After teaching a subject for so long, you have to know how to adjust, and teachers like they [*sic*] don't adjust. To be honest, this is the first time I took my time and analyzed the results. I noticed that in areas like statistics and matrices, students were really weak. We would get grades like 2/13, like 3/12. I share the stats [statistics] with my department and tell them the first thing anybody who picks up the report will know that if you taught the material, you didn't do a good job, or you teach it none at all [*sic*]. Some of them were honest and said they did not teach the material; they didn't reach that far and didn't cover what they were supposed to cover. This year, I shifted . . . how we teach the Fourth Formers. We know that [the] ATLIB [Association of Tertiary Level Institution of Belize] exam is coming in February, so we included statistics and matrices before the ATLIB. Hopefully, that will change the results. [December 10, 2012]

Kriston expressed his concern for students' mathematical achievement. Although he acknowledged that some students struggled with mathematics, he believed that they could be

successful if teachers reinforced difficult concepts and changed their approaches to teaching mathematics.

The learning experiences for students in the technical department were more skill-oriented. As a result, students' learning opportunities progressed beyond the traditional school curriculum and involved a broader scope of practical activities, which Kaelan explained:

> What we try to do is, apart from giving the students the content to sit and pass an exam, we also try to prepare them for the world of work. So we ensure that we have a lot of practical, lots of hands-on. While under CSEC da [*sic*] 70% theory and 30% practical, we try [to] enhance the practical because this is what is relevant to the world of work. [December 11, 2012]

Kaelan highlighted the structure of the technical department relative to theoretical and practical practices. His explanation revealed that students in the technical department were prepared for academia and the workforce.

Participants articulated the importance of preparing students to be successful in academic and vocational fields. Participants agreed that one critical factor that affected students' success was the approaches that teachers used to convey relevant concepts and to prepare students for the workforce. That implied that teachers must be responsive to students' learning needs and move away from a one-size-fits-all approach to varying their instructional approaches in order to promote effective teaching and learning. The participants' concerns also suggested that teachers could benefit from professional development sessions that focused on student-centered teaching strategies. Bennett (2008) observed that the teaching staff's competence impacted the quality of education at the secondary level in Belize. Bennett's observation suggests that an increase in teachers' competencies could indirectly lead to an increase in students' learning.

Monitor students' performances. With the exception of Robert, participants explained that checking teachers' grade books and monitoring students' academic performance was the responsibility of the school principal and vice principal. Sharon explained that her vice principal

checked and signed grade books and ascertained whether tests, quizzes, projects, and assignments were fairly distributed. She went a step further and elaborated in this manner:

> When it comes to grades, our principal takes that as his own baby. I teach this class, HSB [Human and Social Biology]. If I give them a test, and whatever the grades are, he takes all failing papers, so he knows how they are doing. He says the buck stops with him. He takes full responsibility for that. . . . One thing he doesn't like is not knowing what goes on in the classroom, and he will tell you in a few minutes, "What are you going to do? You're going to take it over." [December 12, 2012]

Sharon's comments illustrated that the principal was actively involved in what transpired at the school. Sharon implied that the principal was visible at school and was firm about school policies and practices that led to an increase in students' achievement. However, the principal's involvement did not imply that participants were unconcerned about students' academic performance. Instead, the principal's action may be described as an example of shared instructional leadership. In discussing shared instructional leadership, Bradford and Cohen (1998) observed that teachers and principals shared accountability for students' learning. The concept of the school principal collaborating with the participants also represented and reflected elements of Weber's (1989) model of instructional leadership. In Weber's model, instructional leaders create a shared sense of purpose and clear goals that focused on improving students' learning. Clearly, the principal's actions demonstrated that he was concerned about the learning growth of his students.

Participants explained that different administrators used department heads in different capacities. For example, Kaelan and the vice principal monitored teachers' grade books. If Kaelan noticed disparities among students' grades, he encouraged the teacher to develop some sort of intervention. He also encouraged the teacher to include information relevant to the type of intervention in the remarks section of the lesson plan. However, only the vice principal had the authority to decide how the teacher would address the disparities. Although Kaelan's

authority was limited to encouragement, Robert had more autonomy to deal with disparities in students' achievement, which he explained as follows:

> I conduct a grade analysis, which occurs at the end of each month. Let's say they bring me like information technology. This class, so much failing, so much passing, and then apart from that they have to give me what is their intervention plan, what they intend to do to improve that failure. For example, if they have 30% failure, they will have to tell me in their intervention plan what they will do so that next month when I receive the grade analysis, there is an improvement. In their intervention plan, they will have to be specific to what they will do about it, like extra work, extra classes, and something like that. [December 10, 2012]

Robert's explanation showed that he had a certain level of autonomy in monitoring students' performances. As a head of department, Robert communicated directly with the teacher and addressed issues pertaining to students' performances.

Stacey discussed a whole school approach that was used to monitor students' performances, the concept of study hall:

> Whenever a child fails a test or a quiz, they are sent to study hall, whichever class it is. When you hear somebody fail from here, it's because they wanted to fail. When they go to study hall, it's from school over 3:30 [*sic*] until 5:00. They are in study hall doing over that test or quiz, and they have to rewrite it three times. Then it has to be with the corrected answer. When the teacher gets it back, they check it, and whatever correction that child made is still wrong, they get resent back to study hall. The point is the person is still failing, so we need to do something. [December 6, 2012]

I asked Stacey who monitored study hall, and she responded,

> Every day there's a different teacher; if you have a homeroom, you will not be given detention or study hall, but if you don't have homeroom, you will be given either out of the two. So each teacher is responsible. Let's say for example, today [is] Thursday—they have . . . [*pause*] I think the class can hold about 30 students, and let's say that there are more than 30 students. We have students from Sixth Form [junior college] who come in for community service. We would use the Second Form [Grade 10] building, and then we would split them up in different classes, and the students for community service are the ones who supervise that class, along with the same teacher in charge of study hall for that day. [December 6, 2012]

Stacey's explanation illustrated that study hall was embedded in the school's culture. Study hall was a structure or routine that the school incorporated so that students could retake the tests and quizzes that they failed. Based on Stacey's explanation, study hall was a daily occurrence and

was supervised by both teachers and students from the junior college who did community service at the school.

Participants used multiple ways to monitor students' performances, including checking teachers' grade books, conducting grade analysis, incorporating study hall, and ensuring that students retook the tests that they failed. Determining whether those practices improved or increased learning opportunities for students was beyond the scope of this study.

Focusing on the academics vs. the extracurricular. Participants articulated the importance of focusing on the academics to increase learning opportunities for students. Some participants expressed that their schools were involved in extracurricular activities such as drug awareness week, Fourth Form (Grade 12) awareness, debates, food and nutrition competition, and 16 days of activism. Sometimes the activities affected the instructional curriculum, and teachers were thus unable to cover the syllabus material. When that occurred, some teachers went the extra mile and worked around the activities, while others complained about the interruptions. Participants reacted differently to teachers' complaints and/or to the interruptions. For example, Kriston said, "You know this topic will take you two weeks, you know we have an activity, then just plan around there, and see how that will work. Instead, you are going to complain." Kaelan stressed that regardless of the interruptions, the focus was on preparing students well enough so that they were successful on the examinations:

> In our department, teachers try to cover enough content to cover [the] CSEC [Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate] because that's the benchmark. If you don't cover the CSEC enough to sit and do well in the CSEC, then you fail. If you manage to do more, then that's a plus for the student. Once you meet the CSEC criteria, then that's a plus for the institution and the student. [December 11, 2012]

Kaelan's explanation reinforced the high attention given to CSEC. His explanation revealed that students' learning goals and the school's goals revolved around CSEC. The attention given to passing scores on the CSEC is understandable because as one participant explained, "In Belize

schools are ranked based on their performance on CSEC exams." Additionally, passes on the CSEC examinations are requirements for students seeking entry to the University of the West Indies and entry into business or public service employment in Belize (Bennett, 2008).

Some participants, like Stacey, emphasized that her school had a heavy academic focus. As a result, the school seldom participated in athletic activities or other extracurricular activities. Stacey shared her experience at the school as it pertained to extracurricular activities, saying, "I've been here since 2005. This is just the second time I've come across a mini sports day like what is happening next week, which would be an actual day where everybody has a sporting event." The interview with Stacey was conducted in 2012, indicating that within the space of 7 years, the school held only two sports days.

Other participants spoke about their respective school's focus on academics. For example, Sharon emphasized that her school had a strict academic focus and that her "principal does not let too many things get in the way." She acknowledged a lack of "room for more fun stuff," but "knowing the history of the school, it's like literally one of those commercials—we've come a long way." According to Sharon, the school was built to help kids who did not have a lot of money; therefore, the principal pushed a rigid academic agenda so that students could increase their learning opportunities. She explained the schools' focus:

> We were just a secondary school for poorer kids in Greensberg [pseudonym]. Now, the richest of families compete to get their kids in here, and I guess because the principal pushes academics. . . . Right now, we compete with any school in the city. There is no school that can underestimate or should underestimate a Greensberg graduate because they will get burned. These kids are outstanding, and the teachers work very, very hard with them. I guess they like that, and we like that too. [December 12, 2012]

Sharon's comments showed that her school transitioned from one that was originally built for poor students to one that was very competitive. She attributed the competitiveness to the academic agenda that the principal pushed at the school.

Schools' participation in extracurricular activities was contextual. However, the data revealed that academics at both schools were emphasized over extracurricular activities. One of the primary reasons that schools eliminated or minimized the inclusion of extracurricular activities was because those endeavors reduced the focus on academics. Having an academic focus was very important because schools and students' success on the CSEC examinations depended on it. Additionally, an academic focus was especially important for struggling schools because students' learning was important.

Offering extra classes. The participants shared the importance of extra classes relative to increasing learning opportunities for students. Participants described extra classes by using phrases such as "catching up," "being at the same point," and "time to catch up with the time that was lost due to interruptions." The data analysis revealed that extra classes were offered for various subjects at various times. For example, extra classes were offered on Saturdays, during the Easter break, during the lunch period, and after regular school hours. One participant explained that extra classes were more common near the scheduled dates for CSEC examinations: "Coming on to the end or closer to the CSEC exams, then teachers tightened the screw." "Tightened the screw" implied that teachers were more committed to, dedicated to, and focused on providing extra classes.

Another participant, Paul, explained the important influence extra classes had on students' mathematical performances. He attributed students' performance improvements to extra classes. He said, "If we got 10 students to pass math CXC [Caribbean Examination Council], that's a lot. Now we have 80% plus passing. But it doesn't come overnight. . . . I start with the Saturday classes from First to Fourth Form [Grades 9–12] every Saturday." However, having extra classes on Saturdays became problematic because of conflicts with

students' religious beliefs and practices. Nevertheless, Paul explained that extra classes were necessary to increase learning opportunities for students and to develop their interest in mathematics.

Another participant reinforced the importance of offering extra classes, especially for the sciences. Kriston explained that many students struggled with the challenging subjects, and therefore extra classes served as an avenue to give them "a head jump." Kriston identified the challenging subjects as biology, chemistry, and physics:

> Students stay here after classes, and sometimes they go to up until 5:30. . . . Since we know da challenge subject [*sic*], we start early so they have a head jump. So when they reach third [Grade 11], they will have covered a lot of material. [December 10, 2012]

Extra classes were the modus operandi for high schools in Belize, especially as those classes related to preparing students to be successful for CSEC examinations. The data analysis revealed that extra classes occurred during various times of the regular school day, including after classes, on weekends, and on holidays.

Ensure that teachers do what they should be doing. As middle managers, participants were involved with administrative responsibilities. Although the *Education (Amendment) Rule* (*ER*) described a set of responsibilities for department heads, principals had the authority and autonomy to decide the level of administrative involvement for department heads. However, results based on the analysis of the data indicated that sometimes participants had similar involvement in administrative activities, regardless of the school context. For example, at Peter Thomas High School, Robert said, "We either patrol the campus or go around checking the building, or the classes; although it is not our department, we could do that." Sharon, from John Brown High School, shared a similar experience when she said, "I would walk this campus and just check that teachers are doing what they should be doing. I think some of them already know

that if I [am] the patrol, it is like an administrator [is] the patrol." The administrator, as Sharon described, was the school principal. In other words, when Sharon walked or patrolled the compound she represented an authority figure, the school principal.

Participants expressed how they felt about monitoring teachers. For example, Kriston claimed that he had a range of administrative work and "could not keep still." He stated that he walked around the compound to ensure that teachers were being productive in the classrooms. He also stated that sometimes he needed to be reminded of his responsibilities. As a result, he suggested,

> They should have [a] fixed number of hours that a department head should teach. If it's 15, then it's 15. I think that will make you more efficient because it's a lot of work if you want productivity in your department. [December 10, 2012]

Kaelan acknowledged that he should get out more often and walk around to keep abreast of what teachers do in the classroom. However, he revealed that he did not have the time. He explained, "I should, but because of hours, I do not get around as much. By the time I should do that I am either checking schemes, or checking my papers, or just don't want to because I'm tired."

Stacey also spoke of feeling "tired, overworked, and underpaid," when she thought of the long list of responsibilities stipulated in the ER. She said:

> Sometimes I feel tired. I feel overworked and underpaid. I think whoever is setting up those rules forgot where they came from. I can't remember what all it entails. It's pretty on paper you know, but when you start to get down to each item that you have to do, especially that section that says, "any other duties that may be given from time to time"—that is the part. [December 6, 2012]

As previously stated, participants fulfilled a range of responsibilities in addition to the classes they taught. The data analysis revealed that participants were involved in training, support, management, and monitoring of teachers in their respective departments. The data analysis also indicated that participants performed mentoring and supervisory leadership roles in supporting their colleagues' development. Perhaps the range of responsibilities that participants performed

were factors that contributed to a few of them expressing that they were "tired" and "overworked." However, one would have to question why some participants could not "keep still," had time to "patrol or walk the compound," and "check that teachers were doing what they should have been doing." One would also need to consider other contextual factors, including the numbers of teaching hours for which each participant was responsible.

Decisions about deployment. The data analysis revealed that participants, in consultation with administration, decided the deployment of the teaching staff for their respective departments. Some participants had the autonomy to make those decisions in consultation with teachers and then informed the principal. However, other departments were structured differently. Teachers were hired to fill specific vacancies; therefore, those teachers remained with those subjects and worked together, based on an alternating process. According to one participant, the alternating process only changed based on the principal's prerogative.

Other participants had more autonomy and decision-making power to decide the subjects that teachers taught. Based on results from classroom observations and supervision, participants used their autonomy to make decisions that best suited their respective departments. Robert said,

> I make the deployment, and then I tell them okay, this person will teach this amount of hours for this class, and so forth. She [the principal] just looks at it and approves it or suggests that maybe this teacher should get more classes or something like that. [December 10, 2012]

This example demonstrated the nature of collaboration between Robert and the school principal. Robert consulted with the school principal after making his deployment decisions.

Other participants, like Kriston, corroborated that as administration, he and the principal considered the minimum hours a teacher should have, which was approximately 25 hours out of a 40-hour week, and thereafter proceeded with the deployment. Stacey went a step further and said,

> We decide if we should put that teacher as a homeroom teacher, for detention, or for study hall. We know the teachers better than the principal would. If I see a teacher weak in one area, trust me, next year, I will try my best to not have that person teach that subject again. I will have them teach maybe a different subject. [December 6, 2012]

At the end of the day, the principal made the final decision about deployment. However, "95% of the time," Kriston attested, or "98% of the time," Stacey confirmed, the principal supported participants' decisions.

Participants also mentioned occasions when teachers were displeased with their decisions. Here is Stacey's story:

> I had one teacher—she wanted to teach POB [Principles of Business] in Third Form [Grade 11] this year, but I insisted that she get one IT [Information Technology] and the accounting that she has in Third Form. She already has accounting in Fourth Form [Grade 12] and a POB. She even took me to the principal because I did not give her the POB. I explained to him [the principal]: I said, "Sir, I cannot do it. You want to do it? Do it, but it is going against my wishes and what I am foreseeing." What she does not understand is that she can't get the three subjects now because she did not want to teach the IT. She wanted the POB, but she didn't want to teach any First Form [Grade 9]. First Form IT is only two periods per week, but I was trying to give everybody almost [the] exact amount of periods. I explained then that if you do your three now, next year in Fourth Form comes 13/14 [2013–2014], you will be having three sets of SBA [School Based Assessment] to be marking. The teacher gone off June came back August [*sic*], and still mad with me because I didn't give her the class. So now come in October, I guess sense started to drop in then, and she realized, "Aaah! I just the get it now [*sic*]. It was going to be more work for me. Thank you, miss—thank you, miss." [December 6, 2012]

These examples, while limited, illustrated that participants were involved in the deployment decision-making process, although some had more autonomy than others did. The examples also demonstrated that principals shared leadership roles with participants. Additionally, the examples revealed that principals allowed department heads to function in their capacities relative to making decisions about deployment for the teaching staff. Participants' involvement in the decision-making process relative to teachers' deployment was consistent with what was stipulated in the *Education (Amendment) Rule*.

School Based Assessment (SBA), which Stacey mentioned, is a research project that students who register for CSEC examinations must complete prior to taking the examination. However, only some subjects have an SBA component. Stacey's decision to "give everybody almost [the] exact amount of periods," so teachers could meet the demands of working with SBAs, confirms observations made by Richards (2004). Richards reported that secondary school teachers in Belize continued to experience challenges with meeting the expectations of subjects that had an SBA component. According to Richards, "Teachers are unable to properly interpret CXC objectives for specific subject areas in order to teach the relevant content" (p. 180).

The research literature indicated that schools have varying degrees of teacher competencies, attitudes, and social conditions (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Koellner et al., 2011; Louis et al., 2010; Robinson, 2010; Robinson & Timperley, 2007; Watson, 1994; Williams, 2009). Those factors influence teachers' capacities to deliver instruction. Teachers' instructional capacities, which include their knowledge, skills, and dispositions, affect students' learning (Arp et al., 2006; Balan et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Gordon, 2004; Nelson & Sassi, 2000; Newmann et al., 2000). Therefore, decisions regarding the subject teachers that taught were critical factors that affected students' learning.

Challenge with submitting lesson plans. Some department heads had to contend with teachers who were uncooperative about submitting weekly lesson plans. Submitting lesson plans is an important task and expectation for teachers. Three participants described teachers' uncooperative behavior as a major challenge. One participant said, "Simple things like turning in your weekly scheme, whether on time or late, just turning it in da wah [is a] challenge." Another participant said, "Some teachers approached me and said, 'I didn't hand in my lesson plan, so if you want to write me up, then write me up.'" Robert stated,

> Sometimes one or two really don't want to meet deadlines, so I have to write them up. I tell them [*pause*] you could be my best friend, but the job is the job. . . . They feel that because we are friends and so forth that they could get away with certain things, but that doesn't work. [December 10, 2012]

In this excerpt, Robert described his peer relationships. He admitted that sometimes teachers refused to meet deadlines because they considered themselves his friends and believed that they could get away with not meeting their responsibilities. Robert's admission confirmed observations by Helterbran (2008) and York-Barr and Duke (2004), who reported that collegiality impeded the development of teacher leadership. According to Helterbran (2008) and Acheson and Gall (2010), some teachers were intimidated by the expertise or behaviors of their peers, and therefore resisted their leadership.

Planning is a part of teachers' professional responsibilities. The ER stipulated and emphasized planning as follows:

> A teacher shall, under the supervision of the principal, vice principal, or head of department as applicable, develop annual and weekly teaching plans with reference to the national and school curriculum and the status and needs of his students in relation to the specified learning outcomes in the national curriculum. (p. 42)

The ER governs roles and responsibilities for educators in Belize. As highlighted in the excerpt regarding planning, teachers are required to develop teaching plans for the delivery of education. However, teachers need support with developing instructional plans. Schools hire teachers who possess varying degrees of knowledge, competencies, and dispositions. Therefore, effective planning may be dependent on teachers' interests and capabilities. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of lesson planning, as a prerequisite for effective teaching, cannot be overlooked (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Balan et al., 2011; Eggen & Kauchak, 2009; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Koellner et al., 2011; Nelson & Sassi, 2000; Robinson, 2010; Wilen et al., 2004).

The data analysis suggested that differences exist in the ways department heads operate within the same school and among the same subjects in different schools relative to when lesson plans were submitted. Perhaps the departments' unclear and unenforced guidelines for submitting lesson plans influenced teachers' uncooperative behavior. For example, Stacey and Robert were heads of business departments. At Stacey's school, teachers in her department submitted lesson plans weekly, while at Robert's school, teachers in his department had a choice. He said, "They can submit it on a daily basis or submit it on a weekly one; in the weekly plan they have to specify what they normally do." Kriston headed the math/science department at his school, and teachers submitted plans weekly. Sharon managed the science department at her school and explained how the planning worked in her department:

> If you're teaching a topic, and it will last two weeks or three weeks; then you write the plan for that period. It has its specific objectives, teaching strategies, and assessments. I check that. That is usually turned in like every two to three weeks. I try to be flexible with time. As a bio [biology] teacher, I know that some units I can teach in [a] one-week period or one day, but there are some that you need three weeks. So you need to know which unit the teachers are teaching, and if they need a whole month to finish that, they just keep me up to date with how it is going. [December 12, 2012]

Sharon explained that lesson plan submissions varied because of the length of time teachers needed to teach different concepts. As a result, teachers updated her on their progress with the instructional program.

The data analysis showed that participants described teachers' uncooperative behaviors relative to submitting lessons as a challenge. Teachers' uncooperative behaviors could be a reflection of their belief systems, values, attitudes, and approaches to work. As a result, the uncooperative behavior could be described as an adaptive challenge. Adaptive challenges are rooted in individuals' attitudes, mindsets, belief systems, and values (Donaldson, 2004; Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997; O'Sullivan & West-Burnham, 2011).

Donaldson (2004) cautioned that the first rule of thumb in addressing a challenge is to help individuals recognize and acknowledge the role they play in the challenge by pointing it out. This sounds logical because in order for departments to be effective, teachers must own the challenge and accept their responsibility for overcoming the challenge so that the department improves. This suggests that it behooves participants in the present study to be mindful that inconsistencies may exist between their depiction of the challenge and teachers' understanding of the challenge. Nevertheless, with clear and open communication, participants and teachers can explore how teachers' uncooperative behaviors relative to submitting lesson plans contribute to the challenge that department heads face as they work to increase learning opportunities for students.

Interpretation

Participants were engaged in instructional leadership because they were involved in planning, monitoring, coordinating, and improving teaching and learning. Yet only five of the seven participants described themselves as instructional leaders. Explanations such as, "I try to get all the different suggestions from everybody in my department," and "I have the capabilities, but I don't function as such; maybe it's for respect for people," were given by participants as reasons for not describing themselves as instructional leaders. The reality is that involvement in participative decision-making and showing respect for others are among the characteristics of effective instructional leaders. Nevertheless, the data analysis provided evidence that all participants perceived their instructional leadership role as that of increasing learning opportunities for students. Terms that described the instructional leadership roles included vary teaching approaches, monitor students' performance, focusing on academics, offering extra classes, ensuring that teachers did what they should be doing, and making decisions about

deployment. Those terms were also examples of methods participants used to increase learning opportunities for students. Participants also described teachers' uncooperative behavior relative to submitting weekly lesson plans as a challenge that they faced while increasing learning opportunities for students.

It is understandable for extra classes to be the modus operandi of secondary education in Belize because, as one participant said, "Schools are ranked based on their performance at the CSEC [Caribbean Secondary Education Certificate] level." Additionally, students who are successful at the CSEC level are awarded scholarships to further their educations. Perhaps for that purpose, secondary education has a heavy academic focus and leaves little to no room for extracurricular activities, especially at the Fourth Form (Grade 12) level. The data analysis showed that extra classes were offered almost on a daily basis, including during lunchtime, on Saturdays, and on holidays. As indicated in an earlier part of the analysis, in Belize, similar to other Caribbean countries, secondary education is modeled around the CSEC syllabus. Passing scores on the CSEC examinations are required for students seeking entry to the University of the West Indies and entry into business or public service employment in Belize (Bennett, 2008). Bennett ascertained that the examinations' results are used to validate the academic achievement of students leaving secondary school in Belize. Given the high status that the CSEC enjoys in Belize, one can understand the reasons that participants push for extra classes—schools want to be successful and celebrate their students' achievements.

The data analysis suggested that participants had a certain amount of positional power over staffing and class scheduling decisions. When planning teachers' workloads, Stacey wanted teachers to have almost the exact same amount of teaching periods. She wanted a fair distribution of classes so that the amount of lesson plans teachers had to prepare were evenly

distributed. Consequently, problems occurred. However, the manner in which Stacey dealt with the distribution of classes in her department was consistent with the principles of organizational justice (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Colquitt, 2001; Hoy & Tarter, 2004; Smith, Hoy, & Sweetland, 2001). In discussing organizational justice, Hoy and Tarter (2004) posited that no individual interest should take precedence over the needs of the masses and that "self-interest is subordinated to the good of the whole" (p. 252). Based on the data analysis, it was evident that Stacey's principal supported her decisions. Perhaps the principal supported her decisions because he shared Stacey's view that burdening one teacher, while not burdening the others, was not in the best interest of the department's teachers. The principal also supported Stacey's decisions because he believed in the importance of nurturing a collaborative relationship among teacher leaders.

Evaluation

Instructional leadership is based on the assumption that principals and teachers must work collaboratively to improve instruction (Glickman et al., 2011; Hallinger, 2005; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Jones, 2012; Louis et al., 2010; Weber, 1989). Instructional leadership also involves a various activities, including monitoring and providing feedback on teaching and learning, promoting a positive school climate, and communicating shared goals (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Hallinger, 2003; 2005). The data analysis showed that participants had varying perceptions of instructional leadership. Five of the seven participants described themselves as instructional leaders. Descriptions such as, "Anybody can say that I help," "I give whatever I have and show different tips—how to do this, how to do that," and "Many teachers will attest that if they don't know how to deliver something, go ask Ms. Cameron [pseudonym]; she will tell you how to bring it across" were used by participants to

describe their perceptions of themselves as instructional leaders. The two participants who did not describe themselves as instructional leaders gave explanations such as "I try to get all the different suggestions from everybody in my department" and "I have the capabilities, but I don't function as such; maybe it's for respect for people." In spite of the varying perceptions, the data analysis provided evidence that all participants were engaged in instructional leadership because they performed duties and responsibilities consistent with instructional leadership.

In this study, participants varying perceptions of instructional leaders can be understood within the context of role theory. Role theory can help leaders understand their duties and responsibilities and clarify their perceptions of organizational context. Shivers-Blackwell (2004) discovered that leaders use role theory to understand how leaders' perceptions of organizational context influenced their leadership behaviors. According to Biddle (1986), role theory addresses the expectations that leaders have for their own behaviors and the behaviors of others. Thus, Shivers-Blackwell and Biddle asserted, leaders' behaviors are contextual. Perhaps the manner in which department heads perceived their school context created expectations for their role as leaders, and, in understanding their role, some perceive themselves as instructional leaders while others did not.

Instructional leaders care about their students' learning and demonstrate a sense of personal teaching efficacy. Fritz, Miller-Heyl, Kreutzer, and MacPhee (1995) described personal teaching efficacy as an individual's ability to influence student learning. A sense of personal teaching efficacy signifies that teachers care about the performances and learning growth of their students (Eggen & Kauchak, 2009; Fritz et al., 1995; Louis et al., 2010; Moolenar, Daly, & Sleegers, 2010). The framework for that sense of efficacy is Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy concept. Self-efficacy is a cognitive process that refers to the belief individuals have about their

capabilities (Bandura, 1997; Benz, Bradley, Alderman, & Flowers, 1992; Eggen & Kauchak, 2009; Fritz et al., 1995). Eggen and Kauchak (2009) and Benz et al. (1992) explained that self - efficacy included outcome expectancy and efficacy expectations. Outcome expectancy is the belief that participants' behavioral practices could lead to expected outcomes. In this study, those behavioral practices based on the participants' perspectives include varying teaching approaches, monitoring students' performance, focusing on academics, offering extra classes, ensuring that teachers did what they were mandated to do, and making decisions about deployment. Efficacy expectations refer to participants' beliefs about their own competence to bring about expected outcomes. Based on analyzing data for this study, the expected outcome was an increase in learning opportunities for students. According to Benz et al. (1992), Eggen and Kauchak (2009), and Fritz et al. (1995), personal teaching efficacy has been reported to have an effect on students' achievement and competencies. These researchers' findings suggested that to increase learning opportunities for students, school principals, school management, and other key stakeholders in education should work collaboratively and examine how to change or strengthen teachers' senses of self-efficacy.

Archer and Cameron (2009) cautioned that challenges always exist, and Kouzes and Posner (2007) ascertained that leadership involves some of kind challenge. As a result, Archer and Cameron recommended that leaders "spot the risks, prepare for them, and tackle problems before they spiral out of control" (p. 44). The data analysis revealed that some participants were faced with the challenge of certain teachers' uncooperative behaviors relative to submitting lesson plans. The challenge may have been because of teachers' self-efficacy. However, the challenge was described as an adaptive challenge. Participants could not, despite their formal authority, solve adaptive challenges because adaptive challenges are grounded in people's

attitudes, values, habits, loyalties, mindsets, behaviors, and approaches to work (Donaldson, 2004; Heifetz et al., 2009; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997; O'Sullivan & West-Burnham, 2011). Heifetz and Linsky (2002) described adaptive challenges in this way:

> There is a whole host of problems that are not amenable to authoritative expertise or standard operating procedures. They cannot be solved by someone who provides answers from on high. We call these adaptive challenges because they require experiments, new discoveries, and adjustments from numerous places in the organization or community. Without learning new ways—changing attitudes, values, and behaviors—people cannot make the adaptive leap necessary to thrive in the new environment. The sustainability of change depends on having the people with the problem internalize the change itself. (p. 13)

Heifetz and Linsky's assertion suggests that adaptive challenges require change and new learning across departmental boundaries. The changes and new learning must occur in individuals' belief system, mindset, roles, relationships, and approaches to their work (Donaldson, 2004; Heifetz et al., 2009; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997; O'Sullivan & West-Burnham, 2011). Adaptive challenges could also require that participants get "on the balcony" (Heifetz & Linsky, 2002). Getting "on the balcony" requires participants to make a critical analysis of how departmental and school governance structures affect their abilities to fulfill their responsibilities. With a perspective from the balcony, participants may be able to discover what behaviors, values, and practices are recognized, rewarded, encouraged, and discouraged.

Thematics

The general goal of instructional leadership is to increase students' learning (Glickman et al., 2011; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Weber, 1989). For this reason, instructional leaders are expected to have pedagogical knowledge and provide an environment conducive to teaching and learning (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Desimone et al., 2006; Hallinger, 2003; Klein & Riordan 2009; Marks & Printy, 2003; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Printy & Marks, 2006; Weber, 1989). The data analysis provided evidence that all participants

were engaged in instructional leadership behaviors because they performed duties and activities consistent with instructional leadership.

Scholars defined instructional leaders as leaders who provide resources and support in the use of best instructional practices, promote a positive learning environment, manage the instructional program, and improve instruction (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Hallinger, 2003, 2005; Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Weber, 1989). Additionally, Glanz (2006), Jones (2012), and Louis et al. (2010) described instructional leaders as those who create school environments in which people care about and educate students. Jones further described instructional leaders as those who possess qualities such as passion and curiosity. The data analysis showed that participants cared about their students and were passionate and curious about teaching and learning. Based on my perspective and experience as an educator, someone must be passionate about teaching and learning to give up their Saturdays, holidays, and lunchtime to provide extra classes. One participant said, “Students stay here after classes, and sometimes they go to up until 5:30.” Another said, “It doesn’t come overnight. . . . I start with the Saturday classes from First to Fourth Form [Grades 9–12] every Saturday.” In discussing curiosity, Jones described the instructional leader as one who was curious about why some pedagogical strategies worked and why others did not. This curiosity was displayed by a participant who said, “This is the first time I took my time and analyzed the results. I noticed that in areas like statistics and matrices, students were really weak. We would get grades like 2/13, like 3/12. . . . This year, I shifted the way how [*sic*] we teach the Fourth Formers.”

One critical element that affected learning opportunities for students was teachers’ instructional approaches, especially in mathematics. As Paul explained, “It’s not necessarily the topics or the materials taught, but how it is taught and the sequence used by teachers.”

Participants' concerns for the success of their math students were understandable because in Belize, students must pass mathematics in order to advance to another form. If students were successful in all subjects except mathematics, they would repeat the year. Participants' concerns reinforced the expectations that schools must create conditions that support effective teaching and learning (Fullan, 2001; Leithwood et al., 2008; Marks & Printy, 2003; Wilen et al., 2004). Additionally, participants' concerns emphasized the notion that teachers must move away from the "one-size-fits-all" approach to teaching and learning. Kriston reinforced that idea when he said, "Everyone can learn mathematics, but teachers need to use an approach that will make it real and interesting." Believing that students can learn through differentiated approaches is also well documented in the literature (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Eggen & Kauchak, 2010; Glanz, 2006; Gordon, 2004; Hallinger, 2003; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Jones, 2012; Leithwood et al., 2004; Louis et al., 2010; Marks & Printy, 2003; Miller, Linn, & Gronlund, 2009; Nelson & Sassi, 2000; Wilen et al., 2004).

Scholars describe effective instructional leaders as possessing the same qualities as transformational leaders (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Glanz, 2006; Hallinger, 2003, 2005; Jones, 2012; Louis et al., 2010; Marks & Printy, 2003; Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Weber, 1989). Transformational leadership includes four dimensions—idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. In this study, participants exercised intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation. In expressing inspirational motivation, participants worked collaboratively with teachers and encouraged them to go the extra mile to create conditions that support the improvement of effective teaching and learning. Participants who practiced intellectual stimulation challenged teachers to be innovative and creative. For example, two participants encouraged teachers to vary their

approaches to the teaching of mathematics and explore alternative approaches that would make the teaching of mathematics interesting while simultaneously increasing students' mathematical achievement.

Provide Technical and Vocational Teachers Access to Professional Training and Development in Technical and Vocational Education

This section of the chapter is organized around the theme—provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education. The theme is a perspective from which to view and understand the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in the present study. The discussion revolves around the views of two participants—Kaelan and Kathrine—because they were the only participants with responsibilities for technical departments at their respective schools. Eisner's (1998) educational criticism is used to present the participants' experiences. The description phase includes data excerpts that capture participants' voices. The discussion of the analysis then moves to interpretation of the descriptions, evaluation of the data, and, finally to a discussion of thematics.

Description

Of the seven participants, three had technical qualifications. However, only Kaelan and Kathrine were in charge of the technical departments at their respective schools. Therefore, only their views are represented in this section of the data analysis. This does not imply that their views are representative of all technical teachers in Belize. However, considering "the lack of development of technical education in Belize," as highlighted by Kaelan, the situation of other technical teachers in Belize may be similar.

Lower-level qualifications for technical teachers. The 1983 UNESCO Mission Report (as cited in Bennett, 2008) identified several problems that existed with technical vocational education, including the lack of qualified teachers and the inadequate facilities and equipment. Even 30 years after the UNESCO Mission Report's publication, the lack of qualified teachers in technical and vocational education remained a problem. Kaelan oversaw the technical department and held an associate degree in building and civil engineering. He was the most qualified in the department, while other teachers had craft certificates, practical certificates, and other forms of associate degrees. Kaelan wanted to pursue a bachelor's degree in technical education. However, graduate programs in the area of technical vocational education were not offered in Belize. This lack of investment in training for technical teachers led Kaelan to make the following observation:

> In the technical department, you will find lower-level qualified teachers than in other department in terms of having degrees, and until somebody decides let's sit down, and look at it, and train them, we will always have a problem. [December 11, 2012]

The statement highlighted Kaelan's concern for the development of vocational education and training. The use of "somebody" refers to policymakers, school management, or other stakeholders in Belizean education.

The underdevelopment of technical vocational education in Belize (Bennett, 2008) brings into question the adequacy of craft and practical certificates as qualifications for effective teaching. As a result, and as Kaelan indicated, a need existed for vocational teachers to update their skills and acquire new qualifications. The 1988 World Bank report (as cited in Bennett, 2008) found that teachers lacked training in pedagogy of technical content. The report was consistent with the status of technical vocational education in Belize as discussed in the report by the MOE (2012b). Analysis of the data suggested that technical teachers have a technical

background but lack pedagogical training. Kaelan explained the concept of pedagogical and technical skills:

> There is no specific [*pause*] well, pedagogy is general, but at the same time, you can have it taught or trained with a technical bias. That isn't done any at all [*sic*]. That is what disenfranchises a lot of technical teachers because they see themselves first as a trade person. So why do I need pedagogy when the skills that I have are the skills that I want to impart? So I don't need pedagogy, and that is a challenge. [December 11, 2012]

Kaelan used the word "disenfranchise" to describe the situation of technical teachers. He questioned the significance of pedagogical skills in relation to technical skills, especially when vocational teachers already possessed the technical skills needed to prepare students for the workforce.

Mandate requiring license to teach. In August 2000, Belize's Ministry of Education and Youth introduced new legislation that required all elementary and secondary school teachers to have a license to teach, including vocational teachers. Teachers' academic and professional qualifications determined the types of licenses they obtained—full, professional, or special. The *Education (Amendment) Rule* explained that teachers with the necessary level of academic qualifications in the subject area could apply for a full license. However, those who lacked some of the qualifications for a full license could apply for a provisional license, and those who possessed specialized skills or experiences specifically required by a school could apply for a special license. A full license in Belize is renewable every 5 years, while a special license is for an initial period of 2 years and is subject to renewal at that time. Kathrine's primary concern dealt with teacher licensure, in particular, the special license, as she explained:

> Vocational teachers have a special license, which is valid for only two years until further training. There is no training in Belize for vo-tech [vocational technical] teachers. We were told that UB [University of Belize] offers training, but when we did our research, we found that UB offers [a] diploma program only for AA [Associate of Arts]. The certificate programs at UB are tailored for primary school and not secondary. The program does not apply to vo-tech teachers. We have lost our annual increment until we further qualify ourselves. How are we going to qualify ourselves when there is no

> training in Belize? We have to go outside, and if ministry gives us study leave, it will be without pay. It's very demoralizing. The vocational teachers are concerned, but no one wants to take the initiative to address the issue; everyone is afraid. We have written to those in authority asking [for] an audience to explore our situation, but we haven't gotten a respond [*sic*]. [December 12, 2012]

Katherine used "demoralizing" to describe how vocational teachers felt about the new legislation. Her explanation showed that opportunities for vocational teachers to update their professional qualifications in Belize were nonexistent.

Interpretation

Kaelan and Kathrine have been teaching vocational education (VE) at the secondary level for 12 and 20 years, respectively. Unquestionably, they have developed a repertoire of knowledge, competencies, disposition, values, and beliefs about the teaching and learning process from their experiences and other resources. Although their classroom experiences cannot be discounted, neither can their desire for pedagogical training in the field of vocational and technical education. Participants discussed the pedagogical challenges facing VE. The lack of pedagogical training created a ripple effect for participants because it affected the status of their teachers' licenses, annual increments, and job security. Participants expressed similar concerns for teachers in their departments who held craft and practical certificates.

Teachers must be licensed in order to teach in Belize. Mandating teaching licensing for primary and secondary school teachers in Belize has created an urgency among untrained teachers to seek and/or upgrade their academic and professional qualifications. As a result, the Ministry of Education [MOE] has authorized several junior colleges to offer teacher education programs for primary school teachers to satisfy this demand (Thompson, 2008). At the high school level, Galen University and the University of Belize (UB) offer courses in academic and business education. Therefore, secondary school teachers can upgrade their academic

qualifications at either of the universities. However, whereas the pedagogical needs of high school teachers in the field of academic and business education are being met, the same cannot be said for vocational teachers. Perhaps this is why participants described their teachers as being "disenfranchised" and "demoralized." The inequality in access to training and development between academic and vocational teachers could have led to what E. Smith and Grace (2011) described as "pedagogical under-qualification of the VET [Vocational Education Training] workforce" (p. 206). The inequality in access to training and development could also have led Kaelan to conclude, "In the technical department, you will find lower-level qualified teachers than in other departments."

Having an associate's degree in building and civil engineering and fashion merchandizing, respectively, suggested that Kaelan and Kathrine were qualified in their fields. However, vocational qualification is not synonymous with academic qualification. Furthermore, the licensing requirements to teach in Belize have a heavy academic bias, thus directly or indirectly creating a teaching force of "haves" and "have nots." As Kaelan explained, "Until somebody decides let's sit down, and look at it, and train them, we will always have a problem."

Evaluation

The significance of technical vocational education in Belize has been recognized from the days of British colonial government rule (Bennett, 2008). Yet, the MOE report (2012b) indicated that vocational education (VE) in Belize remained problematic. This statement echoed the findings of the 1983 UNESCO Mission Report and the 1988 World Bank report (as cited in Bennett, 2008). Perhaps VE remained problematic because in the Caribbean context, governments have regarded VE as a remedy to the problem of school-leaver unemployment or as

a last resort (Lewis, 2009; Miller, 2009). This mentality has created a disservice to vocational educators.

Mjelda and Daly (2012) suggested that problems in VE could be addressed at the grassroots level by engaging in research and documenting local knowledge. Mjelda and Daly posited that this strategy has been used in mentoring students in vocational pedagogy in Norway. This suggestion sounds practical and feasible for Belize. Given that Belize has a poor research culture and that VE remains problematic, research in VE would be of benefit to policymakers. For example, interviewees from this study could conduct research projects that focus on problems they encounter while teaching in the vocational field. The research study results could then be used to develop effective policies, practices, and programs that improve and professionalize vocational education at the secondary level, while simultaneously professionalizing the vocational education teaching force in Belize.

The data analysis suggested that professional training and pedagogical knowledge with technical content were significant concerns for participants. These were valid concerns because it is well documented in the research literature that instructional leaders are expected to have pedagogical knowledge and provide an environment conducive to teaching and learning (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Desimone et al., 2006; Hallinger, 2003; Klein & Riordan, 2009; Marks & Printy, 2003; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Printy & Marks, 2006; Weber, 1989). Participants' concerns mirrored the observation of Spillane and Seashore Louis (2002), who wrote:

> Without an understanding of the knowledge necessary for teachers to teach well—content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, content specific pedagogical knowledge, curricular knowledge, and knowledge of learners—school leaders will be unable to perform essential school improvement functions such as monitoring instruction and supporting teacher development. (p. 97)

This statement implies that professional training and pedagogical knowledge could provide participants with the opportunity to hone their instructional leadership practices (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Robinson, 2010; Watson, 1994). Lam (2011), Mjelda and Daly (2012). Nelson and Sassi (2000) found that pedagogical content knowledge influenced leadership and classroom practices. These researchers' findings were consistent with the observation made by Spillane and Seashore Louis (2002). The findings implied that as participants fostered a deeper understanding of the tenets of effective teaching in their relevant subject areas, they could change or revise preconceptions and misconceptions about teaching and learning.

Thematics

Technical vocational education includes vocational training, apprenticeship education, career education, and workforce education. However, a precise definition or description of technical vocational education varies by country and context (Francis, 2004; Lynch, 2000; Rojewski, 2002). In Belize, technical and vocational education refers to prevocational and vocational programs for the development of technical, vocational, and entrepreneurial skills at the secondary level (Ministry of Education, 2003). Vocational education at the secondary level in Belize includes various technical subjects such as woodwork, home economics, arts and crafts, mechanical engineering, food and nutrition, electricity, and metalwork (Bennett, 2008; Francis, 2004).

Historically, vocational education was introduced into secondary schools with the goal of preparing students for the workforce (Bennett, 2008; Castellano, Stringfield, & Stone, 2003; Francis, 2004; Lynch, 2000; Silverberg et al., 2004; Watson, 1994). The research literature on vocational education showed that vocational education programs were designed for students who were at risk for not finishing school or for students who were regarded as underachievers or

intellectually challenged (Castellano et al., 2003; Darwin, 2007; Lewis, 2009; Miller, 2009). Nevertheless, each child, including those in Belizean classrooms, should have access to qualified teachers and adequate resources that could enable them to become gainfully employed and be a productive and contributing member of society. As stated in the MOE report (2012b), all high schools, including vocational technical high schools in Belize, should have a teaching force in which certified and competent teachers are the norm, not the exception.

Findings from this study showed that vocational technical teachers have a technical background but lack pedagogical training. Findings also revealed that as department heads, vocational teachers influenced the teaching and learning process. Therefore, as agents of change, access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education should be regarded as a significant issue that affects the effectiveness and quality of the delivery of education at the secondary level (Darwin, 2007; Halliday, 2004; Saunders, 2012; Silverberg et al., 2004). This suggests that policymakers' attention to professional training and development in technical and vocational education at the secondary level should be a matter of focus for the Belize Ministry of Education, especially when the quality of teacher education is crucial in determining the skills of workers in the Belizean economy.

Summary

This chapter discussed the analysis of data collected from documents and interviews during the present study. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven participants regarding their perceptions and descriptions of their leadership roles. This chapter also addressed my experiences before and during data collection and the four strategies used to ensure credibility, warrant, and transparency—educational connoisseurship (Eisner, 1998), positionality (Kanuha, 2000; Milner, 2007), subjectivity (Peshkin, 1988), and reflexivity (Patton, 2002). Analytic triangulation (Azulia & Rankin, 2012; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Thurmond, 2001)

structured the analytic process through three qualitative data analysis strategies—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998). Based on the analysis of the data, three themes were developed: (a) build instructional capacity, (b) increase learning opportunities for students, and (c) provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education. These three themes framed the presentation and discussion of the data and provided perspectives from which to view and understand the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at the two schools in the study.

CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 4 included an analysis of the data collected from documents and interviews during the study. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with seven participants regarding their perceptions and descriptions of their leadership roles. Documentary data were analyzed to corroborate and triangulate the interview data. Three data analysis strategies were used in the study—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998). The analysis of both the interview and documentary data in Chapter 4 resulted in the three themes that will be summarized in this chapter.

This final chapter includes three sections. The first section summarizes the purpose of the study, the related literature, and the methodology of the study. The second section summarizes the data analysis and themes as well as offer conclusions for the study. The third section presents implications for policy and practice and offers recommendations for future research. A summary concludes the chapter.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize, using qualitative methods to collect and analyze data regarding the roles of department heads. The results of the present study contribute to the discussion of school effectiveness and school improvement by describing the roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. These results were especially timely because at the time of the present study, the Belizean education system was being fundamentally reformed.

Related Literature Summary

The study examined the leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize and addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the leadership roles of secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize?
2. How do secondary schools department heads at two government schools in Belize perceive and describe their roles as instructional leaders?

The literature review discussed extant research on the responsibilities of secondary school department heads. The review began with a brief overview of secondary education in Belize and continued with a discussion of the department heads' leadership roles, teacher leadership, professional development, and the importance of instructional supervision. The theoretical framework of instructional leadership (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Gupton, 2003; Hallinger, 2005; Weber, 1989), transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Marks & Printy, 2003; Moss & Ritossa, 2007; Northouse, 2013), and role theory (Biddle, 1986; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Schmidt, 2000; Shivers-Blackwell, 2004) guided the study.

Secondary Education in Belize

In August 2000, the Ministry of Education and Youth (MOE) introduced new legislation that required all elementary and secondary school teachers to have a license to teach. Still, many high school teachers did not have the qualifications to teach the assigned subject areas (Thompson, 2008), and a substantial number still do not possess the necessary professional qualifications (Ministry of Education, 2008). This lack of qualification posed a significant threat to the quality of instruction that occurred at the high school level.

A MOE report (2012b) affirmed that Belize does not offer training in school leadership and that leadership at all levels of the education system is weak. Cognizant of the role that effective leaders play in driving school improvement efforts, the ministry has embarked on several initiatives to improve the quality and governance of education in Belize. One of those

initiatives, *The Quality Child Friendly School Initiative* (QCFSI), targeted school leadership. The aim of the initiative was to strengthen school leadership and management for school effectiveness by increasing autonomy, responsibility, and accountability at all school levels.

Leadership Roles of Department Heads

Department heads in Belize play a fundamental role in providing leadership to the school in the areas of pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment (Ministry of Education, 2003). However, no empirical studies on the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize were found. What were found were studies on other aspects of school leadership in Belize, for example, *School Leadership in Belize: The Interrelationships of Context, Cognitive Frames, and Leader Characteristics* (Hodge, 2003), *Instructional Leadership and Student Achievement in Belizean Secondary Schools* (Cayetano, 2011), and *Instructional Leadership in Belizean Elementary Schools* (Babb, 2012).

The research literature in the United States suggested that department heads occupy key positions between principals and classroom teachers (Dinham, 2005; Mayers & Zepeda, 2002; Sergiovanni,1984), shared instructional leadership with the school administration (Collier et al., 2002; Flectcher-Campbell, 2003; Little, 2000; Lomos et al., 2011), and play a significant role in instructional leadership and curricular support (Dinham, 2007; Harris et al., 2011; Wise, 2011). Yet the nature of subject leadership was questionable and debatable (Poultney, 2007). Nevertheless, De Lima (2008) affirmed that leadership remained a critical feature of departmental culture. This may be because department heads were influential in promoting student achievement and teachers' professional growth (Dinham, 2007; Harris et al., 2011; Kuhlemeier & van den Bergh, 2000).

Teacher Leadership

If schools are to provide the kind of culture conducive to and necessary for student and teacher success, school leaders need to explore avenues that support and nurture teacher leadership (Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; Danielson, 2006). Teacher leadership has been described as a response to the need for an increase in school leadership, school effectiveness, and school improvement (Frost & Durrant, 2003; Hook, 2006) and as a mechanism to facilitate and influence instruction that positively impacts student learning (Donaldson, 2004; Kuhlemeier & van den Bergh, 2000; Leithwood et al., 2004; Little, 2000). However, barriers exist which hinder the support and effectiveness of teacher leadership (Helterbran, 2008; Wynne, 2001). According to Helterbran (2008) and Wynne (2001), those barriers include school schedules, lack of principals' support, and the nature of collaboration and interaction among colleagues. Time, which inhibits teachers from taking initiatives to lead, hierarchal structures, and peer resistance also hinder the development of teacher leadership (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blegen & Kennedy, 2000; Helterbran, 2008; Hook, 2006; Little, 2000; McEwan, 2003; Wynne, 2001).

Professional Development Needs of Department Heads

The research literature on professional development suggested that department heads need high-quality professional development to enrich their capabilities and knowledge, especially as it relate to teaching and learning (Bak & Onn, 2010; Desimone et al., 2006; Gordon, 2004; Klein & Riordan, 2009; Koellner et al., 2011; Newmann et al., 2000). However, Darling-Hammond (2010) recommended that professional development should be a fundamental aspect of teachers' professional lives, as opposed to the traditional "flavor-of-the-month" workshop (p. 228). Darling-Hammond's recommendation is important because what teachers

learn through professional development should be aligned with the school's curriculum and expectations.

Importance of Instructional Supervision

Supervision is a cornerstone of school improvement efforts directed at enhancing the quality of instruction in schools (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Glickman et al., 2011; Gupton, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Although different individuals may be responsible for conducting supervision, the need to improve the quality of teaching and learning through instructional supervision cannot be over emphasized (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blase & Blase, 2004; Zepeda, 2003).

Theoretical Framework

For this study, theories helped clarify and make predictions about leadership practices in all types of organizations, including secondary schools in Belize. The leadership theories that framed this study were instructional leadership, transformational leadership, and leader-role theory. For some individuals, instructional leadership involves various activities, including coordinating, supervising, and evaluating curriculum and instruction, as well as providing feedback on instruction (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Hallinger, 2003, 2005; Hook, 2006; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Marks & Printy, 2003; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Sergiovanni, 1984). Transformational leadership has been described as a process whereby leaders morally and ethically transform followers and motivate them to exceed beyond their potentials (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Guthrie & Schuermann, 2010; Hoffman et al., 2011; Marks & Printy, 2003; Northouse, 2013; Sagnak, 2010; Sosik et al., 2002). Leader-role theory has been used to understand how leaders' perceptions of the

organizational setting influence their leadership behaviors (Biddle, 1986; Schmidt, 2000; Shivers-Blackwell, 2004).

Methodology

Data collection involved open-ended semi-structured interviews with seven secondary school department heads from two government schools in Belize. Initially, 11 participants were invited to participate in the study. However, of the 11, seven were interviewed. Data collection also involved purposeful selections of school and policy documents. Those sections included teachers' licensing, department heads' job descriptions, secondary education curriculum, and policy objectives pertaining to improving the quality and relevance of education at all levels of the Belizean education system.

Studies on the leadership roles of secondary school department heads within the Belizean context were not found in the research literature. What were found were studies on various aspects of school leadership (Babb, 2012; Cayetano, 2011; Hodge, 2003). Consequently, examining the leadership role of secondary school department heads in Belize became an area of interest that needed exploration. To facilitate exploration, qualitative methods were selected because they were appropriate for an empirical examination (Creswell, 2009; Huberman & Miles, 2002; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Yin, 2009). Open-ended, semi-structured interview was the primary method of data collection. Open-ended, semi-structured interviews gave participants voice so they could describe their experiences in their own words and from their perspectives. Using open-ended, semi-structured interviews, I was able to capture and illuminate participants' experiences about their leadership roles—"how they perceive it, describe it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it, and talk about it with others" (Patton, 2002, p. 104).

Data Analysis and Themes Summary

Three data analysis strategies were used in the study—content analysis (Patton, 2002), inductive analysis (Hatch, 2002), and educational criticism (Eisner, 1998). Eisner's educational criticism has four elements—description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics. Description is at the heart of qualitative research (Wolcott, 1994). Description transports readers into the described setting and allows them to see what occurs as if they were present (Patton, 2002). Interpretation addresses questions of meanings and contexts (Eisner, 1998; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Wolcott, 1994). Evaluation provides readers an opportunity to make judgments about the educational value of the research context—in this study, what transpires in schools. Thematics elucidates recurring ideas, statements, and multiple perspectives that occur during the analysis and integrates them with extant theories and literature.

Using Hatch's (2002) data analysis, three themes were developed during the study: (a) build instructional capacity, (b) increase learning opportunities for students, and (c) provide technical and vocational teachers access to professional training and development in technical and vocational education. The data analysis discussion was organized around these themes. Some data discussed in one theme also connected to other themes.

Build Instructional Capacity

The first theme demonstrated that participants recognized their leadership roles as building instructional capacity. Day (2001) and Fullan (2011) described capacity building as an investment in the development of an individual or a whole group to accomplish significant improvements. Building instructional capacity is considered important for school effectiveness because it supports school improvement efforts and enhances the quality of teaching and learning in schools (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Participants recognized that building instructional

capacity was about creating conditions and supporting those conditions for growth and development. For example, within the Belizean context, participants were engaged in direct assistance within the processes of supervision, mentoring, and team. Participants also were involved in and facilitated professional development sessions. Scholars agreed that professional development addressed areas of school capacity such as teachers' knowledge, skills, and dispositions (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Bak & Onn, 2010; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Koellner et al., 2011; Newmann et al., 2000). Building instructional capacity was an important leadership role for department heads. The research literature showed that instructional capacity increase teachers' potential while indirectly affecting students' learning (Arp et al., 2006; Balan et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Gordon, 2004; Lomos et al., 2011; Louis et al., 2010; Robinson & Timperley, 2007; Wilen et al., 2004).

Increase Learning Opportunities for Students

Instructional leaders are those who provide resources and support in the use of best instructional practices, promote a positive learning environment, manage the instructional program, and improve instruction (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Hallinger, 2003, 2005; Mitchell & Castle, 2005; Weber, 1989). The data analysis showed that all participants were engaged in instructional leadership behaviors because they were involved in planning, monitoring, and coordinating the improvement of teaching and learning. Nevertheless, differences existed between participants who believed they were instructional leaders and those who believed they were not. The two participants who did not acknowledge that they were instructional leaders made comments such as, "I try to get all the different suggestions from everybody in my department," and "I have the capabilities, but I don't function as such; maybe it's for respect for people." The reality is that involvement in participative decision-making and

showing respect for others are among the characteristics of an instructional leader. Those who described themselves as instructional leaders made comments such as, “Anybody can say that I help,” “I give whatever I have and show different tips—how to do this, how to do that,” and “Many teachers will attest that if they don’t know how to deliver something, go ask Ms. Cameron [pseudonym]; she will tell you how to bring it across.” These revelations showed that participants provided support to others, displayed personal teaching efficacy, and cared about teaching and learning. Those characteristics reflect the attributes of instructional leaders as described in the extant research literature.

Provide Technical and Vocational Teachers Access to Professional Training and Development in Technical and Vocational Education

All teachers, including vocational teachers, must be licensed to teach in Belize. Mandating teachers’ licensing in August 2000 created a surge of urgency among untrained teachers to seek and/or upgrade their academic and professional qualifications. At the same time, some teachers, especially vocational teachers, felt threatened, demoralized, and disenfranchised by the mandate. Teachers must possess academic and professional qualifications in order to maintain their teachers’ licenses; they must also have training in pedagogy. However, the data analysis indicated that pedagogical training with technical content was not offered in Belize. Although teachers have a moral obligation to seek professional training, the data suggested that professional training and development in Belize have traditionally been restricted to academics and excluded vocational and technical education. This inequality in teacher training and development led one participant to say, “In the technical department, you will find lower-level qualified teachers than in other departments.” The inequality between training for

academics and training for vocational teachers has created what E. Smith and Grace (2011) described as "pedagogical under-qualification of the VET workforce" (p. 206).

Conclusions

Three major conclusions resulted from the study. First, department heads in Belize are school leaders whose multifaceted roles include myriad duties, responsibilities, and obligations. Second, secondary school department heads in Belize are street-level bureaucrats. Meyers and Vorsanger (2003) and S. R. Smith (2003) described street-level bureaucrats as public servants who implement and enforce policies and regulations through their day-to-day routines and decisions they make. The results of this study indicated that as street-level bureaucrats, department heads collaborated with teachers through their classroom routines and leadership practices, were perceptive about school issues and improvements, made decisions that affected instructional programs, and implemented and enforced school policies relative to improving school instructional programs. Although the implementation and enforcement of policies vary across contexts, Meyers and Vorsanger (2003) and S. R. Smith (2003) warned policymakers that achievement and success of policy goals are largely dependent on the collaborative networking among all key stakeholders in education. More importantly, achievement and success rests on the competencies, capabilities, and expertise of street-level bureaucrats because they have numerous opportunities to influence the implementation and enforcement of school policies—hence, the emphasis in this study on the provision of sustained professional training and development for secondary school department heads in Belize. Third, policymakers, school managers, and department heads need to invest in sustained professional training and development that are specifically designed for department heads. Training for department heads is essential because these leaders perform fundamental roles in influencing the teaching-learning

process. However, while training is crucial for departmental leaders, the results depend on contextual factors and department heads' readiness and competence.

The range of duties and responsibilities for department heads could increase the challenges they face as school leaders. Results from the present study indicate that in addition to the classes they teach, department heads had additional responsibilities for teaching and learning in their departments. For example, department heads performed mentoring and supervisory roles while supporting colleagues' development. They played a critical role in enabling their departments to increase students' learning opportunities. Additionally, they facilitated professional development in the areas of classroom management, instructional techniques, assessment, and discipline. Sections of the *Education (Amendment) Rule* relate directly to these responsibilities:

> A head of department shall be required to provide educational leadership to the school or institution especially in the areas of pedagogy, curriculum and assessment . . . assist in the clinical supervision of teachers and provide appropriate support for teachers in areas that include child-centered teaching strategies, relevant, ongoing assessment of and for learning and effective classroom management practices. (p. 41)

Although the legislation increased the number of responsibilities for department heads, it also suggested that these professionals play a critical role in school leadership. Yet this study showed that department heads fulfilled their range of responsibilities without the benefits of training in school leadership or sustained training as instructional leaders and department heads. Determining whether the leadership that department heads provide was effective was outside the scope of this study. However, the study identified a lack of professional training for department heads as a deficiency at the two secondary schools where participants worked. In response to the statement, "Tell me about your preparation to assume the role of department heads," participants indicated they had received no training to prepare them for their leadership roles. One

participant described her preparation: “It’s not like there was a manual out there to help me. As we would say, buck and stop. You buck, you learn, and you continue again.” Another said, “My principal looked at me and said, ‘If you can do better, show me.’” Yet another said, “I don’t have anything over them more than practice; it’s just years of experience and a love for the job. I’ve tried this and that [did not] work, and I try this, and [that] one [did not] work.”

Although participants did not receive training prior to assuming their leadership roles, data indicated that they all had participated in at least one department head training during their leadership tenures. The results from the present study indicated that department heads are school leaders and therefore could benefit from sustained professional development. Scholars agreed that sustained professional development could provide department heads with opportunities to enhance their capabilities and competencies, develop new instructional techniques, refine practices, and keep abreast of current educational trends and developments (Bak & Onn, 2010; Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Desimone et al., 2006; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Klein & Riordan, 2009; Koellner et al., 2011; Newmann et al., 2003; Payne & Wolfson, 2000; Robinson & Timperley, 2007).

In Belize, strengthening school leadership was one of the priorities on the education policy agenda for the MOE at the time of the present study. Therefore, as policymakers in Belize seek to transform the education system, expectations for school leadership will likely change. Aligned with those changes, the roles of school leaders, including department heads, could also change or increase. Noteworthy is that the MOE report (2012b) showed that principals, vice principals, and other district personnel were targeted to receive training in school leadership. Although the *Education (Amendment) Rules* require department heads to provide educational leadership to the school, the irony is that, in spite of that requirement, the MOE

report (2012b) does not target department heads to receive training in school leadership. This exclusion suggests that policymakers' perceptions of what constitutes school leadership and those who are identified as school leaders must be clearly defined, because perceptions matter.

Extant research suggests that effective school improvement efforts and purposeful investment in leader development build organizational capacity, which in turn positively affects instruction and students' achievements (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Arp et al., 2006; Balan et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Day & Harris, 2003; Dinham et al., 2011; Fullan, 2001; Gordon, 2004; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Lambert, 2003; Lomos et al., 2011; Louis et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2008; Williams, 2009; Wilen et al., 2004). As a result, it is recommended that policymakers in Belize's MOE include department heads in the target group to be trained in school leadership. The recommendation is important because the results of this study indicated that similar to the school principal, department heads in Belize are key stakeholders and agents of instructional change who directly contribute to school improvement. Like principals, department heads in Belize are also involved in training, support, management, and monitoring of teachers. Like principals, department heads in Belize also face challenges as they fulfill their range of responsibilities and therefore need the necessary competencies to effectively combat those challenges. Department heads in Belize not only need training and development—they also need adequate resources and adaptive skills to cope with the challenges endemic to their roles.

The results from this study indicated that in Belize, department head leadership is important for the enhancement of schools' curricula. The results also suggested that department heads have the potential to promote quality and effectiveness of teaching and learning in schools. Therefore, the leadership role of department heads in Belize could be pivotal in maintaining and

raising the standard of education not only in the two schools that participated in the study, but also in other secondary schools in the country.

Hallinger and Heck (2010), Marks and Printy (2003), and Guthrie and Schuermann (2010) have recommended that school improvement efforts be shared among principals, teachers, administrators, and other professionals. Although shared leadership may raise questions about accountability (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Bradford & Cohen, 1998; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Ovando & Ramirez, 2007; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Schmidt, 2000), shared leadership makes sense, especially in education systems like Belize, in which school leadership improvement is a matter of focus and policy.

Implications for Policy and Practice

The present study suggested important implications for policy and practice in Belize. In understanding secondary school department heads' perceptions relative to their leadership roles, policymakers may want to determine whether the role of department head is necessary in Belize's secondary schools. Additionally, policymakers may wish to determine whether the leadership that high school department heads provide is necessary for improving teachers' professionalism, for improving teaching quality, and for increasing student achievement (Kuhlemeier & van den Bergh, 2000). As the Belizean educational system goes through its reform process, it is important to consider and understand key stakeholders' perceptions regarding their leadership roles. Results from this study may be used to build a knowledge base consisting of other studies on school leadership in Belize. Findings from this study have several implications for improving secondary education in Belize.

1. *Training and development should be conducted before assuming the role of department head.*

Participants acknowledged that they received no training prior to assuming the roles of department heads. However, participants recognized that training at the departmental level would have been beneficial to make them more aware of their responsibilities. As policymakers the MOE aim to strengthen school leadership, the need to prepare department heads before they assume their duties and responsibilities should be a priority.

2. Teachers need to be educated about department heads' duties and responsibilities.

School management and district personnel should provide a participative, holistic school management style of training to increase teachers' awareness of and understanding about the nature and responsibilities of department heads' roles. A holistic, participative management style approach may be beneficial because it could positively influence interdepartmental relationships, as teachers develop an understanding relevant to department leadership. This understanding may motivate teachers to be more cooperative with department heads as they fulfill their range of duties and responsibilities.

3. Policymakers should expand the capacity of teacher training institutions so that the pedagogical needs of vocational teachers are met.

The analysis illustrated that vocational teachers described themselves as "demoralized" and "disenfranchised" because no training and development opportunities are offered for vocational teachers in Belize. The training and development needs of vocational teachers are as important as the needs of those who work in academic fields. One sector is as important as the other, especially considering that all students' learning is important. Given that department heads perform mentoring and supervisory roles and influence teaching and learning in their departments, it could be assumed that they possess content and pedagogical knowledge in their respective fields. Lam (2012), Mjelda and Daly (2012), Nelson & Sassi (2000), and Spillane and

Seashore Louis (2002) explained that to understand what occurs in classrooms, those who supervise must possess and demonstrate knowledge of pedagogical process and content knowledge. Consistent with this observation, E. Smith and Grace (2011) emphasized that vocational educators need both pedagogical and vocational qualifications and skills, which do not differ from academic teachers' training and development needs. In this regard, policymakers may want to review the current approaches to teacher preparation, because according to results from this study, the approaches do not reflect vocational pedagogy.

4. Continuous professional development is a necessity for department heads.

The results from this study illustrated that department heads influenced teaching and learning in their departments. As a result, continuous professional training and development is important for department heads because those experiences could enhance their knowledge and capabilities (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Bak & Onn, 2010; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Koellner et al., 2011; Newmann et al., 2000.) However, instead of being "short-term and episodic," professional training and development "experiences should be sustained and continuous" (Newmann et al., 2000, p. 259). Sustained professional training and development influence department heads' performance at work and develop their competencies, capacities, and capabilities, which directly or indirectly influence students' performances.

5. Principals and school managers should develop a culture that fosters collaboration and networking among other high schools.

Networking among secondary schools in Belize to organize and conduct in-service workshops and seminars for current and newly appointed department heads may strengthen departmental leadership and foster cross-departmental communication and collaboration. Networking may provide valuable opportunities for shared professional development for both

vocational and academic leaders. Networking may be an excellent way for department heads to get to know each other, share and exchange ideas, and identify and implement solutions that address the challenges they face.

6. Principals and school managers should foster a culture that supports and nurtures shared instructional leadership.

Some participants indicated that they shared instructional leadership with their school principals. Others did not mention information sharing because a principal's micromanagement behavior discouraged honest, open interventions. Blegen and Kennedy (2000) warned that principals who micromanage could miss valuable opportunities for the staff to grow and develop from the diversity of skills, talents, and abilities that exist among them.

In the present study, shared instructional leadership provided a supportive structure for department heads as they performed their range of responsibilities. Blegen and Kennedy (2000) indicated that principals who were confident in their abilities to lead were most likely to share instructional leadership. Principals and school managements can nurture a culture of shared instructional leadership. Instructional leaders can observe teachers and provide them with constructive feedback so that they improve and strengthen their classroom management and instructional practices. The absence of effective leadership may leave teachers to struggle on their own.

Recommendations for Future Research

The present study examined the leadership roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. The study is important because it contributes to the limited database of empirical research that examines school leadership in Belize. Further exploration of secondary school department heads' leadership roles could benefit policymakers, administrators, staff, and other

key stakeholders in Belize's education system. The results of this study offer several recommendations for future research in Belize.

1. An extension of this study with more participants from other schools and from other districts would be appropriate.

Two limitations of this study were time and a small sample size. These limitations make the findings applicable only to the two schools where the interviews were conducted and to Belizean secondary schools with similar characteristics and demographics. Considering the limitations, further exploration of the leadership roles of secondary school department heads with different school management structures—denominational, government, or community—would be desirable. A longitudinal study using shadowing and other methods of data collection may enhance the breadth and depth of the data and could allow for comparisons of secondary school department heads' leadership roles in Belize. The results of such a study may be beneficial for studying various issues related to school leadership in Belize. Additionally, the results of such a study could provide valuable information for practice, policy development and implementation, professional training and development, and a support system for department heads.

2. Teachers' perspectives on the effectiveness of departmental leadership should be investigated.

By focusing on teachers' perspectives regarding effective and ineffective departmental leadership, researchers could examine whether the role of department head is a necessary function for secondary schools in Belize. Additionally, researchers could examine whether the leadership that high school department heads provide supports necessary for teachers' well-being, improve the quality of teaching, and increases student achievement. Furthermore, a study that focuses on understanding teachers' perspectives about the effectiveness of departmental

leadership may provide valuable information for practice, policy development and implementation, and professional training and development.

3. Research is necessary to determine the extent to which department heads are involved in the quality assurance work of classroom teachers.

Results from this study indicated that department heads in Belize have extensive duties and responsibilities, and even within the same school, they have different teaching hours and workloads. A study could be conducted on the relationship between department heads' teaching hours and their ability to effectively fulfill their duties and responsibilities, including monitoring and evaluating the quality of teaching and learning in their respective departments. The result of such a study may have important implications for school practice, policy development and implementation, professional training and development, and a support system for department heads.

4. Research is needed to examine how departmental cultures and school structures affect leadership styles and departmental performance.

The present study supports the importance of secondary schools department heads' roles and demonstrated that leadership styles, departmental contexts, and school structures influence the way in which department heads functioned. Leadership styles influence departmental structure and cohesiveness. A study of these important factors is needed to help administrations and school managers understand the dynamics of leadership and culture within departmental contexts. Understanding these important factors is necessary for department heads to receive the necessary support to fulfill their range of duties and responsibilities.

5. Research on strategies that vocational teachers use to integrate vocational pedagogies into the teaching-learning process is worthwhile.

While it is generally accepted that teachers' experiences contribute to their connoisseurship and knowledge base for teaching, findings from the present study suggested that vocational teachers have the lowest level of qualifications when compared to other teachers and that they have no, if any, guidance on pedagogical strategies. Therefore, empirical studies are needed to investigate teaching-learning strategies used by vocational teachers. The results from these studies could provide valuable information for developing, implementing, and improving effective practices, policies, and training and development programs that improve and professionalize vocational education teachers at the secondary level.

Summary

Chapter 5 included three sections. The first section summarized the purpose of the study, the related literature, and the methodology of the study. The second section provided a summary of the data analysis and themes as well as offered conclusions for the study. The third section presented implications for policy and practice and offered recommendations for future research.

Faber (2013) discussed the improvement of education quality in Belizean schools. The discussion followed the results of the Primary School Examination (PSE), which was taken by students in Standard 6 (Grade 8). The PSE is a criterion-referenced examination that assesses achievement in the English, mathematics, social studies, and science skills of the National Primary School Curriculum in Belize. Results from the examination indicated that overall performance was below expectations, especially in mathematics, where approximately 45% of students scored in the inadequate range. This performance was of particular concern to the MOE. Although performance was below expectations, the MOE cautioned that improving the

education quality in Belizean schools must be a collective responsibility. Collective responsibility suggests that all key stakeholders in education have a critical role to play in the delivery and improvement of quality education in Belize, including the school as a whole, the MOE, managing authorities, teachers' union, parents, and the community (Faber, 2013).

It is uncertain what number of primary school graduates in Belize will pursue secondary education. In 2008, the MOE reported that 84.7% of primary school graduates transitioned to high school, but grade repetition and dropout rates were high. As a result, enrollment remained low, which made Belize's high school enrollment rate the lowest in Central America and the Caribbean.

The results of the PSE scores have significant implications for effective policies, practices, and professional training and development for high school department heads in Belize. The ministry's concern for the performance of students in mathematics mirrors the concern of two mathematics department heads who participated in the present study. The participants were particularly concerned about the approaches teachers used to provide mathematics instruction. One participant said, "Everyone can learn mathematics, but teachers need to use an approach that will make it real and interesting." Another said, "It's not necessarily the topics or the materials taught, but how it is taught and the sequence used by teachers."

The participants' concerns reflect the need for individuals responsible for professional training and development to plan and conduct purposeful and sustained professional development that addresses teachers' needs to increase their knowledge of and skills in differentiated instructional approaches. The use of differentiated instructional approaches is well documented in the literature (Coldren & Spillane, 2007; Darling-

Hammond, 2010; Eggen & Kauchak, 2010; Glanz, 2006; Gordon, 2004; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Jones, 2012; Louis et al., 2010; Marks & Printy, 2003; Miller et al., 2009; Nelson & Sassi, 2000; Wilen et al., 2004). The benefits that sustained professional development has for building teachers' competencies, capacities, and capabilities—thereby directly or indirectly affecting students' learning—is likewise well documented in the research literature (Aitken & Aitken, 2008; Arp et al., 2006; Bak & Onn, 2010; Balan et al., 2011; Darling-Hammond, 2010; Desimone et al., 2006; Gordon, 2004; Hochberg & Desimone, 2010; Koellner et al., 2011; Leithwood et al., 2008; Louis et al., 2010; Newmann et al., 2000; Robinson & Timperley, 2007).

What are now needed are policymakers and school leaders who understand and are willing to use empirical evidence to change the culture and practice of education and professional development in Belize. A paradigmatic shift or calculated transition from the status quo and traditional practices to learning organization practices based on research evidence could result in profound changes in the way education, training, and development are conducted in Belize, and in the way school leaders in Belize lead, teachers teach, and students learn. The benefits from a calculated evidence-based transition could support nascent policies and initiatives being developed at the Ministry of Education and at secondary schools across Belize.

APPENDIX A
Interview Protocol

Research topic: The leadership roles of secondary school department heads at two government schools in Belize

Time: ____________

Date: ___________________________

Place: ________________________

Interviewee: ___________________

Demographic Data

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. How long have you been a department head?
3. How many teachers are there in your department?
4. What is your highest level of professional qualification?

Questions

1. How do you describe what you typically do as a department head?
2. How do your daily tasks reflect the tasks in the job description?
3. What does instructional leadership means to you?
4. What do you think your role as department head should be?
5. What type of incentives are you given?
6. What do you think school administration could do to improve your role?
7. What impact do the different activities at school have on teachers' ability to complete their syllabus?
8. How do you monitor instruction for alignment to the curriculum?
9. How do you work with teachers when using student achievement data?
10. What do you think should be the purpose of supervision?
11. Tell me about your preparation to assume the role of department head.
12. What are your responsibilities for professional development in your department?
13. What challenges have you experienced as a department head?

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND HUMAN SERVICES
UNF UNIVERSITY of NORTH FLORIDA.

APPENDIX B
Principal Cover Letter for Entry to Site

Dear Principal,

My name is Ethel Mae Hernandez. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of North Florida in the College of Education and Human Services. As a partial requirement for my doctoral degree, I am conducting a research study to examine the roles of secondary school department heads in Belize. The purpose of this letter is to request your permission to access the school compound and speak with participants in order to schedule a date, time, and place to conduct the interview at their convenience. At no time will the interview sessions interfere with your school instructional program. With the participants' permission, I will tape the interview using multiple audio recorders. I will transcribe the data and following transcription, I will provide participants a copy to review. I will make transcripts of the recordings, code the transcripts with pseudonyms, and then destroy the recordings.

Data from this study may be published. However, pseudonyms will be used to protect participants' identity and the identity of their schools. Participants' names and their schools will be kept strictly confidential, and I will not release information to anyone in a manner that could identify the participants or the schools. All data collected will be encrypted and stored on the University of North Florida's secure server. Only my dissertation chair and I will have access to the data.

Department heads' participation in the study is voluntary, and they may decline to answer questions with which they are uncomfortable. Thus, they may choose to skip questions they do not wish to answer or withdraw their participation without penalty or loss. Once the study is complete, I will be happy to provide you with a summary of the results if you so desire. In the meantime, if you have any questions, you may telephone me at or send an email to

Thank you for your professional courtesy.

Sincerely,

Ethel Mae Hernandez
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX C
IRB Memorandum of Approval

UNF
UNIVERSITY of NORTH FLORIDA.

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
1 UNF Drive
Jacksonville, FL 32224-2665
904-620-2455 FAX 904-620-2457
Equal Opportunity/Equal Access/Affirmative Action Institution

MEMORANDUM

UNF IRB Number: 381606-2
Approval Date: 11-20-2012
Expiration Date: Exempt - None
Processed on behalf of UNF's IRB KLC

DATE: November 20, 2012

TO: Ms. Ethel Hernandez

VIA: Dr. Warren Hodge
LSCSM

FROM: Dr. Katherine Kasten, Chairperson
On behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board

RE: Review of New Project Revisions by the UNF Institutional Review Board IRB#381606-2:
"Examining The Leadership Roles of Secondary School Department Heads in Belize"

This is to advise you that your project, "Examining The Leadership Roles of Secondary School Department Heads in Belize" was reviewed on behalf of the UNF Institutional Review Board and has been declared Exempt, Categories 2 & 4." Therefore, this project requires no further IRB oversight unless substantive changes are made.

approval applies to your project in the form and content as submitted to the IRB for review. All participants must receive a stamped and dated copy of the approved informed consent document. Any variations or modifications to the approved protocol and/or informed consent forms that might increase risk to human participants must be submitted to the IRB prior to implementing the changes. Please see the UNF Standard Operating Procedures for additional information about what types of changes might elevate risk to human participants. Any unanticipated problems involving risk and any occurrence of serious harm to subjects and others shall be reported promptly to the IRB within 3 business days.

Your study has been approved as of 11/20/2012. Because your project was approved as exempt, no further IRB oversight is required for this project unless you intend to make a change that might elevate risk to participants. As an exempt study, continuing review will be unnecessary. When you are ready to close your project, please complete a Closing Report Form which can also be found in the documents library called "Forms and Templates" in IRBNet.

As you may know, **CITI Course Completion Reports are valid for 3 years**. Your completion report is valid through 11/15/2014 and Dr. Hodge's completion report is valid through 10/13/2014. If your completion report expires within the next 60 days or has expired, please take CITI's refresher course and contact us to let us know

you have completed that training. If you have not yet completed your CITI training or if you need to complete the refresher course, please do so by following this link: http://www.citiprogram.org/. Should you have questions regarding your project or any other IRB issues, please contact the research integrity unit of the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs by emailing IRB@unf.edu or calling (904) 620-2455.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within UNF's records. All records shall be accessible for inspection and copying by authorized representatives of the department or agency at reasonable times and in a reasonable manner. A copy of this approval may also be sent to the dean and/or chair of your department.

UNF IRB Number: 381606-2
Approval Date: 11-20-2012
Expiration Date: Exempt - None
Processed on behalf of UNF's IRB KLC

APPENDIX D
Participant Invitation Letter

Dear Participant,

My name is Ethel Mae Hernandez. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of North Florida in the College of Education and Human Services. As a partial requirement for my doctoral degree, I am conducting a research study to examine the roles of secondary school department heads in Belize.

The purpose of this letter is to request your permission for a semi-structured open-ended interview. I would like to learn about your leadership role and experience as a secondary school department head in Belize. Prior to conducting the interview, I will discuss in person the informed consent form at a place, time, and date that is convenient to you. I will ask you to read and sign the consent form before the interview begins. I will provide you with a copy of the consent form to keep for your records. The interview will take approximately 45 to 60 minutes and will be conducted at your convenience. With your permission, I will tape the interview using multiple audio recorders and you may decline to answer questions with which you are uncomfortable. I will make transcripts of the recordings and then code the transcripts with pseudonyms. Following transcription, I will provide you with a copy to review. After reviewing the transcript, you may withdraw your response to any question, or make changes or clarifications as you see fit before you return the transcript to me. I will accept your changes or clarifications to the document.

Pseudonyms will be used to protect your identity and that of your school. Your name and the high school will be kept strictly confidential, and I will not release any information you give me to anyone in a manner that could identify you or your school. There are no foreseeable risks and no compensation involve for your participation. Your participation is voluntary, and you may choose to skip questions you do not wish to answer or withdraw your participation from the study without penalty or loss. Once the study is complete, I will be happy to provide you with a summary of the results if you so desire. If you have any questions, you may telephone me at or send an e-mail to

Thank you for your professional courtesy.

Sincerely,

Ethel Mae Hernandez
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX E
Informed Consent Form

Dear Participant,

I am Ethel Mae Hernandez, doctoral candidate at the University of North Florida in the College of Education and Human Services. I am conducting a research study to examine the roles of secondary school department heads in Belize.

I would like you to participate in a semi-structured open-ended interview to learn your views about your leadership role as a secondary school department head in Belize. Your participation in this study will take approximately 45 to 60 minutes of your time. With your permission, I will tape the interview using multiple audio recorders, and you may decline to answer questions with which you are uncomfortable. I will make transcripts of the recordings and then code the transcripts with pseudonyms. Following transcription, I will provide you with a copy to review. After reviewing the transcript, you may withdraw your response to any question, or make changes or clarifications as you see fit before you return the transcript to me. I will accept your changes or clarifications to the document.

Data from this study may be published. However, pseudonyms will be used to protect your identity and that of your high school. Your response will be kept strictly confidential, and only my dissertation chair and I will have access to the data. Data collected will be encrypted and stored on the University of North Florida's secure server. Recordings will be destroyed immediately after the completion of my dissertation.

Although there are no direct benefits to or compensation for taking part in this study, others may benefit from the findings of study. Additionally, there are no foreseeable risks for taking part in this study. Your participation is voluntary, and you may choose to skip any question you do not wish to answer or withdraw your participation without penalty or loss. Once the study is complete, I will be happy to provide you with a summary of the results if you so desire.

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact me or my dissertation chair.

If you have questions about your rights as a participant, you may contact the University of North Florida's Institutional Review Board Chairperson, Dr. Katherine Kasten, at or by emailing her at irb@unf.edu

Thank you for your professional courtesy.

Sincerely,

Ethel Mae Hernandez

Dr. Warren Hodge (Dissertation Chair)
College of Education
University of North Florida

I ________________________________ (print name) attest that I am at least 18 years old and agree to take part in the study Examining The Leadership Roles of Secondary School Department Heads in Belize conducted by Ethel Mae Hernandez and the University of North Florida. A copy of this form was given to me to keep for my records.

Signature: __________________________________ Date: _______________________

APPENDIX E
Interview Transcripts

HOD # 4
December 10, 2012
Peter Thomas High School

How long have you been a department head? 5-8 years

How many teachers are there in your department? 9

What is your highest level of professional qualification? Master Degree in Education Leadership

I: How would you describe what you do as a department head?

P: Well, the tasks we do are check lesson plans, do clinical supervision, do grade books, we have to procure things for the department, like science equipment and math also.

I: What do you think should be the purpose of supervision?

P: The purpose of supervision is to improve, always for improvement, giving positive feedback on how the teachers could improve weak areas.

I: What do you do with the information?

P: In terms of formal evaluation, the principal and the vice principal have a guide that we establish. We change it from the handbook—how you suppose to supervise but we add extra criteria to grade teachers. Based on that we give feedback. Let's say we notice that you are weak in classroom management, then we would have a session with classroom management, like maybe staff development. We do it by department as we look at the weaker areas and that serves because I do evaluation then the vice principal do another one. What we usually do, is I do my first evaluation and give them feedback: how to improve on their lessons, what activities they should have. Based on that they could improve for the other evaluation, but I usually ask them what are some activities that you need do, what could be different, how could you get more points, and things like that.

I: Do teachers respond well to being supervised?

P: Well, dah wah trick. Like anybody, once you go there, they put their best and they bring chalk and things like that. Once you are not there they do their own thing. Well not actually do their own thing but they won't bring all their teaching aids, games, and things to make it more interesting. So when we go there, like some of the students tell me, "sir this da the first time this teacher brings chart to class." I look

at the teacher and . . . There are people like that but if we have constant supervision . . . because what we start to do in math since some students struggle a lot . . . we set up a schedule that I go in and assess first period, observe and then give the teacher feedback.

HOD #6
December 12, 2012
John Brown High School

How long have you been a department head? 10 -15 years

How many teachers are there in your department? 7

What is your highest level of professional qualification? Bachelor of Science in Secondary Education

I: How do you describe what you do as a department head?
P: If I were to put it in two words: supervision but more mentoring than supervision. Those two words would sum it up. I mentor and supervise.

I: What do you think should be the purpose of supervision?

P: To improve my teachers, to equip them. They come qualified as in formally educated but they may be formally educated but not equip. I guess supervision is me mentoring them to the point that they are equip to do their job more efficiently.

I: How often do you conduct supervision?

P: Formally, cause we do formal and informally. Formally, I do once per term. We have three terms, but they get supervise at least six times for the year cause the vice principal for curriculum also supervise them once per term so they get supervise twice in each term formally. Other than that we always (pause) in my department, we always check on each other, bounce ideas of each other. So there's a lot of informal supervision

I: What do you do with the information from supervision?

P: We, in the science department, I am the head of the science department. In the science department, we tend to do a lot of team teaching. Like sometimes the weaker teacher would sit in someone else class. We encourage that. Once teachers come here, a lot of younger ones, they sit in my class and then my students say, “Ms. what is Ms. so and so doing in our class?” I say, “Leave them alone.” You know, and I include (pause) I involve them in the lesson. For me fortunately here a lot of our staff is also pass students. Because I've been here so long, I've taught many of them. So they come like, “Ms. I can come

to your class?" So they just come and sit and they learn. What I do also as a part of supervision of helping them, equipping them do the job is I move them around a lot. Like every year (pause) like if you are teaching third form this year, I will move you up with your fourth the following year. So you take your kids the whole school year. Every teacher in the department has had experience teaching at the senior level.

Note: I = Interviewer;   P = Participant

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